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A STUDY ON THE DIFFICULTIES OF THE TRANSLATION OF SIMILE IN SOME OF HAFIZ'S SONNETS

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ABSTRACT

Simile is one of the elements that can be found in a literary text. It is a common figure of speech found in many languages that represents the semantic structure. This is a descriptive and comparative research that aims to make comparisons across two translations of similes in Hafiz's sonnets. In this study, forty five of sonnets and two English translations of Clark in 1891 and Shahriyari in 2005 were examined. To do this research, first the researcher read the Divan-I-Hafiz to understand it. Then its similes were identified. The equivalents of these similes in English translations were identified, too. The data collected and the findings gained based on the method suggested by Newmark in 1988 showed that the two translators used different methods such as reproducing the same image in the TL, replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image, same simile combined with sense, conversion of simile to sense, deletion, translation of a simile by a simile plus sense and translation of simile by a simile. The frequency of the used simile in the two translations was measured and described by some tables, graphs and figures. These points indicated that simile translation is the most difficult task for the translators. The findings of the present study are practically helpful as guidelines for translators, especially literary translators who are more likely to use simile in their translations. The analysis of the translation of selected similes done by Clark and Shahriyari shows that in total, Shahriyari has used deletion more than Clark. Regarding the literal translation in total Clark and Shahriyari have translated literally more than the strategies. So, as far as the findings of the present study show, Shahriyari used the literally translation and deletion without getting the real and depth of meaning.

KEYWORDS: Simile, Translation, Literary translation, Figure of Speech.

INTRODUCTION

Translating figures of speech due to cultural and linguistic differences is a challenging task. This challenge multiplies when the translator has to deal with similes. This study attempts to investigate the translation simile of Hafiz's sonnets from Persian (the source language, SL) to English (the target language, TL). There are many factors involved in attraction which will be discussed below through a discussion on Hafez's poems. But before beginning with the main topic, let's take a brief look at Hafiz and his poetry to become more familiar with this great Persian poet. The Divan-I Hafiz consists of some 500 Ghazal, Rubaiyat, Qita'at, Masnavi,

Saqinameh Moghaninameh, Qasaid, and Mokhammas. "Very little credible information is known about Hafiz's life, particularly its early part. Immediately after his death, many stories, some of mythical proportions were woven around his life. The following is an attempt at encapsulating what we know with a fair amount of certainty about Hafiz's life. His father, Baha- Ud- Din, who was a coal merchant died, leaving him and his mother with much debt. Hafiz and his mother went to live his uncle (also called Saadi). He left day school to work in a drapery shop and later in a bakery.

In the age of 21(1341 A.D) while still working at the bakery, Hafiz delivered bread to a wealthy quarter of town of and saw Shakh-e Nabat, a young of incredible beauty. Many of his poems are addressed to Shakh-e Nabat. In pursuit of reaching his beloved, Hafiz kept a forty day and night vigil at the tomb of Baba Kuhi. In early twenties to early thirties, he became a poet of the court of Abu Ishak, Gained much fame and influence in Shiraz. This was the phase of "Spiritual Romanticism" in his poetry.

In the age of 48, Hafiz fled Shiraz for his safety, and went into self-imposed exile in Isfahan. His poems mainly talk of his longing for Shiraz, for Shakh-e Nabat, and for his spiritual master, Attar (not the famous Farid- Uddin Attar of Neishabour- who predates Hafiz by a couple of centuries- but the lesser known Attar of Shiraz). In sixties, in this phase, up to the age of 69 when he died, he composed more than half of his Ghazals, and continued to teach his small circle of disciples. His poetry at time, talk with the authority of a master who united with God." (www.hafizonlove.com>bio)

The reasons for choosing Divan-e-Hafiz is that it consists of 500 sonnets, Rubaiyat, Qita'at, Masnavi, Saqi Nameh, Moghani Nameh, Qasaid, and Mokhammas; however, very little credible information is known about Hafiz's life particularly its early part. The main reason for choosing the simile is the ability of such figurative constructions to give life and color to whichever language they are used in.

Statement of the Problem

This study attempts to investigate the translation simile on Hafiz's sonnets from Persian (the source language, SL) to English (the target language, TL), and the difficulties in the translation of simile in Hafiz's sonnets and as well as the weaknesses of the translators in translation of simile. This research is descriptive and comparative because it makes comparison between two English translators. Simile is a figure of speech that makes comparison between two things. It can be found in a literary text. Simile often creates a problem in translation. This problem is more complicated in poetry. To do this research, the researcher first read the Hafiz's sonnets to understand them, then the researcher read and identified the similes in the two translations.

Simile is one of the common figures of speech that is found in literary texts. According to Pierini (2007, p. 25), similes fulfill an aesthetic function and are usually creative, and it is a way of talking about something in a surprising way. It cannot be translated literally since it may cause misinterpretation in other languages. Misinterpretation of the similes could happen when they have different points of similarity or image in other languages. This is one of the challenges that

have to be faced by translators. There are also situations when translators cannot understand the real meaning of the similes in the source language and these will also lead to misunderstanding to the target readers.

According to Larson (1984, p. 250) not all the similes can be easily understood and they usually cannot be translated literally. Based on this situation, it is interesting to identify the strategies applied by the translators in translating figures of speech particularly the translation of similes from Persian into English. As we know, the divergences of two language systems may pose translation problems to the translators. Furthermore, two different cultures may use different images in expressing the same thing.

Objectives of the Study

1. To identify the similes in Hafiz's selected sonnets,
2. To assess the translation strategies that the English translators have used,
3. To determine which translator has more weaknesses,
4. To determine the frequency of each strategy

Theoretical Framework

Newmark (1988, p. 88) proposed the following procedures for translating metaphor and simile:

1. Reproducing the same image in the TL,
2. Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image,
3. Same simile combined with sense,
4. Conversion of a simile to sense,
5. Deletion,
6. Translation of a simile by simile plus sense and
7. Translation of a simile by simile

Significance of the Study

The present study can help translators and translation students have a better understanding of figures of speech and the difficulties they can pose in translating, especially in literary texts. This research has very important and noticeable relevancies. Firstly, it is an attempt to help the translators to find better and precise equivalents for source text simile and give them efficient insights to produce more accurate translations of Hafiz. It throws lights on the applicability of Newmark's theory (1988, p. 88) on the translation of simile from Persian into English. In practical view, the researcher claims that the research can be helpful for those students interested in the study of translation studies, especially translating poetry. It also helps students who want to know about literature and poetry. It may be beneficial for translation tutors and translation students as well as professional translators. By doing so, the amateur translators and undergraduate students can perform better in translation. In other words, it can be beneficial to improve their proficiency in translation. And also, it is useful for students of Translation Studies, translators, translation critics and other interested groups. Other researchers could also derive similar implications from most of the findings of this research.

THE REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Translation

Anne Schjoldager (2008, p.19) says that "a translation is a text that expresses what another text has expressed in another language". This confirms that in the translation process, one language is carried across to a new language. Hatim and Munday (2004, p. 34) also suggest that "one of the key problems for the analyst was in actually determining whether the source text meaning had been transferred into the target text". It is clear here that meaning is the key problem: whether meaning of the source language text is accurately transferred into the target language text (or not).

According to Jeremy Munday in his book *Introducing Translation Studies*, most translation processes require changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (source language or SL) into a written text (target text or TT) in a different verbal language (target language or TL). This is called interlingual translation (Munday 2001, pp. 4-5). However, Munday stresses that translation does not necessarily have to be a transfer of one language into another as there are other types of translation too.

Nida and Taber (1982, p. 12), on the other hand, state that "translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message". This definition is more comprehensive than the previous ones. Nida and Taber explicitly state that "translation is closely related to the problems of languages, meaning, and equivalence". From the definitions mentioned above, it is found that translation is a process which is intended to find meaning equivalence in the target text.

This is also what Newmark (1981, p. 7) states "Translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language". Catford (1974, p. 20) defines translation as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)". The most important thing in translation is to keep the message and the content of the Source Text in the target text. From those definitions above, it can be resulted that translation is the process of transferring ideas, thought, and message from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL).

Poetry Translation

According to Niknasab & Pishbin (2011) talking about understanding poetry, we must be aware of the central two-fold approach to the rendering of poetry: it is necessary to know the literal sense as well as the symbolic or the meaning supposed to be understood by readers. Diction of poems should be considered seriously. Poets select words that completely express their feelings, thoughts and what they wish readers' response be. Niknasab & Pishbin (2011) believe that as it is evident translating poetry is a matter of relativity i.e. all aesthetic aspects of the original poem cannot be transferred into the TL version.

Among different scholars who have some words on poetry translation the most famous scholar is Jakobson, who believes that "Poetry by definition is untranslatable... and it requires creative

transposition". (cited in Venuti, 2000, p.118). But some other scholars like Dryden (cited in Miremadi, 1995, p. 85) argue that all meanings and concepts are translatable and what is said in one language can be conveyed in another language. Many researches are designed to investigate the problems a translator may face during the task of literary, especially, poetry translation.

Lefever (1992) takes side with the issue of translatability of poetry and introduces a number of methods such as, phonological translation, literal translation, rhythmic translation, translation into prose, translation into rhymed poetry, translation into poetry without rhyme (blank verse), and interpretive translation.

Literary Translation

The style of writing and diction in literary text and non-literary one is different. Newmark (2004) writes literary texts are about persons, implicitly dialogues between first and second person. Non-literary texts are about objects, normally in the third person. According to Jackson (2003), literary translation differs in many important respects from the kind of translation practiced in a language class. He believes that literary translation involves a good deal of interpretation of intent and effect and also the literary translator is often not as much interested in literal 'transliteration' as in finding the mood, tone, voice, sound, response, and so forth.

It is one of the great creative and universal means of communicating the emotional, spiritual and intellectual concerns of humankind. Literary translation has to do with translating texts written in a literary language, which abounds in ambiguities, homonyms and arbitrariness, as distinct from the language of science or that of administration. Literary language is highly connotative and subjective because each literary author is lexically and stylistically idiosyncratic and through his power of imagination, he uses certain literary techniques such as figures of speech, proverbs and homonyms through which he weaves literary forms. Landers (2001, p. 7) argues that:

Literary translation, at least in the English-speaking world, faces a difficulty that texts originally written in English do not: resistance by the public to reading literature in translation... In technical translation, for example, style is not a consideration so long as the informational content makes its way unaltered from SL to TL... In literary translation, the order of the cars – which is to say the style – can make the difference between a lively, highly readable translation and a stilted, rigid, and artificial rendering that strips the original of its artistic and aesthetic essence, even its very soul.

Literary translation is a type of translation which is distinguished from translation in general. A literary translation must reflect the imaginative, intellectual and intuitive writing of the author. In fact, literature is distinguished by its aesthetics. Little concern has been devoted to the aesthetics of literary translations because these translations are popularly perceived as unoriginal (Devy, 1999, p. 183). Belhaag (1997, p. 20) summarizes the characteristics of literary translations as:

1. Expressive,
2. Connotative

3. Symbolic,
4. Focusing on both form and content,
5. Subjective,
6. Allowing multiple interpretation,
7. Timeless and universal,
8. Using special devices to 'heighten' communicative effect,
9. Tendency to deviate from the language norms

Literal Translation

Catford (1974), states that there are three types of translation. They are word-for-word translation, free translation and literal translation. Literal translation lies between word-for-word translation and free translation. The translator translates the text by using word-for-word translation and then some parts are changed in conformity with the grammatical system of the target language. According to Catford "Literal translation lies between these extremes; it may start, as it were, from a word for word translation, but make changes in conformity with the TL grammar (i.e. inserting additional words, changing structure at any rank, etc.); this may make it a group-group or clause-clause translation" (1974, p. 25).

Newmark distinguishes the literal from the word-for-word and one-to-one translation. Word-for-word translation transfers SL grammar and word-order, as well as the primary meanings of all the SL words into the translation, and is normally effective only for brief simple neutral sentences. In one-to-one translation which is a broader form of translation, each SL word has a corresponding TL word, but their primary meaning may differ. Since one-to-one translation normally respects collocation meanings, which exert the most powerful contextual influence on translation, it is commoner than word-for-word translation. Literal translation goes beyond one-to-one translation, particularly applicable to languages that do not have definite and /or indefinite articles (Newmark, 1988).

Literal translation ranges from word to word; group to group; collocation to collocation; clause to clause; sentence to sentence. The smaller the unit, the commoner the approach would be. If there are any transnational problems, or ambiguities and uncertainties literal translation is usually out of question. Above the word level, this procedure becomes increasingly difficult. Above the word level, literal translation is the correct procedure only (1) if the SL and TL meaning correspond more closely than any alternative, and (2) the meaning of the SL unit is not affected by its context, in such a way that the meaning of the SL unit does not correspond to it (Newmark, 1988).

Related Studies

Here, the studies done by different researchers are presented. These studies were divided into two parts; first, the ones which have been done inside Iran, Zohdi and Rostami Abou Saeedi (2011) in "*Translating Metaphor and Simile from Persian to English: A Case Study of Khayyam's Quatrains*" identified the most accurate translations of metaphors and similes of Omar Khayyam's Rubaiyat found that FitzGerald has not rendered an accurate translation and has done a more or less a free translation. In his translation, many of the verses are paraphrased, and some

of them cannot be confidently traced to any of Khayyam's quatrains at all and also some of the Fitzgerald's translations cannot be matched with their original texts because they are completely different.

Fadaee (2011) in "*Translation techniques of figures of speech: A case study of George Orwell's 1984 and Animal Farm*", revealed that 1) according to Newmark (1988a, p. 57), "theories and techniques of translating figures of speech, such as metaphor and simile are so limited which do not cover translating all types of metaphors and similes"; 2) in Persian language, there is no general and fundamental techniques for translating metaphor and simile, and just English techniques are used for translating these two figures of speech. Second, the others which have been done outside Iran: Hilman, Ardiyanti, and Pelawi (2013) in a paper "*Translation of Similes in F. Scott Fitzgerald's Novel The Great Gatsby*" presented that a simile will be acceptable if the target readers can find similar features between the topic and the image. Hence, the translator needs to consider strategies in translating the simile and he or she has to choose the appropriate translation strategies, Otherwise, the similes will be beyond comprehension.

Ramli (2014) in "*The Translation of Simile in the Hunger Games Novel: Translation Strategies*" showed that Literal translation seems to be the most strategy used by the translator. Oliynyk (2014) in "*Metaphor Translation Methods*", by considering the model of Newmark found that Newmark advocated maintaining the maximum of the original form of the author's metaphor, but at the same time he agreed that excessive adherence to the original can bring the imbalance in the overall style of the text. According to him, the choice of the way of translation depends upon the type of text under translation, the number of individual author's metaphors used in the text, and the translator's decision to use figurative speech in the translated text or not.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study focused on investigating the following research questions:

1. What are the weaknesses of the translators in rendering simile in the target text?
2. What strategies did the translators use for translation of simile?
3. What is the frequency of each strategy?
4. What are the approaches used by the translators of Hafiz's sonnets for the translation of simile?

METHODOLOGY

Corpus

The material for this research is the Persian text of Divan-I-Hafiz and the two translations, one by Wilberforce Clarke (1891) and the other by Shahriar Shahriyari (2005), in order to determine how similes strategies were translated in its two English translations and which of them has weakness in his work. The references as the researcher used them are here:

Shahriyari, Sh. (2005). The Divan-I Hafiz. Retrieved from: (WWW.hafizonlove.com>bio)

Clarke, H. W. (1891). The Divan-I Hafiz. Volumes 1 and 2. Royal (Late Bengal) Engineers.

سلامی، الف. (1384). دیوان حافظ همراه با گزیده ای ترجمه ها. تهران: انتشارات هنر سرای گویا.

Data Collection

The current research aims at the world of the translations of Hafiz's sonnets to investigate the translation of similes in her selected sonnets. To perform this task, the study identifies and analyzes forty five sonnets which contain similes, and then compares the translations of the selected sonnets by Clarke (1891) and Shahriyari (2005). The source of Persian analysis and interpretation of these data is the Persian explanation written by Jalaliyan, Abdolhossein (The Explanation of Hafiz Sonnets, Volume 1, Chapter 2, Tehran: Yazdan Publication).

The researcher has used Newmark's method (1988) to investigate the translation of similes in Hafiz's sonnets then, the frequency of the used similes, and the frequency of translation strategies were measured and were drawn by some related graphs, tables and figures. Finally, the researcher presented the related findings and conclusions according the data.

Data Analysis

In this section of the present investigation, the data of the forty five similes from the Divan-I-Hafiz and their two translations collected were analyzed and based on the related tables as well as frequency, percentages, and favorite data, the questions presented in chapter one were answered. In this section, two kinds of tables were drawn showing the samples and their translations by Clarke and Shahriyari. In the second part, the samples along with the related strategies were shown, and the results were analyzed and reported through measures of frequencies and percentages.

Table 1: Simile and their translations by Clarke and Shahriyari

No.:	Translator	Wilberforce Clarke	Shahriyar Shahriyari
	Simile samples		
1	گوی چوگان شما	the chaugan ball of yours	as a ball in your polo race
2	چو نافه	From Thy perfume	Like an umbilical cord
3	چون نای	like the reed	like a reed
4	همچو چشم صراحی زمانه	like the wine-flagon's (ruddy) eye	Like this flask of wine
5	همچو بلبل در قفس	like the Bulbol in the cage	Like a nightingale in cage
6	شیر در بادیه عشق تو روباه شود،	In the desert of love for Thee, the (noble) lion becometh (through fear) the (crafty) fox	Brave lion in love's desert, just like a fox hides
7	حکایت اردیبهشت	tale (of glories) of the (spring month) Urdibihisht	like Paradise
8	خوش عروسیست	As a fine bride	just like a bride
9	چون چشم تو گردد نرگس	like Thy eye, it might become, the narcissus became sick	Though your eyes bloomed as flowers
10	ز چشم لعل رمانی	the pomegranate-like ruby (bloody tears) they rain	like red rubies to my eyes
11	دل چو پرگار	like the compass	like a compass
12	چو گل بر لب جوی	every rose-leaf	like that flower
13	پروانه ناپروا	As (its) careless moth	like a moth
14	به سان دیگ دایم	like the (seething) caldron	Like a boiling pot
15	چو پیراهن	like the (close-fitting) garment	Like a shirt
16	چو شمع	like the candle	candle-like

17	چو بلبل	like the bulbul	Like the nightingale
18	طاير گلشن قدسم	The bird of the holy rose-bed (paradise)	As a bird of Paradise
19	همچنان چشم گشاد	the solution (of it) I expect	Like my eyes
20	چو جام	like the cup	Like a cup
21	خط غباری	a dusty line (whereby my vision may to be increased)	as eye-liners, draw a line
22	چو جان	like my own (precious) life	As my own soul
23	چو زهاد	like the zahids	Like the pious
24	چو پروانه	like the moth	moth-like
25	مرغ سان	Like the bird	Like a bird
26	همچو چنگ	like the (cord-slackened) harp	like a harp
27	طاير قدسم	The holy bird (of paradise) am I	As a bird of Paradise
28	صد گدای همچو خود	a hundred beggars like myself	A hundred beggars like myself
29	گلاب	rose-water	Like rose-water
30	چو مسیحا	like the Masiha	like the Christ
31	که بسی گل بدمد باز و تو در گل باشی	For, again, blossometh	Like flowers open up
32	چون عشق من کمالی	Thy beauty took a great perfection	Like my love have reached a peak
33	چون هلالی	like anew (crescent) moon	Like a crescent
34	چو من	like me	like me
35	از غم دل دریایی	become a great ocean (of tears)	like the sea, with heart's disgust
36	چون شمع نکورویی	As is the (flaming) candle	The candle flame of Goodness
37	صد نافه چین دارد	is worth a hundred musk-pods of Chin	Is priceless and so rare
38	سلامی چو بوی خوش آشنائی	A salutation, like the pleasant perfume of friendship	Salutation to the day of friendship's delight
39	دردی چو نور دل پارسایان	A salutation, like the light of the heart of the pious	Greeting the heart of the righteous, bright
40	چون تویی نرگس باغ نظر چشم و چراغ	since the narcissus of the garden of vision thou art	He is the apple of my eyes, light of my soul
41	طوطی صفتم	like the parrot	parrot-like
42	چون گل	like the rose	
43	چو گلنار	like the (ruddy) pomegranate	You water your flowers with my tears' assistance
44	چگل	By that candle of Chigil (the true Beloved)	In that radiant flower find
45	چو آهوی وحشی	like the wild deer	I am the wild doe

Table 2: Translation strategies applied by Clarke and Shahriyari

No.:	Translator	Wilberforce Clarke	Shahriyar Shahriyari
	Simile samples		
1	گوی چوگان شما	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
2	چو نافه	Strategy three (Same metaphor / simile combined with sense)	strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation)
3	چون نای	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
4	همچو چشم صراحی زمانه	Strategy six (Translation of a simile by simile plus sense)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
5	همچو بلبل در قفس	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

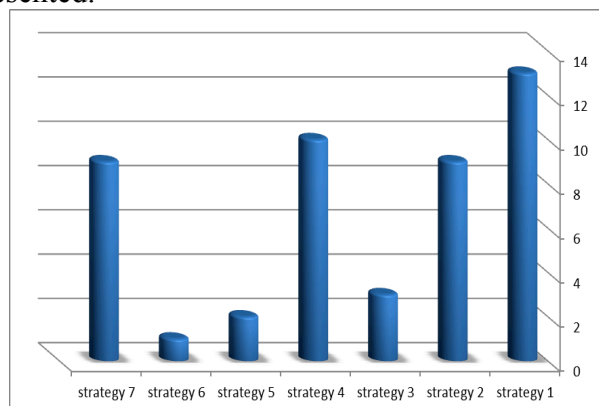
6	شیر در بادیه عشق تو روباه شود،	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image with additional information in brackets)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
7	حکایت اردیبهشت	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy five (Deletion)
8	خوش عروسیست	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
9	چون چشم تو گردد نرگس	Strategy three (Same metaphor / simile combined with sense),	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation).
10	ز چشم لعل رمانی	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
11	دل چو پرگار	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation)	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation)
12	چو گل بر لب جوی	Strategy four (Conversion of metaphor / simile to sense),	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
13	پروانه ناپروا	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
14	به سان دیگ دایم	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
15	چو پیراهن	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
16	چو شمع	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
17	چو بلبل	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as a literal translation),	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile).
18	طایر گلشن قدسم	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense),	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile).
19	همچنان چشم گشاد	Strategy four and five (Conversion of simile to sense and deletion)	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL)
20	چو جام	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL)	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL)
21	خط غباری	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as a literal translation),	Strategy five (Deletion).
22	چو جان	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
23	چو زهاد	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL),	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile).
24	چو پروانه	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
25	مرغ سان	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
26	همچو چنگ	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
27	طایر قدسم	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
28	صد گدای همچو خود	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)
29	گلاب	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as a literal translation),	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile).
30	چو مسیحا	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as a literal translation),	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image).

31	که بسی گل بدمد باز و تو در گل باشی	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense)	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile).
32	چون عشق من کمالی	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense),	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation).
33	چون هلالی	Strategy three (Same simile combined with sense),	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation).
34	چو من	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation),	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation).
35	از غم دل دریایی	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense)	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation).
36	چون شمع نکوروی	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile plus the information in brackets),	Strategy five (Deletion).
37	صد نافه چین دارد	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense),	Strategy five (Deletion).
38	سلامی چو بوی خوش آشنائی	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation),	Strategy five (Deletion).
39	دردی چو نور دل پارسایان	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation),	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation),
40	چون توئی نرگس باغ نظر چشم و چراغ	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense),	Strategy five (Deletion).
41	طوطی صفتم	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)
42	چون گل	Strategy two (Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)	Strategy five (Deletion).
43	چو گلنار	Strategy four (Conversion of simile to sense)	Strategy five (Deletion)
44	چگل	Strategies one and five (Reproducing the same image in the TL as literal translation with deletion)	Strategy five (Deletion).
45	چو آهوی وحشی	Strategy seven (Translation of a simile by a simile)	Strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL)

Table 3: The Frequency of translation strategies applied by Clarke and Shahriyari

No.:	Translator	Clarke	Shahriyari	Total	Percentage (%)
	Strategies				
1	Reproducing the same image in the TL	13	11	24	53.33
2	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	9	11	20	44.44
3	Same simile combined with sense	3	0	3	6.66
4	Conversion of simile to sense	10	0	10	22
5	Deletion	2	9	11	24.44
6	Translation of a simile by a simile plus sense	1	0	1	2.22
7	Translation of a simile by a simile	9	14	23	51.11

In this table, the frequency of the strategies applied by these translators and the whole numbers of their percentage were presented.



Graph 1: The Frequency of translation strategies applied by Clarke

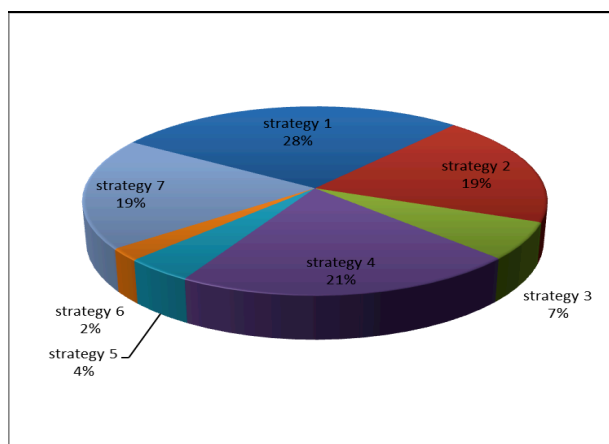
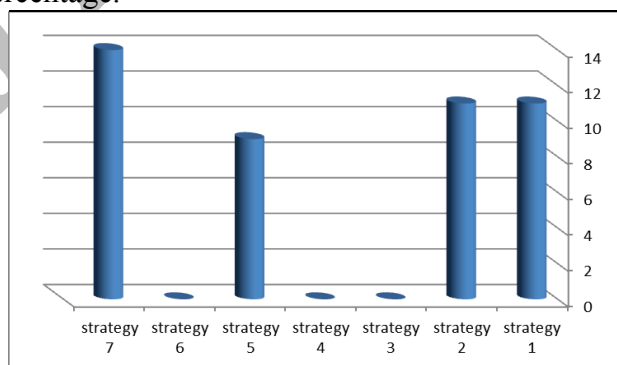


Figure 1: The Percentage of strategies applied by Clarke

The above graph and figure show the frequency of the strategies applied by Clarke. Based on these numbers, strategy one (Reproducing the same image in the TL) is along with the highest frequency to the other ones and strategy six (Translation of a simile by a simile plus sense) is along with the lowest percentage.



Graph 2: The Frequency of translation strategies applied by Shahriyari

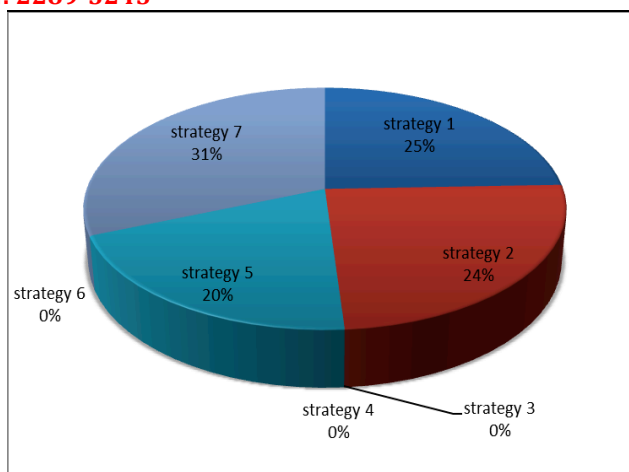


Figure 2: The Percentage of translation strategies applied by Shahriyari

The above figures show that Shahriyari used four strategies as the main ones in order to render the meaning of simile. Based on the graph and figure, the frequency of strategies one, two, and seven had the highest and the frequency of strategies three; four and six had the lowest percentage.

These graphs, tables and figures show that the translators used various methods for rendering such terms. In this paper, it became obvious as Clarke did not use one strategy and he applied a combination of them. Since, the number of samples were limited and the researcher ought to find the common ones, so it was not possible for her to work on all of them. The final results and findings of these samples were presented in chapter five. In this chapter, just the data were collected, analyzed, and the graphs as well as the figures were shown.

CONCLUSION

The present paper as a descriptive and comparative study aimed at investigating and analyzing simile in some sonnets of Hafiz associated with two English translation versions done by Clarke in 1981 and Shahriyari in 2005. This study investigated the translation methods used in Persian to deal with English similes. In the present study, Divan-I-Hafiz and its two English translation versions were compared with each other and with the original text. This research used Newmark (1988) translation model as a framework. First, the researcher collected the data which includes forty five similes. Then, all selected similes and their Persian translations were identified. After it, the researcher compared, analyzed and discussed their translation strategies. Then, the translation strategies applied in the English renderings were identified and their effectiveness was discussed in the previous chapter.

The aim of the present study was to answer the four research questions posed in the first chapter. With respect to the first and second research questions which concern the strategies translators used to transfer simile from ST in to the TT, the results show that different strategies have been used to render simile translating challenges. There is some limitation which the authors faced with: Only forty five sonnets containing simile were chosen. These samples were only common

between the works of Clarke and Shahriyari. Based on this limitation, it was not possible for the researcher to work on all of them and for this reason; she was forced to work on a limited number of them. One difficulty is about the order of sonnets. They are not titled by a name but they are ordered by numbers. These numbers are different in Hafiz sonnets and translations. The next difficulty is the different order of lines. In some cases they are in different sonnets. This difference is in the hemistiches, too.

In this analysis forty five simile were found which had both been translated and seven strategies were employed by the translators. Those strategies are: reproducing the same image in the TL, replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image, same simile combined with sense, conversion of simile to sense, deletion, translation of a simile by a simile plus sense and translation of simile by a simile.

After discussion, the study shows that literal translation is the most applied strategy in Persian language. Among the seven strategies, there were very low application of strategies three and six. These two strategies were either avoided or were applied only in one or two cases by the translators. The analysis of the data indicated that poetry translation like other genres is vulnerable to deformation due to cultural, linguistic and significantly, translators' negligence and inability factors. The notable factor which proved was the fact that Hafiz poems are not ordinary and their manipulation or translation needs high expertise and familiarity with theological and divine aspects of them. Therefore, it is suggested that in the cases of exploration of idiomatic aspects of literary texts like Hafiz in translation, full interpretation of poems in Persian should be done in advance. The findings and results of this study are of help and enlightenment for those who teach similes, translate them and interpret them especially poems like those of Hafiz which have powerful roots in theology and the use of the most valuable figurative devices. The findings of this study show that the translators in some cases resorted to strategies that did not match any of those proposed by Newmark's model as Clarke has used a combination of them and he has applied one strategy for translation of simile plus footnote or additional information in brackets to make it tangible for TT readers. These strategies were termed as Others or Miscellaneous Group (not mentioned here because they were not common between the translations of this two translator). Accordingly, Clark's translation is more effective than the other translation. We can conclude Shahriyari has more weakness due to several reasons, and some of them are as follows: First, Shahriyari has omitted nine of the similes but Clark has omitted only two of the similes. Second, Shahriyari has used thirteen literal translations of the original similes but Clark has used eleven. Third, Shahriyari is not creative but Clark is more creative and has combined one or two strategies in simile translations, and the last, Shahriyari has left strategies three, four and six, so Shahriyari was not successful in his translation and does not have good transferring in the similes and their meaning.

Suggestions For Further Studies

There are various fields in the domain of literary translation as the researchers and students of this field can work on them such as the following ideas:

- Studying and analyzing similes and metaphors by using Newmark's model,
- Revising this model for the translation of rhetorical devices or figure of speech,

- Studying the pragmatic aspects of literary translation in different literary works and etc.

It can be expected that all researchers choose them and present their final results about the above mentioned suggestions.

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TABOO AND EUPHEMISM IN PROSTITUTE TERMINOLOGIES IN BAHASA INDONESIA (A STUDY OF SOCIO-SEMANTICS)

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to describe prostitute terms in Bahasa Indonesia which are found on the data. Further, the objectives of this study are: to formulate a full understanding of each term or synonym of the word pelacur (prostitute), to describe the public's view towards those terms related to taboo and euphemism, and to study the formality of using these terms. To answer those problems, the present writer has adopted some theoretical frameworks from Wardaugh (1992), Ullman 1972 in Wijana (2006), while to gain full understanding of the terms, the present writers consult Indonesian official dictionary which officially issued by government. The result shows that all the data have the same lexical meaning that refers to women who worked selling or provide themselves for sex satisfaction of their customers. secondly, people opinions or judgments toward each term. Two terminologies in the data are considered as euphemism of the others. They are more commonly used, especially in the media news, while other terms infer to more negative connotations as they tend to humiliate and discriminate woman. Third, the formality of using them in daily communication both spoken and written, two words are used in formal speech and others are in informal speech.

KEYWORDS: Sociolinguistics, semantics, taboo, euphemisms, formal, informal

INTRODUCTION

The problem of prostitution in Indonesia has been seriously increasing, while its news casting has also been massive in both printed and electronic mass media. According to Sonny W. Manalu – Director of social rehabilitation for prostitution in an interview with merahputih.com on April 2016, He said “Generally, there are 56.000 prostitutes, spread over 164 brothel complexes”.

The prevailing problem ranges from open prostitution with its localization to those online on Internet media. Handling and overcoming the problem of prostitution has been a lot conducted by the government in both central and local by closing numerous brothel complexes along with relocation, or even by shutting them down completely. As to any other social problems, the government's efforts have certainly raises the pros and cons in the society.

In turn, the present writers are interested to conduct a study toward the matter. However, the study is not supposed to discuss the issue and attempt of its eradication. In fact, it is intended to provide a language perspective of the issue by studying the use of the terms used to refer to woman who works to sell or provide sex for pleasure or commonly called *pelacur* (prostitute) in Bahasa Indonesia. In sociolinguistics we study language use in society. There are taboo and euphemism words in any society and any languages. It relates to politeness and impoliteness, formal and informal.

The word *pelacur* (prostitute) has many other synonyms. They are known and sometimes we find in everyday life. Semantically they has some meaning, but each of them has a value of either positive which means it is acceptable in the society without feeling taboo to say it, and also a negative value or a negative connotation within public's view.

Prior to further discussion of the various prostitute terms in Bahasa Indonesia as the synonym of the word *pelacur*, first we need to understand the basic definition of this word. According to the official Indonesian dictionary - KBBI (*Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*) (2008: 871) “*Pelacur artinya orang perempuan yg melacur; sundal; wanita tunasusila, yang berasal dari kata dasar lacur yang mempunyai beberapa arti pertama lacur yang berarti malang; celaka; gagal; sial; tidak jadi, dan yang kedua lacur yang berarti tidak baik kelakuan (tt perempuan)*”. ‘*Pelacur means woman who becomes prostitute; Bitch; immoral female, comes from the root word lacur that has several meanings as poor; unlucky; failed; unfortunate; undone, and the second lacur which means female with sinful behavior*’.

In this study the present writers formulate some issues of investigation, namely (1) What is the definition of each term?, (2) What is the public view towards each term related to taboo terms?; and (3) How is the formality of them?

The present writers consider important to do this study in a way that people may give more concern to the use of the terms in everyday life, especially the use of taboo terms associated with subtlety or attempt to please other people's feelings so as not to cause resentment on anyone addressed by the call.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Numerous studies on taboo words or taboo terminologies have been conducted by previous researcher. Koentjoro and Sugihastuti (1999) in their study entitled “*Pelacur. Wanita Tuna Susila, Pekerja Sex, dan Apa Lagi?, Stigmatisasi Istilah*” (Whore, Prostitutes, Sex Worker, and What Else?: Stigmatization of Term) explains the term *pelacur* is more appropriate than the term WTS - Wanita Tuna Susila (immoral woman) because of the fact that not only women become prostitutes but also men with such profession to sell or provide sexual services for pleasure satisfaction and make themselves as gigolo.

Another study has been done by Gao Chunming (2013) in his study entitled “*A Sociolinguistics study of English Taboo Language*”. Chunming describes various words of taboo in English,

among them are about bodily excretion or things excreted from the body such as urinating or defecating, death and disease, and also about sex.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, the present writer purely uses descriptive qualitative method since she describes the definition of some prostitute terminologies, the public view about those terms related to the taboo term and the formality of using those terms. According to Creswell (1994:2) “qualitative is a process of understanding social or human problem in complex building, holistic picture, formed in verbal languages”. Meanwhile, Ritchie and Lewis (2003:3) say that qualitative study gives directives in providing depth understanding of the social world of study participants through learning social value, their experience perspective.

Furthermore, to analyze the data, there are some steps taken, namely: 1) Read the article on magazine and other media to search the using of prostitute terminologies 2) searching the public view towards the usage of those terminologies and 3) classifying the data based on the formality of using them, 4) drawing some conclusion based on the analyses

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

Taboo words are found in all languages, including Indonesian. Wardhaugh (1992: 236) says on this:

“Certain things are not said, not because they cannot be, but because ‘people don’t talk about those things; or if those things are talked about, they are talked about in very roundabout ways. In the first case we have instances of linguistics taboo; in the second we have the employment of euphemisms so as to avoid mentioning certain matters directly”

Several things are not supposed to be said, not that impossible. In fact, people do not say these things as it is considered taboo. Thus, to express things that people consider taboo, they express it by other means or indirectly to make it more delicate; using euphemism. Thus, euphemism is used to refine a word so that it does not imply or sound rude and offensive.

There are three types of taboo, namely the taboo of fear, taboo of delicacy, and taboo of Propriety or politeness (Ullmann 1972 Pateda: 2010, Djajasudarma: 2013 and Aminuddin: 2011, Wijana: 2006). For examples, in some places the word *macan* (tiger) is commonly replaced by *kyai* (spiritual man). It is meant to reduce the sense of fear once the word tiger is said. Several others use the word *kakek* (grandfather). Meanwhile, the word *hantu* (ghost/spirit) is also commonly replaced by the word *penunggu* (watchman). Taboo of delicacy can be found in a substitution of the word *makan* (eat) by *bersantap* (dine). While the phrase *buang air kecil* (urinate) replaces *kencing*, the phrase *berhubungan intim* (making love) replaces *bersetubuh* (sexual intercourse). Taboo of delicacy is commonly used for the matters concerning morality.

A word can be change in meaning because of several factors; those are linguistic factors, historical factors, social factors, psychological factors, and the influence of foreign language, and for the needs of new words (Djajasudarma: 2013).

Within the view of social factors, responses or views of the community toward a certain term or word with the same meaning may be different in every place, they may see it as a positive, or vice versa. Aminuddin (2011) argues that the meaning may experience a shift caused by the wisdom and belief of a particular community in which a language is used. Words may be considered to have a low value or negative connotation (pejoration), for example, the word *ngamar* which means 'to be in a bedroom' has a negative value so that it is normally avoided. In the other hand, the words that have positive value or connotation are called elevation or amelioration. For example, In Bahasa Indonesia, synonym of the word *wanita* (woman) *perempuan*. Infact, the word *wanita* (woman) is considered to have better value than the word *perempuan*.

To get fully understanding about the prostitute terminologies, the present writers refer to the definition of each term in Indonesian official dictionary (KBBI) which is issued by government under Ministry of Education and Culture.

STUDY QUESTIONS

The study is meant to answer the following three questions:

In this study the present writer formulates some issues of investigation, namely:

- (1) What is the definition of each term?
- (2) What is the public view towards each term related to taboo terms?
- (3) What is the formality of each term?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As commonly known there are also several other terms used to replace or the synonym of the word *pelacur*. Those are *PSK* which stands for *Pekerja Sex Komersial* (Commercial Sex Worker), *WTS – Wanita Tuna Susila* (Immoral Woman), *lonte*, *ayam kampus* (campus' chicks), *bondon*, *gongli* and probably many others. The last three words were found in the interview of *Popular* magazine with a well-known artist, Remy Sylado. Later, the present writer of this study makes them into become additional data to the list of terms as a synonym for the word *pelacur*.

As a synonym for the word *pelacur*, each terms has substantially the same meaning and significance. Somehow, they place differently in the position and use in public. People can give positive or negative feedback based on the values or norms espoused. Certain terms are considered to have a low value or derogatory and in turn are rarely used, they are considered taboo as they may cause problems or could offend other people. Ullman 1972 in Wijana 2006 divided the taboo into three groups: (1) taboo as they are scary (*taboo of fear*), (2) taboo for subtlety or to please someone (*taboo of delicacy*), and (3) taboo for modesty or politeness (*taboo of propriety*). Other known terms of the word *pelacur* such as *PSK* and *WTS* can be classified into taboo for subtlety or to please other people's feelings (*taboo of delicacy*). In other cases, people who do not have homes and live under the bridges prefer to be called *tunawisma* (homeless) rather than *gelandangan* (vagrant), while both have identical meaning.

In this study the present writer takes excerpts of an interview of *Popular* magazine with an Indonesian artist, Remy Silado, on the 329th edition of the magazine, published in June 2015. Excerpts of the interview are as follows:

Reporter: "Speaking of college during your time, had there been any 'ayam kampus' how did they work at the time?"

Remy Sylado: "Oh, ayam kampus had always been there. In Bandung in the 60s and 70s alone there had been a term gongli (derived from bagong lieur), then renamed to bondon in the 80s. Ayam Kampus had been longstanding. It had been part of manhood evidentiary. Many wanted them, right"

In addition, the present writers also take several other terms found on official website under control government and media online. On a website which is under control government such as <http://intelresos.kemensos.go.id> for PSKW - Panti Sosial Karya Wanita (Social Welfare for Women's Work), as an official board for rehabilitation for prostitutes to be able to independently and actively participate in social life, they use word Wanita Tuna Susila (WTS) to address prostitute. Other sources which present writers use as the data sources are online news media. In some head line news online relate to prostitute such as *liputan6* and *detik.com*, they use the word PSK (*Pekerja Seks Komersial*) in their column.

Understanding of Prostitute Terminologies

a. Wanita Tuna Susila

According to KBBI -Indonesian official Dictionary (2016) *tunasusila tidak mempunyai susila; lonte;pelacur*. It means has no morality (immoral) like *lonté* or *prostitute*. The word morality itself according KBBI (2016) means customs/traditions, politeness or manner. Hence the term *Wanita Tuna Susila* could mean women who have no morality, no decency, against traditions and norms, uncivilized, identical to *lonte* or prostitute.

b. PSK – Pekerja Sex komersial (Commercial Sex Worker) / PS – Pekerja Sex (Sex Worker)

Commercial sex workers or sex workers are (*Pekerja Sex Komersial -PSK*) - those who work in the field of sexuality, provide sexual services to their customers. According to KBBI -Indonesian official Dictionary (2008: 1402) Sex means sex, sexual is activities related with sex, intercourse.

c. Gongli

According to KBBI (2016) *Gongli* is a girl prostituting herself for sheer enjoyment without the need of being paid. From an interview over the term, *gongli* has been known since the 70s. The term *gongli* stands for *bagong lieur* and derived from the words "*Bagong and lieur*". These are Sundanese words, *Bagong* means Pig and *lieur* means dizzy, it can be ascertained that the term *gongli* comes from the Sundanese.

d. Bondon

In Bahasa Indonesia, the term *bondon* is used as another word or synonym for *pelacur* (prostitute). The word *Bondon* was famous in 80s in Sudanese people– one of tribes in Indonesia. It is a slang and can find on a slang dictionary.

e. Ayam Kampus

The term *ayam kampus* (campus' chicks) refers to female college students who also have profession as a prostitute. As we found on Indonesian official dictionary –KBBI (2016) *Ayam kampus* "mahasiswa yang merangkap sebagai pelacur". 'a female student who serves as a whore or prostitute.' 'It implies that they can get paid to provide sex services.

Public Value or perceptions toward the terms.

Based on the definition of the above terms, it is quite obvious that all of these terms have the same meaning or the same denotation that are synonym to *pelacur* (prostitute). They are also well understood that every word implies different connotations depending on the public assessments or views. The outlook may be positive or negative. In term of positive response from society towards those terminologies above, the word *gongli*, *bondon* and *ayam kampus* has negative view. It can be seen from the seldomness of using those three terms. People rare to use those words to avoid humiliating of woman. They can be conclude into taboo of delicacy with WTS and PSK as euphemism of those terms.

The formality of using the prostitute terminologies

Based on the explanation above, the word *WTS* and *PSK* are used in formal writing report or articles. It shows the view of the community on the terms is considered to be positive. They have more positive acceptance to the profession of prostitute by the society. The of using terms *WTS* (*Wanita Tuna Susila*) and *PSK* (*Pekerja Seks Komersial*) in writing or formal report is used more frequently.

CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of the terms synonym to *pelacur* (prostitute) namely *WTS*, *PSK*, *bondon*, *ayam kampus*, and *gongli*, we can conclude the following matters. First, generally these terms have the same lexical meaning that refers to women who worked selling themselves for sex satisfaction of their customers. The only difference in the meaning of the term is only found in the term *ayam kampus* as it does not refer to any woman in general but it is more specific to female students. . Secondly. The terms such as *WTS* and *PSK* are assumed to have more positive connotation that they are more commonly used, especially in the media news, they are considered as euphemism of the other three terms *bondon*, *gongli* and *ayam kampus* which infer to more negative acceptance.. Third, the formality of using those terms can be divided into formal and informal, *bondon*, *gongli* and *ayam kampus* are used in informal situation (spoken and written) while *WTS* and *PSK* are used in formal speech or written.

Limitation of study

This study is about to analyses the using of prostitute terminologies in Bahasa Indonesia which are found on the data sources mentioned above. Definition, public's view and the formality of those terms are explained in this research.

Therefore, this study focuses on the definition of the terms to find fully understanding about the terminologies, the frequent of using the terms to find the formality and public's view of the terms.

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ON THE EFFECT OF ADAPTIVE READING STORY ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT

Adaptive method has offered new ways to help learners in the process of foreign language learning. In fact, an adaptive reading story may be considered as an ideal solution to language learning barriers in terms of reading comprehension. By adopting a quantitative research framework, this quasi-experimental study tried to investigate the use of adaptive reading story to find a new way to develop reading comprehension ability outside the classroom. To this end, 50 male intermediate English as a foreign language (EFL) learners were assigned to two control and experimental groups after passing the homogenizing test. Then a pre-post tests design was used. After the pre-test, they received a twenty-two session treatment. In the control group, this purpose was achieved through routine reading in class, but in the experimental group, this aim was obtained through adaptive reading story out of the class. Having administered the post-test, the researchers utilized the statistical tools of independent-samples and paired-samples t-tests to determine whether there were inter- and intra-group differences. To sum up, the t-test findings showed that adaptive reading story in the experimental group had much more significant effects on improving learners' reading comprehension ability. The result obtained in the present study provide pedagogical implications for adaptive reading story as an effective learning tool for EFL students that can be utilized by teachers at different levels of language education in order to maximize the effectiveness of students' learning.

KEYWORDS: Adaptive reading, Adaptive reading story, Reading comprehension

INTRODUCTION

English has become the language of the world's business, international communication, science and online education. High-level of English gives the go-ahead for participation in academic exchange programs, internship; enables international career, promotion, etc (Kuimova & Gaberling, 2014).

Annu and Sunita (2013) mentioned that extracurricular activities are different from the types of activities that learners participate in, and do not fall into the realm of normal curriculum of schools. Extracurricular activities contain various aspects such as newspaper, music, movie, web-based activities, drama, reading stories etc. that most of them can be used for language learning purposes. Reading comprehension can be considered as one of these extracurricular activities used in language learning development. Improving reading skills will reduce unnecessary reading time and enable L2 learners to read in a more focused and selective manner. Working on the improvement of this skill is prominent for various students inside and outside of the class (Zyoud, 2014). Pfost, Dörfler, and Artelt (2013) demonstrated a positive relation between extracurricular reading behavior and the development of reading comprehension and vocabulary. Reading is a crucial skill in learning and communication. Reading comprehension is necessary for every student, but gaining an acceptable level of that is not as easy as it seems and needs a time consuming process. Reading comprehension can be considered as one of the main goals by many foreign languages learners.

Improving reading comprehension ability seems to be one of the major concepts of EFL and ESL learners and teachers. Hence, many researchers have investigated on different variables that can affect improving this important ability.

One concept that could have an important role in appropriate learning is adaptive reading. A form of individually tailored task engagements in which task is selected from a bank where they are stored in, rank order with respect to their difficulty and presented to learners during the course on the basis of their previous performance (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). It sounds that adaptive reading tasks are powerful tools because they break monotony of conventional methods and give the learners the opportunity to learn by new techniques. Up to now, no research has been conducted to report the impact of adaptive learning on reading comprehension.

Oxman and Wong (2014) expressed that “good teachers have always adapted to students” (p.5). In the case of reading, teachers adapt the reading passage appropriately and create a challenging environment. The adaption depends on the level of proficiency of the learners. It could prevent useless efforts and result in a higher speed in learning process (Oxman & Wong, 2014). They stated that “adaptive learning dynamically adjusts the level or types of instruction based on individual student abilities or preferences, and helps personalize instruction to improve or accelerate a student’s performance” (p.2).

Therefore the present study aims to shed lights on the effect of adaptive reading story on reading comprehension ability. The researcher hopes the results of this study illuminate the problem under the investigation and so add to the field of knowledge in the domain of EFL.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Adaptive Reading

Adaptive learning systems are generally built on three core elements: a content model, a learner model, and an instructional model. It is likely that 2013 will be viewed as a watershed year,

setting the stage for future adaptive learning use throughout the entire U.S higher education system. Adaptive learning will only become more and more pervasive throughout all levels of education in the U.S.

The initial research at universities proved the concept as well as the effectiveness of adaptive learning systems. Oxman and Wong, (2014) as well as, Wang and Liao (2011) showed that it is important to take the learners' characteristics into account when developing an adaptive learning sequence system and when identifying optimal learning sequences to accommodate students' individual differences. By analyzing the students' characteristics and the optimal learning sequences, an attempt was made to develop an adaptive learning sequence system to facilitate students' learning and to maximize their learning outcome.

As stated by Barros and Carvalho (2007) reading classes are sometimes boring which require teachers to find solution in order to change the condition; that is teachers can play an important role to manage the class appropriately. Doing so requires them to be aware of their students' needs and preferences in reading. Also Woodrow (2006) stated that adaptive learning comprises constructs that are related to successful language performance.

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is a crucial subject in academic studies (Bernhardt, 1991; Carrell, 1991; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). In schema theory, a predominant theory of reading comprehension, reading comprehension is viewed as the process of interpreting new information and assimilating this information into memory structures (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Majority of Iranian EFL students are not that competent in reading comprehension and they usually admit having different difficulties in reading.

Scott. (n.d), discussed the effects of spelling skills and vocabulary knowledge on reading comprehension ability and focused on instructional approaches that increase word level knowledge. He included that reading comprehension is influenced significantly by students' level of vocabulary knowledge which includes spelling, the ability to decode words in print, knowing the structure and meaning of vocabulary. "Teachers can facilitate the growth of word knowledge through the explicit teaching of word patterns and word-solving strategies within the context of a word-rich classroom. The goal of instruction in reading, spelling, and vocabulary is to help students develop "word consciousness" and to become independent word-solvers in all subject areas"

RESEARCH QUESTION

For addressing the goal of the study, the researchers have represented the following research question:

Does adaptive reading story task have any significant effects on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension?

To find answers to the above-mentioned question, the following null hypothesis is devised:

Ho: Adaptive reading story does not have any significant effects on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' reading comprehension.

METHODOLOGY

Participants and setting

To collect the required data, 50 Iranian EFL language learners with different levels of language proficiency and social background, studying in Goldis Institute in Torbate-e Heydariyeh, Iran were randomly selected. The initial sample consisted of 95 students, 45 of whom were excluded from the study based on Nelson English Language Test (NELT) administrated at the beginning of the study. The highest score was 48 and the lowest was 36. All of them were male students and in intermediate level of English language proficiency. Their mother tongue was Persian and they were aged between 13 and 17 years old. The groups were a purposive sample from Goldis institute in Torbate-e Heydariyeh where one of the researchers works as a teacher of English language.

Instruments and Procedure

To conduct the study, the following instruments were employed: Nelson English Language Test, and Reading comprehension test. The NELT test included 50 multiple-choice items and the time allotted was 45 minutes. Each correct answer received one mark. Although Nelson has proved to be reliable and has validated in different contexts, the internal consistency reliability estimates of the test were checked by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient and it was found that the scale enjoyed the Cronbach's alpha of 0.824.

At the outset, 50 intermediate male students at Goldis Institute in Torbate-e Heydariyeh, Iran were selected based on Nelson proficiency test. Then, pre-tests were given to determine their level of proficiency before the study. Afterward the participants were randomly assigned to two groups (each group consisted of 25 members), the first one control group and the second one experimental group. Then both experimental group and control group received the treatment through 22 educational sessions (1 hour and a half every session, three days a week). While the control group received the instruction, reading story passages and reading comprehension exercises selected by the teacher and institute, the experimental group received the adaptive reading story task engagement, which was based on the level of students' improvement and their preference (adaptive reading). These tasks were English stories which were based on the participants' English level of proficiency (i.e., intermediate). These tasks were used in an adaptive way, in which tasks were ranked based on the level of students' progression and then a task was given to each student based on his previous career in an objective test. In fact this method was an optimized way to improve the learner's English level in minimum time, and to accelerate a student's performance.

Data Analysis

To determine the effect of adaptive reading story on learners' reading comprehension as the main objective of the study, a 40-item reading comprehension test developed and validated by Barati (2013) was given to all groups as the pre-test and post-test. It consisted of five texts each with 8

multiple-choice questions, including: (a) one topic question, (b) one main idea question (c) one using context for vocabulary question, (d) one scanning for detail question, (e) one making inferences question, (f) one identifying question, (g) one locating references question, and (h) one referring to passage question. To analyze the data, each item was given one score and the sum of all correct responses were calculated. The allocated time for answering the test was 60 minutes. The reliability of this test was computed via Cronbach's Alpha that was 0.73 (Barati, 2013).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As it was stated in the previous sections, the primary purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of adaptive reading story on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. The statistics were analyzed by SPSS software version 19 on descriptive and inferential statistics in order to spell out the differences between the scores of two groups on the reading pre-test and post-test.

Tests of Normality of the Data

An assessment of the normality of data is a prerequisite for many statistical tests because normal data is an underlying assumption in parametric testing. First of all, in order to ensure the normality of data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) Test was used for all data in NELT (homogenizing) test. Table 1 represents the results. It can be seen from the same table that the data were normally distributed since the Sig. value of the KS Test is greater than 0.05, the distribution of the data is normal.

Table 1: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) Test

		Pre-testR	Post-testR	Pre-testRes	Post-testRes
N		50	50	50	50
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	12.5800	15.4200	1.4800	2.9200
	Std. Deviation	2.39974	3.36300	1.02639	1.04667
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.103	.090	.200	.229
	Positive	.099	.066	.200	.151
	Negative	-.103	-.090	-.165	-.229
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.731	.639	.649	1.414
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.659	.809	.793	.562

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Pretest

Table 2 represents the descriptive statistics for the experimental and control groups. As can be seen in the same table, the mean scores of both groups are approximately the same indicating that there is no significant difference between the control group and experimental group in reading pre-test.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for both Groups

	G	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretestR	Control	25	12.64	2.43	.48
	Exp	25	12.52	2.41	.48

To be more exact, an independent samples t-test was run, as can be seen in Table 3, it can be concluded that before the intervention the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their reading comprehension, and no significant difference was observed. Technically speaking, Table 3 indicates that ($t(48) = .175$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = .86$).

Table 3: Results for Independent Samples T-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Interval Difference	Confidence of the
		f	sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-Mean tailed)	Std. Difference	Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.000	.987	.175	48	.862	.12000	.68557	1.49842
	Equal variances not assumed			.175	47.999	.862	.12000	-1.25842	1.49842

Posttest

In order to find out whether the intervention had any effect on the reading comprehension of the participants, the post-test was administered. To do the analysis, an independent samples t-test was utilized. Table 4, illustrating the descriptive statistics, demonstrates that the experimental group ($M=17.28$, $SD=2.44$) outperforms ($M=13.56$, $SD=3.15$) the control group.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Reading Comprehension

	G	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttestR	Control	25	13.56	3.15	.63
	Exp	25	17.28	2.44	.48

As can be seen in Table 5, the results of an independent samples t-test show that there is a significant differences between the two groups. In other words, that ($t(48) = -4.66$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = .000$). It can be concluded that the adaptive reading story task had significant effects on the

reading comprehension of intermediate EFL learners. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected corroborating that the adaptive reading story task have been effective.

Table 5: Results of Independent Samples T-Test for the Reading Comprehension

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		f	sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	(2-Mean Difference)	Std. Difference	Lower Upper
PosttestR	Equal variances assumed	2.044	.159	-4.667	48	.000	-3.72000	.79708	-5.32263 -2.11737
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.667	45.187	.000	-3.72000	.79708	-5.32521 -2.11479

The results of this study, the paired-sample t-test findings indicate that adaptive reading story in experimental group and typical reading story in control group had significant effect on improving learners' reading comprehension in both groups. In addition, the results showed that the mean differences in the experimental group are much more prominent than control group. Independent sample t-test revealed that the better mean of experimental group in reading comprehension is significant and relates to the effect of treatment.

CONCLUSION

Reading comprehension is an interactive process between the reader and the written text as well as the interaction between bottom-up and top-down strategies. The present study filled a gap on the effectiveness of adaptive reading story in reading comprehension ability.

It seems that, in the past, Iranian educational environments tended to endorse the practice of routine reading in the classrooms; however, recently, the attitudes might have been changed and teachers bring a new pedagogical tool to improve their students' achievement. Good teachers have always adapted to students (Oxman & Wong, 2014). The use of an appropriate adaptive method as an effective learning and teaching method, based on the present findings, can have a positive effect on better learning in reading comprehension ability.

There are several variables and factors which were not regarded in the present study and required further studies. Based on the title, only reading comprehension ability was concentrated by the researchers and other skills such as listening, writing and speaking were overlooked. Considering the participants of this study, further research on different participants may yield different results. Also the participants of the study were limited to intermediate proficiency learners. Based on the limitations of the study and the problems that the researchers encountered future studies are needed.

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EXTERNAL FACTORS AFFECTING HOME LANGUAGE ACQUISITION OF IRANIAN CHILDREN IN DAYCARE CENTERS

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating the benefits and limitations of external factors affecting home language acquisition of Iranian children in four daycare centers of Shiraz. It discusses the issues and concerns resulting from those factors through observations and how they were dealt. The researchers respectively examined the impact of linguistic environment, early childhood education system and curriculum design, emotional intelligence (EI), the sense of identity in classroom, child expectations, music, and technology on normal children aged 2.5 to 6 attending daycare centers. Toward this end, we observed classroom dynamics, each session, at least 45 minutes and interviewed some teachers working in daycare centers. Afterward, we briefly described their experience and eventually evaluated the quality of the centers. Due to the results of this study, we found several problems concerning the implementation of the aforementioned factors in Iran daycare centers. These factors play a significant role in development of home language acquisition in young children, but the focal point of the project proves some of them- linguistic environment, early childhood education system and curriculum design, emotional intelligence, sense of identity in classroom, child's expectations, and technology- were not accurately and properly applied. Given the role of these factors, caregivers and teachers pay little attention to effective integration of them with children learning. They should also orient a more comprehensive plan toward helping children identify their own feelings and abilities.

KEYWORDS: early childhood education, curriculum design, emotional intelligence, music

INTRODUCTION

Some researchers have concluded that young children enrolled in preschool programs usually graduate from high school, attend colleges; have fewer behavioral problems, and do not become involved with crimes in their adolescent and young adult ages. As much of language acquisition is automated, a child acquires their language subconsciously and their comprehension is more than production. There are several factors impacting this process and they were taken into consideration. Moreover, it was observed that there were some problems in applying those factors in Iranian daycare milieu. As far as we are concerned, if learners are entirely submersed into a mainstream program, language learning is less likely to occur. While language learners are

exposed to appropriate and effective learning experiences, they will make rapid progress. Thus, the job of the language teachers should be to provide suitable and feasible input through their instructions.

There has been much debate over the years on what type of program qualifies education. Another concern of today's early childhood education programs is assuring that they are of high quality. This issue poses a dilemma for curriculum designers. There is the need to guide the personnel in early childhood centers, especially when they own an irrelevant degree, little training and lack of knowledge. A curriculum contributes to ensure that staff cover important learning areas, pick out a common pedagogical approach and reach a certain level of quality in different age groups and regions. A curriculum can also be subject to further training.

It educationally is recognized that a high-quality early childhood program should include five critical components as follow:

- A well-rounded curriculum that supports all areas of development;
- Child health, nutrition, and family needs as part of a comprehensive service network;
- Assessing children to improve student learning and identify concerns;
- Well-educated and adequately paid teachers;
- Classes with fewer students;

These days an effective educational method called "Montessori Method" is being applied in early childhood education settings. According to Montessori practices, children are allowed to choose their work instead of their teacher. In the Montessori classroom the teacher mostly act as a guide who observe children and assess them according to mastery. By observing children's behaviors, the teacher is able to recognize what motivates them, whereas the Montessori classroom provides a child-centered environment in which mastery of certain ideas is underlined without imposing unnecessary limitations on the child. The Montessori Method is designed to make the learning environment a meaningful experience in terms of children's natural tendency to learn. To this end, the classroom setting is prepared with materials appropriate for the students to explore their own leisure, based on their interests, as well as their immediate surroundings and resources.

One of the important issues in the realm of education is to what extent learners' emotions may interfere language learning. The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has been the crucial event in interdisciplinary fields of study especially in the moral education during the last twenty years. Psychologists of education believe integrating emotional intelligence is the primary goal of teaching and learning (Cohen, 1999; Vandervoort, 2006). But, there is a debate underway on the effect of incorporating emotional intelligence in academic performance, educational policy and learning environment. Aragao (2011) claimed that emotions and beliefs, fundamentally in life, play a powerful role in language learning.

There are popular terms such as self and identity in language-learning literature and relevant papers are being published every year. Children adopt their personal and social identities within the context of relationships and in response to others actions and responses. Not only identities are not fixed but also they adapt and change concerning children's experiences. In other words,

when children enjoy positive experiences in new places and in new relationships, they come to see themselves as people who are recognized and respected as unique individuals. Children's increasing awareness of gender, ethnicity, nationality, culture, and contributions they make to the lives of others indicates their ongoing construction of identity. Through participation in family, kinship systems and communities, children learn the values, beliefs and practices that relate them to people or family group and enable them help their communities.

Most childhood education specialists claim that young children learn best when they are not pushed too hard, they have an opportunity to interact with their peers, their parents and instructors. Children similarly learn best when they are supplied with small portion of instruction and educational activities in a day. This is particularly true of children enrolled in preschool programs as it is not good for young children to be separated from their parents for extended periods of time. Children usually do not considerably benefit from programs with inexperienced teachers and large classroom sizes. Children taught at an early age, usually take advantage of the following ways: improved social skills, enhanced attention spans, less or no need for special education instruction during subsequent school years, and better scores.

Another subject which is worth to concern in home language acquisition is the relationship between language and music. Language and music share many properties, with a particularly strong overlap for prosody. Prosodic cues are generally considered significant for language acquisition. It is argued the input infants receive through affective baby-talk or infant-directed speech prosody (Trainor, Austin & Desjardins, 2000), as well as the songs mothers and other caregivers sing (Bergeson & Trehub, 2002), may affect linguistic and musical development. Nursery rhymes and lullabies are some of the first language input that occurs with enough repetition to encourage memorization and therefore acquisition (Howle, 1989). There are structural parallels between music and language, and these can influence the ways in which music is best utilized in a language classroom. While some of these structures can be generally applied to music and language, others appear to be culturally specific.

The cognitive processing of music and language may also increase language acquisition. A deeper understanding of the cognitive processing of music and language can impact the ways in which language instructors use music in their classrooms. Children can learn sounds, words, sentences along with actions through rhythms and songs, i.e. a child will mimic and repeat after listening to the music. In this respect, daycare centers can employ teachers know music or play a musical instrument in the classroom.

Also, they can utilize technological tools. With the pervasiveness of the internet and the increased awareness of the importance of having technology in a classroom, both teachers and students all over the world are being provided with technological tools that will further accelerate their ability to acquire or teach a language. Atkins and Vasu (2000) take teachers into consideration as one of the most important factors impacting technology use and argue that teachers' attitudes significantly influence the integration of the computer into the classroom. We may claim that a teacher as an individual with complex internal variables is a central component affecting the use of technology in the classroom.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Linguistic Environment

As the linguistic environment can provide adequate L1 input and language use opportunities it proves the significant role it plays in child language acquisition. As it. According to the Input Hypothesis Theory (Krashen, 1994, 1985) language acquisition depends solely on “comprehensible input”, i.e. language which is slightly ahead of the learners’ current stage but which they can comprehend through means such as situational clues and language is acquired through trying to understand what people are saying.

Learners need to speak as well as listen. If learners pick a familiar listening material on a familiar topic, then guess at the kinds of meanings that are likely to be expressed, and how the discourse will proceed, they will have a better chance of catching something they comprehend and subsequently learn from. They are modifying their input by careful selection. However, if learners initiate a conversation, knowing what the topic and the purpose of the conversation are, the learners can make sensible predictions about meaning, and check anything they are not sure of having understood correctly. This modified exposure thus becomes comprehensible input and should help acquisition. Generally speaking, it is accepted that adequate linguistic development in a home language contributes positively to its acquisition.

The quality of a childcare setting, from poor to excellent, can affect a child today and throughout adulthood. One estimate shows substituting a poor quality caregiver with an excellent one would enhance a child’s school readiness by 50%. Looking even further down the road, studies which follow children into adulthood denote that kids with higher quality preschool care are more likely to earn better wages and complete high school and college.

Early Childhood Education System and Curriculum

A successful education system claims that the effectiveness of an early childhood program depends upon a number of factors such as qualified staff, an appropriate environment, consistent scheduling, parental involvement, and proper grouping practices. The early education outlines the quality characteristics early childhood education curriculum and activities:

- **Balanced:** The curriculum should provide a balance of play and structured activities, including teacher-child-initiated exploration.
- **Based on a child’s developmental needs:** activities, materials, and schedules should be appropriate to a child’s age and support all developmental domains.
- **Well-planned:** The curriculum should reflect current research on child development and should include specific learning goals for children.

Then the curricular framework may include the following features:

- A statement of the principles and values that should guide early childhood centers, e.g. that centers should adhere to the principles of the Convention of the Rights of the Child, including respect for parents as the first educators of the child.
- A summary of program standards that parents may expect in the early childhood center, e.g. educator qualifications, indoor and outdoor learning environments.

- An orientation concerning content and outputs, that is, an outline regarding the broad goals that centers will pursue, and of the attitudes, dispositions, skills and knowledge that children at different ages can be expected to gain across different developmental areas;
- Pedagogical guidelines outlining the processes through which children achieve the outcomes proposed, e.g. through experiential learning; open and play-based programming; involvement. They may propose also how educators should support children in their learning through adult interaction and involvement; center and group management; enriched learning environments; theme or project methodology.

Preschool teachers may use a number of strategies for teaching skills while they nurture their students' natural curiosity and their enthusiasm for learning. They can achieve their teaching goals by:

- Building children's background knowledge and thinking skills;
- Checking children's progress;
- Communicating with parents and caregivers;
- Creating a learning environment for young children;
- Helping children develop listening and speaking skills;
- Reading aloud to children;
- Teaching children about books;
- Teaching children about letters;
- Teaching children about numbers and counting;
- Teaching children about print;
- Teaching children about the sounds of spoken language;

Dr. Montessori discovered a method of education that is based on self-directed activity, hands-on learning and collaborative play. Experiential learning in this type of classroom results in a more profound understanding of language, mathematics, science, music, social interactions and much more. Even though the Montessori educational method can be incorporated successfully with a faith-based program, the most Montessori classrooms are secular in nature. Every material in a Montessori classroom supports an aspect of child development, creating a match between the child's natural interests and the available activities. Children can learn through their own experience and at their own pace. They can respond at any moment to the natural curiosities that exist in all humans and build a solid foundation for lifelong learning. The learning that happens through play cannot be replaced by any other learning, as it is self-directed, creative, and authentic.

In Montessori classrooms children make creative choices in their learning and components necessary for a program are authentic. Children work in groups and individually to discover and explore knowledge of the world and to develop their maximum potential. Five basic principles accurately present how educators implement the Montessori Method in many kinds of programs across the world. These principles include: 1. respect for the child, 2. the absorbent mind, 3. sensitive periods, 4. the prepared environment, and 5. autoeducation.

Montessori includes multiage groupings that reinforce peer learning, uninterrupted blocks of work time, and guided choice of work activity. Additionally, a full complement of specially designed Montessori learning materials are meticulously arranged and available for use in an aesthetically pleasing environment.

Multiage groupings are a hallmark of the Montessori Method as younger children learn from older children and older children foster their learning by teaching concepts they have already mastered. This arrangement also reflects the real world, where individuals work and socialize with people of all ages and dispositions.

As their students develop, Montessori teachers match proper lessons and materials to these sensitive periods when learning is most naturally absorbed and internalized. In the elementary years, the child continues to organize their thinking through work with the Montessori learning materials and an interdisciplinary curriculum as they pass from the concrete to the abstract. They begin using their knowledge in real-world experiences. Montessori students learn to think critically, work collaboratively, and act boldly. They work with specially designed learning materials, manipulating and investigating until they master the lesson inside.

On the other hand, a Montessori teacher can often be hard to spot in the classroom. They reveal key behaviors to apply this child-centered approach:

- Make children the center of learning because, as Montessori said, “The teacher’s task is not to talk, but to prepare and arrange a series of motives for cultural activity in a special environment made for the child” (Dr. Montessori's Own Handbook, 2011).
 - Encourage children to learn by providing freedom for them in the prepared environment.
 - Observe children in order to provide the best possible environment, recognize sensitive periods and divert inappropriate behavior to meaningful tasks.
 - Prepare the learning environment by ensuring that learning materials are provided in a regular format and the materials provide for appropriate experiences for all the children.
 - Admire each child and model ongoing admiration for all children and their work.
 - Introduce learning materials, demonstrate learning materials, and support children’s learning.
- The teacher introduces learning materials after observing each child.

The Concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Recently many researchers have regarded the effect of emotional intelligence on academic success in education (Elias, Arnold, & Hussey, 2002). Emotions as one of the fundamental elements of emotional intelligence have an outstanding impact on learners’ education.

Affection and emotion are important in the realm of education for two reasons (Arnold, 1999): a) attention to affective dimension can result in more effective language learning; and b) this attention to affective factors can even reach beyond language teaching and even beyond what has traditionally been accounted in the academic realm.

Since the commencement of emotional intelligence theory, several models were defined and introduced by Bar-On (1997); Mayer and Salovey (1997), and Goleman (1995). Payne (1986) was the first person put forward the term emotional intelligence. Later, Salovey and Mayer

(1990) formally developed this concept the field of psychology. In 1997, they defined emotional intelligence as “the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.” On the other hand, Goleman (1995) described emotional intelligence as “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration; to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope.” According to this definition, he created a model that merged five fundamental elements: 1) knowing ones emotion, 2) managing emotions, 3) motivating oneself, 4) recognizing emotions in others, and 5) handling relationships. Later, Goleman (1998) reformulated his first definition of emotional intelligence and divide the emotional intelligence into twenty-five different emotional competencies such as political awareness, service orientation, self-confidence, consciousness, and achievement drive (See Pishghadam, 2009).

Sense of Identity in Classroom

One way in which we can witness teachers in elementary school classroom identifying the importance of students’ sense of belonging and positive identity in classroom routines is when they give each child a turn to be the special person of the day.

From birth, children develop a sense of who they are. Children’s sense of who they are is shaped by their characteristics, their behavior, and their understanding of themselves, their family and others. Relationships with family members, other adults and children, friends and members of their community play a key role in constructing their identities. Belonging is about having a secure relationship with or a connection with a particular group of people. When children feel a sense of belonging and sense of pride in their families, their peers, and their communities, they can be emotionally strong, self-assured, and able to cope with challenges and difficulties. This creates an important foundation for their learning and development. Learning occurs in the context of secure relationships with family, educators and other children. As children feel safe, secure and supported they grow in confidence to look into everything and learn. Through safe early attachments and their developing sense of agency and group identity, children develop self-confidence, autonomy, persistence and resilience. Children learn to manage their emotions and understand the perspectives and needs of others while relationships are nurturing, responsive and predictable. Due to the sense of belonging children will see themselves as capable learners. Authentic opportunities to speak a home language and to see how it is presented within the real world setting acknowledge language as an important aspect of identity formation.

Child Expectations

Setting a series of expectations for better and positive behaviors needs a careful strategy since good behavior does not come through applying force or demands. However, a well-conceived strategy would assist parents and caregivers to set a package of expectations that do not burden the young mind and tender psyche of children.

When child expectations reach wrong proportions the most likely scenario that parents and caregivers encounter is utter disappointment and frustration about children's inferior

performance. In other words, children may not simply match their parents and caregivers expectations and they may end up as failure in front of them.

Research conducted over the last three decades demonstrates that children make better progress at school when their parents are actively involved in their education. Parental involvement, which is emotional care and support, has a very big influence on early childhood education, particularly their academic performance. Some scholars believe that Children of involved parents typically display higher levels of achievement, more acceptable behavior and greater motivation in school. Students who excel academically often have parents who are interested in their children's learning from an early age and who engage in supportive learning activities, such as rhyming and shared book reading (Wade and Moore, 1998). In particular, the child's early experiences of story and making stories (Wade, 1984) and sharing books (Wells, 1985; Toomey, 1993) affect educational progress.

Children expectations may fall into two different categories: a) expectations of good and affable behavior; and b) the expectations to demand children succeed in accomplishing different goals. Both these expectations are good for young children. Due to expecting good behavior and better achievements the following advantages which are so powerful in language acquisition will be achieved: a) higher confidence levels, b) responsible nature, c) better self-esteem, d) superior self-worth, and e) a rise in inner motivational levels.

Music

Music and language share a number of similarities. Both are based on acoustic information, compromising a limited number of categorical elements or classes (phonemes and tones) that are organized in structured sequences according to specific regularities. These regularities are acquired through similar learning mechanisms. Components of prosody such as speech rhythm, speech melody, contour, timbre, pauses, and stress result from a merge of acoustic features such as pitch/frequency, loudness/intensity, duration, and timbre. During language acquisition, these prosodic components help the infant to detect word and phrase boundaries. This enables them to acquire regularities about the arrangement of linguistic patterns like phonemes, words, and phrases.

On the other hand, interesting similarities have been found between music and speech. Music and speech are complex auditory signals based on the same acoustic parameters: frequency, duration, intensity and timber. They involve several levels of organization: morphology, phonology, semantics, syntax and pragmatics in language and rhythm, melody and harmony in music. In addition, perceiving and producing music and speech require attention, memory and sensorimotor abilities. Hence, there is growing evidence that music and language share neural resources for processing prosody, syntax and semantics.

Some examples can be found in the literature to argue the strong relationship between music and language that are substantiated by research in the fields of cognitive science, anthropology, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, first language acquisition and second language acquisition.

Georgi Lozanov, Bulgarian psychotherapist, was pioneer in actual use of music to enhance language acquisition in the 1970s. He developed “Suggestopedia” which involves the use of background baroque music to holistically improve language acquisition. Quast (1999), in his doctoral dissertation, set out to discover the effects of Suggestopedic learning on students with technical giftedness. He pursued two main objectives in his study: 1) to display the impact of various background conditions on group learning, and 2) to explore the specific background effects in terms of certain student characteristics. He initiated with the hypothesis that baroque music would be most beneficial to all students’ language acquisition.

Music had been used with the Audiolingual Method in language teaching classrooms to lessen the boredom that could occur from repetitive drills from the 1950s to the 1970s (Bartle, 1962, & Kanel, 2000) and subsequently classical instrumental music was utilized with the purpose of producing a relaxed state of mind that makes the brain receptive to inputs and activates the subconscious in Suggestopedia methodology (Lozanov, 1978; see also Bancroft, 1978). After Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task Based Learning (TBL) approaches became more pervading a sudden demand for using songs in language learning classroom was made.

Several theoretical accounts proposed that, particularly during early language acquisition, language is rather perceived as music. For example, Koelsch (2011, p. 169) hypothesized that “the human brain, especially at an early age, does not treat language and music as strictly separate domains, but rather treats language as a special case of music”. Also, Brandt, Slevc, and Gebrian (2012) indicated “that music has a privileged status that enables us to acquire not only the musical conventions of our native culture, but also enables us to learn our native language.”

The Role of Technology in Home Language Acquisition

Obviously it is unreasonable to expect any single study to tell us to what degree technology is effective in improving language learning. However, a comprehensive review of many studies can get us closer to an answer (Chapelle, 1997; Girod & Cavanaugh, 2001; Lou, Abrami, & d’Apollonia, 2001; Salaberry, 2001). There was also a major paradigm shift in the pedagogical and research focus of technology applications in language education recently (Chapelle, 2001; Pennington, 1996; Salaberry, 2001), a shift away from traditional drill-and-skill computer-aided instruction (CAI) models toward multimedia, intelligent CAI, and integration models. Studies about applications of these newer models appeared more recently as well.

Processes that are important to language learning are easily facilitated through technology.

Chapelle (2003) discusses two processes relevant to salient input: marked input, that is, information that specifically draws the learner’s attention, such as highlighting words, as well as repetition of words, are easily managed in a technological environment, where supplementary information can be provided via hyperlinks or audio clips of the relevant words can be repeated. For instance, computers can provide an individualized and interactive environment and enabled learners to use language learning software and programs that consist of activities and media that are commonly available in classrooms, such as exercises, audio and video.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

The research question and hypothesis of the study are as the followings:

RQ: How can external factors like music, emotional intelligence, educational system, and linguistic environment impact Persian acquisition?

H0: There are significant and external factors affecting how children learn Persian as their home language.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The participants for this study were 20 Persian speaking children aged 2.5 to 6 and five teachers working in four daycare centers located in a high-class residence area of Shiraz. The gender variable was not controlled for the present study owing to the fact that there were no significant differences in the response behavior of male and female participants.

Instrumentation

A qualitative approach was used in this study. Observation and interview were administered in this study as means to measure where the Iranian teachers and learners stand with regard to the external factors impacting home language acquisition. The interview data was also analyzed to see how they supplement the qualitative data. We explained the purpose of the study to teachers and caregivers and assured them their data would be confidential. It took teachers approximately 30 minutes to interview each session. To further identify how the mentioned factors affected children acquisition we observed daycare centers classes during six sessions taking one hour each time.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research question sought to assess the impact of each of the stipulated factors. In parallel with studying those factors we found some problems regarding their implementations in Iranian daycare centers.

Linguistic environment plays a crucial role because whenever the environment is rich enough a child makes his environment as a model to a large extent. If environment accompanies with knowledge and proper behavior it will impact children learning a lot. The important condition is that learning environments should be well-resourced and child-staff ratios should be reasonable. Unfortunately, Iranian children are the residents of their kindergartens and daycare centers. We researchers observed the large number of students attending classes. As the teacher has to work with at least 20 children at the same time so that they cannot perform well. Hence, teachers could not provide adequate care and input to all students and there is no enough space for children playing and working together. Obviously, fewer numbers contribute children to develop peer communication and engage together in project and group work according to their affinities and interests. On the other hand, the presence of sufficient numbers of staff also ensures that each group can enjoy the support of a trained professional who will lead children toward the attitudes, skills and knowledge valued in a specific society. In Sweden, for instance, national statutory

requirements for child-staff ratios do not exist, but the average across the age group 1-6 years is 5 or 6 children per trained staff member. In the pre-school class for 6-7 years old, the national average is a teacher along with an assistant for 13 children. In general, there is not sufficient space to apply experiential learning in Iran. It is required to mention that it is better to use natural context to teach children items such as colors, textures, materials. But, caregivers and teachers confront inappropriate and non-spacious educational setting, i.e. most of the time there is no authentic environment for teaching and learning. For example, children have to utilize artificial tools rather than natural ones, i.e. to teach children how to paint they are asked to use pencils and pastilles rather than using their hands and fingers.

Following improper linguistic environment provided in Iranian daycare centers early childhood education system and curriculum design bring about serious problems for children learning, caregivers and parents as well. Iran government and authorized officials do not meet children demands. For example, ministry of general education of Iran disagrees on applying Montessori Method for preschoolers. While children can learn so many things through play, particularly rules, officials of the ministry asks teachers to train children all the time so that children's learning is low. Additionally, children learn different perspectives about how to organize things, plant the seeds for critical thinking, or know how to think from multiple perspectives. Even though rehabilitation center officials request daycare centers not to apply Montessori Method, caregivers attempt to implement this method in their milieus. But they cannot apply it accurately. For instance, based on this method children must sit on the ground and touch it to learn better but in Iran daycare centers children are obliged to sit on their seats for a long time so they will get tired pretty soon. Moreover, both teachers and students do not have enough time to play and work together. Teachers should put a limit on their teaching and training and in return focus on children learning. Meanwhile, they have to use bulky books such as painting notebooks, phonetic exercise book called "Sibilak", mathematics books, etc. Most of these books are inappropriate for children age. At least 11 books are being covered to teach children aged 4-5 per year. In this regard, most of the time children have to complete and study their books rather than play and learn from environment. Educationally, children before age 6 should not engage in alphabet or reading. But some daycare centers tend to teach Persian alphabet and administer reading skill in order to make more money and parents welcome it. To this end, they teach children through flash cards.

The other difficulty which is worth to mention is the absence of no unitary system for making decisions. Ministry of general education, rehabilitation centers and parents are decision makers and their expectations are not in parallel. Parents, especially mothers, have high expectations and ask teachers to fulfil them. They do not care about the quality of education and their children learning. On one hand, they are so sensitive and compare their children with others'. While Iranian mothers are so busy at home or they are not mature enough to work well with their children.

The other factor that has powerful influence on language acquisition, particularly in daycare centers, is emotional intelligence. Through emotional intelligence children will learn to recognize themselves and behave in a right way. They will learn to communicate with one another and

show their feelings. Actually the main purpose of emotional intelligence is realizing children feelings such as anger, fear, anxiety, happiness, and so on. When children know themselves very well and are rich emotionally they will be able to develop a good relationship with themselves and others. Thereinafter, they will overcome inhibiting affective factors and enhance their extroversionsim. But little attention is being paid to this issue by caregivers and parents in Iran. They try to keep children silent or entertained rather than allowing them to express their feelings such as anger and anxiety. Broadly speaking, children developing emotional intelligence have higher motivation for learning.

A particular attention must be heeded to sense of identity of children. Indeed, Iranian daycare centers do not give children a recognition of themselves and they make little effort to improve children self-confidence. We wonder when we saw most of teachers paid attention to more beautiful and cute children and ignored uglier ones. Hence, children could not feel secure and supported and lost their confidence. Teachers must value and celebrate diversity in children physical appearance, e.g. display about similarities as well as differences in skin tone, hair color and texture and eye color and shape. They must encourage children to become part of different groups since through this sense of who they are they will develop their sense of belonging. Authentic opportunities to speak home language and see it presented within the setting admit language as an important aspect of identity formation.

The other factor plays a large role in children acquisition is high expectations of children's attainment which may influence their achievement. Iranian parents are not fully aware that setting expectations too high is counterproductive. Although their aspiration can help improve children's academic performance, excessive aspiration can be poisonous. They believe that if a child knows more than his peers he is more successful and intelligent so that they tend to register their child in a daycare center that put more pressure on children learning. Due to the fact that Iranian parents' educational expectations are conditioned in part by the expectation of ministry of general education officials. For example, in daycare centers teachers have to work on children general knowledge to prepare them for entrance test of primary schools as examiners may ask difficult questions throughout this test. Mostly they have children answer non-standard questions.

Through music children can make an image in their mind and they never forget it. They listen to various musical excerpts, preferably collages of sounds from nature - water, wind, dolphins, whales - and describe by means of words or colors how they feel during the listening. Teachers use 2/4 rhythm as it is simple and children can understand and mimic better. We observed when teacher played a musical instrument like "Daf" or "Dayereh" and sang a song all children listened carefully and repeated the sentences. In this way they got to know animals and mimicked their sounds. Not only children enjoyed live music a lot but also they dynamically sprang into action in the classroom.

It is the duty of teachers and parents to raise children critical awareness of the role of the media and technical devices. A better understanding of the process that teachers go through to incorporate technology into their teaching will benefit not only the teachers, but also the students who will be learning in those classrooms. Although teachers mentioned that using technology in

daycare centers was required, they said technology has been having a negative and destructive effect on Iranian children acquisition. They believed that children were more creative and interested prior to using technological devices at home. They stated that Iranian children have access to many hobbies and devices to entertain themselves at home so they find nothing attractive in the class. Daycare centers utilize TV to tell story and play song for children but sometimes they do not pay heed to the time of playing, e.g. when children are so exhausted they will not listen at all.

There are other factors such as financial problems, living in small apartment and busy parents which influence children learning. Contemporary living conditions dictate a lifestyle which pressures parents and they in turn pressure their children to be good students, good kids, etc. therefore, children may become sensitive to any sort of criticism, have no self-confidence and low self-esteem, and constantly underestimate themselves. They cannot concentrate because of their anxiety; they seem unable to make a good relationship with peers, caregivers, and parents and often abstain from learning.

CONCLUSION

The information gathered by this study will likely help caregivers and teachers better understand the interplay of the stipulated external factors and home language acquisition. The results may provide the educators a better understanding of the impact of those factors on the children learning. Whereas, teachers can assist learners feel comfortable during learning in the classroom by providing them positive feedback and non-threatening environment, caregivers need to enhance positive beliefs of applying them accurately and meticulously.

Limitation of the Study

Several factors might have imposed limitations upon the current study which are going to be enumerated below:

- 1- The first limitation to this study is that only seven factors were examined. To investigate fully the extent to other factors impacting home language acquisition future research needs to incorporate other factors.
- 2- For time considerations, a short term observation was administered and small number of teachers were interviewed for this study. More meticulous results might have been gained if the number of observation and interview sessions could be expanded. If the researchers had not been pressed for time, they could have interviewed a larger number of teachers and caregivers, which would enhance the accuracy of the obtained results.

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INVESTIGATING THE APPROACHES OF TEACHING ACADEMIC WRITING IN GHANAIAN UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the language teachers especially, second languages teachers is to devise methods and strategies in the classroom that will help improve the quality of language use of learners. The common approach that most language teachers adopt is to teach students the rules governing the language. However, many have argued that this approach does not result in the efficacy of language acquisition. There is therefore the need to adopt approaches of teaching that will offer learners the needed skills to function well in the academic domain. This paper investigates the teaching approaches used in Ghanaian universities. The paper identifies characteristics of various approaches to teaching academic writing and suggests a mixed approach should be adopted. Since each class has a mixed-ability group of students that vary so widely, only one approach cannot be feasible. The paper does not see the approaches as opposite but rather complementary. Therefore, the paper suggests that the best approach in any situation will depend on the type of student's competence level, the text type being studied, the curriculum, and the expertise of the instructors. This will enhance the teaching of academic writing in our universities.

KEYWORDS: *academic writing, approach, Ghanaian Universities*

INTRODUCTION

Communication is indispensable in every situation in man's life and it is a needed tool for survival in the academic world. In other words, communication is the tool which students and lecturers use to define their territories in the academic community. This communication is acquired through academic writing. Lea and Stierer (2000) affirm that academic writing has always been the concern of the stakeholders in the academia especially, the language use by students. The connection between academic literacy and tertiary education is incontrovertible, (Lea & Stierer, 2000; Afful, 2007; Nartey & Coker, 2011).

Students may be technically brilliant and creative, but unless they can convince their lecturers of the value of their research, their technical skills will be unnoticed and unrewarding. In view of this, academic writing skill is very important and it should stand above all other types of skills both for language students and for students of other faculties in the university. It is a common knowledge that students from secondary schools come to the tertiary level with knowledge, and attitudes that are not in line with the university discourse. Academic writing therefore, facilitates

the smooth stay of fresh students from pre-university stage to the university level, (Adika, 2006). However Afful (2007:143) laments that despite the crucial role of academic writing, it is often treated in reductionist and denigratory terms as “remedial”, “study skills”, or “adjunct” in the literature.”

Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014:167) describes academic writing skills as “knowledge of how academic discourse is structured and produced, creative and critical thinking, independent learning, among others.”

In this paper, I use the term ‘academic writing’ as a cover term for any kind of English program used in the English-medium Universities as a requirement program to prepare students to fit into the university community. The paper seeks to review the papers on the approaches to teaching academic writing in the universities. The paper suggests that instructors of academic writing should adopt integrated approach to teaching academic writing.

The nature of academic writing

Academic Writing as a course in the university is design to train students with the communication skills that would facilitate their success in the academic discourse community. It is a compulsory programme for fresh students in the university. Adika (2006) confirms that academic writing course takes students through lessons that will help them to write essays, which meet the expectations of the academic discourse community.

Afful (2007:141) describes academic writing as a skill that contains all the multifaceted sets of complex skills that are required for a person to function efficiently in various disciplinary communities in a university. According to Nguyen (2009:113), academic writing skill defined as “a process in which a student expresses his or her ideas or thoughts on a specific topic in the university.” This includes all the four important skills: writing, reading, speaking and listening. Moreover, academic writing involves the whole series of cognitive activities such as organization of thoughts, preciseness in expression in order to avoid ambiguity in meaning, the choice of appropriate vocabulary and grammatical structures.

Written communication makes students’ writing understandable for readers, because it helps students acquire the main rules of written language, especially grammar, spelling, style, as well as use appropriate terminology. Gersten et al’ (2007) describe academic writing as the language of school-based learning and extended reasoned discourse. This shows that academic writing involves reasoning and this can be seen in the ways students make their arguments. Nguyen (2009:113) summarizes academic writing as “a formal style of expression, namely a formal tone, use of the third-person rather than first-person perspective, clear focus on the issue or topic rather than the author’s opinion, and precise word choice. Writers employing the academic style avoid jargon, slang, and abbreviations.”

He adds that academic writing should be linear and should have one central point or theme. It means that the various parts of the writing should contribute to the main line of argument, without digressions or repetitions. Therefore, academic writing should not entertain as we see in

the other writings like magazines but rather it is to inform. In observing all the above mentioned features of academic writing, academic writing would therefore makes use of the standard written form of English that is acceptable in the academic community.

Academic writing assumes different names in different universities and this largely depends on the content. Afful (2007) confirms that academic writing has varieties of names. He asserts that there are two issues that provide interesting insights into academic writing programs in non-native settings; the labels by which they are identified and their content. He added that most universities in Africa use brand name such as *Communicative Skills*, *Communication Skills*, or *Use of English*.

Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) claim that it is to be expected that these differences in brand name mean differences in curricular, pedagogy and even philosophical orientations. Jordan (1997:5) states that academic writing is sometimes viewed along two strands: English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). While the vocabulary and skills in ESAP are specific to a subject of study and the courses focus on the actual tasks that students have to carry out, the EGAP courses select more general contexts.

In comparing the various academic writings from different countries, Jordan (2002) mentions in the UK and Canada it is called English for Academic Purposes (EAP) whereas in the USA, it assumes different names depending on the purpose of the program. We have names such as Freshman Composition, General Composition, and Writing in the Disciplines. Discussing the reasons for instituting academic writing in the universities, Jordan (2002) claims that in the UK academic writing was stimulated because of the increasing number of international students in the tertiary education. On the other hand, Bazerman and Russell (1994) assert that it was instituted because of the decline in the quality of writing of students. Duszak, (1997: 21) attributed the institutionalization of academic writing to “English as an “academic lingua franca.” He said English is global language and it has become cogent for tertiary education to incorporate it in their curriculum especially, in the non-native areas such as Latin America, Europe, and Africa.

Afful (2007:144) opines that most of tertiary institutions in Singapore prefer to use the term *EAP* while others want to situate the writing program in specific disciplinary contexts therefore, they use terms such as *English for Business* or *English for Engineering*. This is to enable them distinguish the program based on the specific discipline from the general ones. The same labeling pattern happens in Hong Kong: while several universities use *EAP*, a few use *English for Communication Purpose*. However, many universities in India prefer the term *Communication Skills*.

Afful (2007:143) points out that the differences in labels indicate differences in the curriculum, pedagogy or even philosophical orientations. In terms of curriculum, most writing programs in African or Indian universities emphasize on the written aspect. However, countries such as Singapore follow quite strictly the British models by incorporating speaking and listening components.

Academic writing in Ghanaian universities

In Ghanaian universities, we have different names for academic writing but the common one is the *Communication Skills*. University of Ghana used to call it *Communication Skills* but changed the name to *academic writing*, (Nartey & Dorgbetor, 2014). University of Professional Studies, Accra named it Communication Skills I and *Communication Skills* II. Presently, University of Professional Studies has changed the name of *Communication Skills* II to *Scholarly Writing*. University of Cape Coast and University of Education, Winneba called it *Communication Skills*. Most of the private universities maintain the name used by their affiliated universities.

In Ghanaian universities, academic writing is taught over two semesters and it is compulsory for all first-year students. Students are therefore required to pass it, lest they will be denied a certificate on completion of university education, (Nartey & Dorgbetor, 2014). The main objective of academic writing in University of Ghana (Adika, 2006:1) is to know among others: ‘Which people constitute the academic discourse community and the characteristics of academic writing. This discusses what makes a piece of academic writing different from other types of writing. In addition, it touches on the relationship between reading and writing.

According to Afful (2007), in University of Cape Coast, the first semester is devoted to key study skills and the micro aspects of writing while the macro aspects are taught in the second semester. He added that handouts are provided by the Course Coordinator’s office to facilitate teaching and learning of academic writing. Afful (2007:145) states the main division of the academic writing of University of Cape Coast: remediation, study skills, and writing skills. Below is the outline of the curriculum:

- Note-taking and note-making (from lectures, textbooks; outlining)
 - Reading (skimming, scanning, summarizing, etc)
 - Conventions of Usage (spelling, grammar, punctuation, documentation, etc)
 - Writing (sentence patterns, clause patterns, paragraphs, types of essays, introduction, body and conclusion).
- (Afful, 2007:145)

Afful (2007) discusses the curriculum of University of Cape Coast by looking at the notion of academic literacy and “commodification” of tertiary education. On the issue of the academic literacy, Afful (2007) agreed with Samraj (2002) who is of the view that academic literacy must be characterized with diversity and contextualism. In other words, academic literacy should be dynamic to suit the demand of the education sector. What Afful means by ‘commodification’ is that the programs of the university should be tilted towards industries in order to get benefit as a nation. Afful suggests that there should be collaboration in the various departments of the universities in order to achieve the best form of academic writing. This is because of the differences in opinions of both students and the faculty members on the relevance of academic writing.

Afful (2007:7) proposed three issues that need to be changed in the UCC curriculum:

- a) foundational or remedial ramification
- (b) a balance between general writing needs and specific writing needs, and
- c) pedagogical approach.

According to Afful (2007) the foundational equips students to function effectively in the university community. This enables students to perform various academic tasks. However, the remedial aspect tackles language deficiencies of students. Afful therefore suggest that the academic writing should focused on both but the emphasize should be more on the remedial aspect. His reason is that university work requires some general as well as specific skills which is different from high school work. Rost (2002) recommends that the curriculum be based on the general features of academic discourse that will lead students to a more independent study and awareness of discipline-specific features in their various departments.

Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) note that the *Academic Writing* course in UG highlights remediation and communication skills. Below is UG is the curriculum

- The nature of academic writing
- Basic issues in grammar
- Sentence structure and punctuation
- Strategies for vocabulary development
- Paragraph structure
- Methods of paragraphing and development
- Referencing skills, documentation skills and avoiding plagiarism
- Deviant usage

(Adika 2006:1)

Academic English vs. daily spoken English

Undoubtedly, that there is great number of difference between Academic English and spoken English. Nguyen (2009) is of the view that academic English is confined to the realm of the textbooks, academic or technical works, and most essays at the university. Therefore, it tends to be impersonal and precise, and often, carefully constructed sentences. Adika (2006:2) describes the academic English as having “a specific argument that has a theme, logically expressed from the beginning to the end.” He adds that academic English must have structure: an introduction, middle/main section and a conclusion.

The writer of academic English avoids contractions and abbreviations, and uses a more specialized and complex vocabulary than that employed in everyday speech. However, one must be cautious of some of the things mentioned above else, the writing can easily become incomprehensible because it may be too wordy.

On the other hand, daily spoken English is the language spoken by most people on daily basis. Nguyen (2009:113) confirms that in this type of English speakers are more relaxed about grammar and less concerned with vocabulary in ordinary conversation. We normally observe

shorter sentences, and the formal punctuation of the semicolon and colon seem to be avoided. There is also frequent use of contractions and the first person.

Scarcella (2003) is of the view that unlike spoken English, the academic English version does not depend on context to convey meaning. The academicians know its phonological features, including stress, intonation, and sound patterns. In addition, the writers know how to use appropriate complex sentences, such as passive structures. Nguyen (2009) confirms that in writing academic English, it would be normal to draw most of the vocabulary and expressions from the formal register. This involves avoidance of colloquial or slang expressions.

In a study conducted in Hong Kong, Evans and Green (2007:5) discovered that most of the undergraduate students needs more orientation in academic writing than they need in general language support at the university. Nguyen (2009) finally advised that teachers should draw a distinction between academic English and daily spoken English in teaching.

Importance of academic writing

The role play by academic writing cannot be overlooked in the academic community (Nguyen, 2009; Alfes & Dison, 2000; Johns & Swales, 2002; Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Jordan, 2002). The main objective of the course is to equip first-year students with writing, reading and note taking skills to enable them pursue their studies effectively. In confirming the importance of academic writing at the tertiary level, Nguyen (2009:112) says “Academic writing is arguably the most important language skill to tertiary students, especially to English-major ones, whose grades are largely determined by their performance in written assignments, academic reports, term examinations and graduation theses.”

Alfes and Dison (2000) state that academic writing is crucial because students require these skills in order to interact effectively with a text. Furneaux (1995) supports the idea that English-medium universities must put a lot of emphasis on academic writing since English is the dominant language in which students are asked to present their ideas. This will enhance their reasoning skills in order to present their argument in a logical manner.

Academic writing makes a researcher becomes independent. Johns and Swales (2002) confirm that a complex set of skills have been part of academic writing in recent times and it is necessary skills required for an advanced learner to become an independent researcher. Afful (2007:143) adds, “Writing programs in the universities serve different groups of students with different needs in order to equip them to undertake various academic assignments and to participate in activities in the university.”

Afful (2007) claims that in British universities, where academic writing is traditionally directed towards non-native speakers of English, much importance is attached to other skills such as reading, speaking, and listening and study skills. We have diverse writing programs in the USA: Writing in the Disciplines (WID), Writing across the Curriculum (WAC), and the writing centers.

Each of these programs has a peculiar task to execute. Afful (2007) states that while Composition for Freshman and WID are designed to target non-native and native speakers of English respectively, writing centers design their program to support all students as well as the communities in which the universities are located. It means that not only the university, but the community also benefit from academic writing.

Academic writing has received many changes in terms of curricula and methods, (Nartey and Dorgbetor 2014). One common aspect in both the UK and the USA is the changes that have occurred in the last two decades in terms of curricula, methods, technology, and finance (Jordan, 2002). Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) confirm that in the area of curriculum, issues of plagiarism have attracted massive attention which is very crucial in the academic community in recent times. Moreover, in the area of methods there is different forms of collaboration in the teaching of academic writing.

In supporting how relevant the academic writing is in UK, Furneaux (1995:7) maintains that at undergraduate academic writing means writing activities ranging from laboratory notes to extended essays of 10,000 words to three-hour exams while postgraduates also have to write 25,000-word dissertations or PhD theses. He added that the students take the course before they enter their academic departments and there is some in-session teaching which prepare students to be ready for any task ahead.

Challenges in teaching academic writing

Despite the numerous advantages in teaching academic writing in the tertiary level, there are many challenges faced by both the students and the lecturers. In Ghanaian universities, the major problem is the class size. Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) confirm that the class size prevents the smooth teaching and learning process. In University of Professional Studies for instance, every class contains not less than two hundred students.

Another challenge has to do with dealing with the different backgrounds of students. According to Furneaux (1995:7), the major challenge of academic writing is to prepare international students “with varying English proficiencies and from wide range of cultural and academic backgrounds to enter into a variety of academic departments at different levels of study.” He confirms that the difficulty is that different academic disciplines have different conventions and it is clear that the academic writing teacher cannot know the conventions of all his/her students' specializations.

Nguyen (2009:112) conducted a study on Vietnamese students and he attested that the Vietnamese learners find it very difficult in applying the right level of formality, lexical dense, and objectivity. In his work, Nguyen (2009) said most of the students are unable to identify the distinction between spoken and written academic and they do not have ideas of the features of these types. Nguyen (2009) suggest that for Vietnamese students the knowledge of academic style should be introduced in the second semester so that students have opportunities to practice the skill in the five or six remaining semesters.

Nguyen (2009:112) confirmed that language proficiency, especially in writing at tertiary level, is a universal problem. He said:

” During the years of teaching writing for students of English at Quinhon University, I have realized that the majority of students have concentrated on such criteria of writing as grammar, ideas, organization, coherence and unity. However, the academic factor, the formal English, seems to be fallen into oblivion.”

Moreover, there is a problem of the number of instructors handling the course in some of the university. Academic writing requires many instructors because every fresh student takes the course for two semesters. Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) kick against the numerous instructors handling the course in University of Ghana. In the light of this, they suggest that the teaching methodology for the course should be explicitly spelt out as part of the curriculum so that stability can be achieved.

In addition, there is no proper relationship between the course content and the examination. Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) attribute the large number of failure in the academic writing in University of Ghana to lack of good relationship between content of the course and the nature of the examination questions. They add, in the 2011/2012 academic year, more than half of the students who took the course failed; they scored below the 50 per cent pass mark. Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) are of the view that this alarming rate of failure cannot be attributed to the non-performance of students but rather improper relationship between the curriculum and examination.

In view of this problem, Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014:171) proposed two changes for the *Academic Writing* course: first, a change in the course content or a reform in the examination format; second, a change in methodological/pedagogical approach, especially as regards the theme –based approach. Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) suggest that there should be practical exercises, especially on summary writing and composition as well as other activities that will adequately prepare students for the examination. They propose a change with respect to the theme-based approach. This can be done by selecting topics that focus on the immediate environment of the students in the classroom.

Strategies for teaching effective academic writing

There are many strategies for effective teaching academic writing. Nguyen (2009) suggested two major strategies: a) *Teaching features of academic English*, b) *Setting the acceptable writing behaviours*

Under the *Setting the acceptable writing behaviours*, Nguyen (2009) agrees that there is a standard of acceptable writing behaviour. Peet (2009) added that the standard is also evident in the various marking rubrics used to assess academic writing at different levels of development. The acceptable behaviour has to do with the following:

- *How well the student answers question*
- *Good Paragraphing*
- *Subject matter*
- *Sense of argument*

Under the *features of academic writing*, Nguyen (2009) mentions six main features of academic writing that students should know. These features are: complexity, formality, objectivity, explicitness, hedging, and responsibility.

Complexity

Halliday and Hasan (1989) are of the view that academic English is relatively more complex than spoken language. They added that grammatically, the following features are more: subordinate clauses, "that/to" complement clauses, long sequences of prepositional phrases, attributive adjectives, and passives. It often requires longer, more complex words and phrases. It means lexically, it is dense compared to spoken language. In other words, academic writing makes use of more lexical words than grammatical words.

To buttress the complex nature of academic writing, Nguyen (2009) mentions the following: subordinate clauses, complements clauses, sequences of prepositional phrases, passive verbs, lexical density, lexical complexity, nominalization, noun-based phrases, modification of noun phrases, attributive adjectives as some of the features.

Formality

Adika (2006) confirms that the tone of the writing is formal and writers should avoid use of chatty, slang or 'text messaging' language. He adds that the use of contractions must be kept to an absolute minimum and the writer should refrain from emotionalism. Nguyen (2009) attests that in an academic piece of writing, colloquial words and expressions, and abbreviated forms should be avoided. He mentions the following examples of colloquial words and expressions: "stuff", "a lot of", "thing", "sort". Nguyen also advised on the use of two word verbs: "put off", "bring up",.

Numbering and bullet-points for sub-headings should also be avoided in formal writings but he encourages their use in reports. Reporting verbs are very essential in academic writing because the knowledge of the reporting verbs can therefore be transferred from the general to specific discipline.

Objectivity

Academic language in general is objective rather than personal. Nguyen (2009) characterizes academic writing as having fewer words that refer to the writer or the reader. In other words, the main emphasis should be on the information that the writer wants to give and the arguments the writer wants to make, rather than writer.

Nguyen (2009) states that the readers or the listeners are not interested in knowing what you "think" or "believe." They want to know what you have studied and learned and how this has led you to your various conclusions. More importantly, the thoughts and beliefs should be based on your lectures, reading, discussion and research and it is important to make this clear. Avoid

words like "I", "me", "myself". He added that a reader will normally assume that any idea not referenced is your own. It is therefore unnecessary to make this explicit.

Don't write: "In my opinion, this a very interesting study".

Write: "This is a very interesting study".

Explicitness

Academic writing is explicit about the relationships in the text, (Nguyen 2009). Academic writing is explicit in the organization of the ideas in the text. The writer should make it clear to the reader. Adika (2006:2) adds that the relationship of the various parts of the text should be explicit by the use of appropriate signaling words. In doing this, the writing develops a clear and sound argument.

Hedging

Nguyen (2009) explains hedging in academic writing as a concept of cautious language. In other words, because different subjects prefer to state their stance on a particular subject in different ways, they are more cautious in stating the strength of their claims. Issue of plagiarism is to be dealt with all the seriousness it deserves. There should be supporting evidence for the arguments made in the academic writing. Adika (2006) confirms that arguments in academic writing are supported by example, quotation, statistics, explanation, reference and authority.

Responsibility

Nguyen (2009) states that in academic writing writers must be responsible for their claims, and must be able to provide evidence and justification for any claims made. He added that writers are also responsible for demonstrating an understanding and acknowledgement of any source texts used. Materials consulted in the academic essay are properly cited and acknowledged (Adika 2006). Adika strongly supports that academic writing must use the required referencing style with accuracy.

Approaches to teaching Academic Writing

There are various approaches to teaching academic writing in the universities. Crème and Lea (2008:13) acknowledge the fact that university writing can be difficult but there are ways of approaching it and that would build the level of student's competence. Afful (2007:50) suggest three approaches in teaching academic writing: **the skills-based approach, the theme-based approach and interactive teaching**. He was quick to add that these approaches are inter-related.

A skills-based approach

A skills-based approach is made up of reading, listening, writing, and speaking. Adika (2006) mentions that there are four communication skills humans acquire: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. He adds that Reading and Writing are acquired through formal education and are the very relevant in the Academic world. Afful (2007) suggest an integrative and holistic approach involving these four skills would enhance the academic writing skills. This kind of approach will be more useful to students rather than an approach that is isolationist.

Afful (2007) however, admitted the fact that these four skills cannot be given equal attention. Most of the universities in Ghana place emphasis on reading and writing thereby neglecting the other two skills. Afful (2007) regrets about the marginalization of oral communication in the

University of Cape Coast curriculum. He claims that the current academic writing curriculum of University of Cape Coast places far more emphasis on writing and reading. He proposes that more serious view of oral communication together with listening should be part of the curriculum in order to assist students in their discipline-specific courses. This can be done by giving students the opportunities to engage in spoken discourse in academic writing classes, especially in smaller class.

Rost (2002) recommends that academic writing program should include various forms of listening depending on the forms of academic discourse involved. Afful (2007) is of the view that this approach can be significant only when students are made aware of the various forms of speaking or speech events. He added that students are likely to encounter these things in both their horizontal and vertical movement at the university. In other words, this approach will help them not only in general skill, but also in specific fields of study.

The theme-based

The theme-based approach is the type that takes into accounts the various themes or topics to be covered. This approach can complement the skill-based approach. Afful (2007) mentions two ways to deal with this approach. First, theme-based approach has to do with the content, structure, and language use. Secondly, is to consider the topics that are treated in class.

Afful is of the view that there is the need to exercise maximum restraint in the selection of passages meant to highlight various aspects of academic. This passage should tackle the usual complaint of the difficulty of students in academic discourse. He cited a practical example by using passages that are chosen in academic writing programs that reflect national issues such as HIV/AIDS, diversity of races, equality, and violence in post-apartheid South Africa. The current situation in Ghana, the appropriate passage would have been on energy crisis, corruption, sports and election. According to Afful (2007), this will rekindle the attention of students by facilitating their understanding of pertinent issues in country.

Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014) advocate for a theme-based approach in University of Ghana. Their reason is that this approach selects passages for the *Academic Writing* by taking into accounts the socio-cultural, religious, political and historical circumstances of the university. They suggest passages that deal with festivals, rites of passage, gender, language use, and sports.

Theme based approach is similar to what Hasan and Akhand (2010) describe as ‘genre-based approach’. Genre-based in writing is seen as a social and cultural practice and, it involves the context where the writing occurs, and the conventions of the target discourse community. It therefore promotes the use of relevant genre knowledge in the language classroom. According to Paltridge (2004) the genre approach encourages the teaching of particular genre students need for later social communicative success.

Interactive teaching

The third issue to consider under teaching approach concerns “the relationship between discipline-specific teachers and academic literacy teachers regarding students’ acquisition of the

epistemology and rhetoric in their respective disciplines” (Afful 2007: 152). Afful encourages the collaboration between the academic writing teacher and discipline-specific teacher in this approach.

Under this approach, there is teamwork between the discipline-specific teacher and the academic literacy teacher in teaching various aspects of writing valued and privileged in specific disciplines. This form is supported by Jones (2004).

Secondly, the centrality of the discipline-specific teaching in academic writing courses has to do with teaching based on specialty or department. Here the discipline-specific teacher only teaches students in a particular discipline. Adika and Owusu-Sekyere (1997) supported this program and suggested the program was to replace a general academic writing program in University of Ghana. Afful (2007) supports a third approach, which he consider more pragmatic because the first two approaches have logistical and human resource constraints. The interactive approach merges the generalist writing approach and the discipline-specific approach. He added that the centrality of academic writing instructors is very key to the success of the program. In order for this approach to work properly, the approach should give the discipline-specific teacher more central role by providing the necessary logistics.

Process approach

Furneaux (1995:7) proposed an approach called ‘process approach’. The reason behind this approach is that many students have been given a lot of writing practice which usually focus on the product approach and not the process. Hasan and Akhand (2010:78) confirm that in a product approach, students are supplied with a standard sample of text and they are asked to follow the standard to construct a new piece of writing. Gabrielatos (2002:5) describes the product approach as “a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed at an early stage”

Furneaux (1995) adds that despite the criticism that this approach has been being too soft on students and for not preparing them for the real academic world of critical readers, set topics and examinations, many academic writing courses follow a "process" approach to the teaching of writing. Hasan and Akhand (2010) assert that a process approach focus on varied classroom activities, which encourage the development of language, use: brainstorming, group discussion and rewriting.

Moreover, process approach helps flexible writers tackle a task from a variety of angles and this is very crucial in academic writing. Furneaux (1995:7) is of the view that “a process approach to writing emphasizes generating ideas, organising and presenting them in an acceptable way and re-writing first/second drafts in the light of feedback from readers”. He explains the "acceptable way" to mean acceptable to the academic community the student is going to join. This guides the

students to know the differences between his previous writing style and what is expected of him. This approach builds the confidence level of students by giving them the necessary tool to

criticize their work and that of others. This is achieved through focusing on the draft (content and organisation) and tackling the linguistics accuracy at the final draft stage.

Furneaux (1995:8) is of the view that topics must be appropriate and address the future needs, intellectual level and maturity of the students. I do not agree with Furneaux on the topic being “feasible for everyone in the class. In the case of some of the Ghanaian universities where we have a large number of people in the class, it will be a herculean task for a teacher to have a feasible topic for everyone. In University of Professional Studies, for instance, the number of students in a class will not permit a teacher to deal with the students one after the other.

This approach provides students the skills to develop how to argue, to define, to compare and contrast, to summaries, etc. Practicing note-taking is very key to this approach and writing from other source to avoid plagiarism is not left out in this approach. This is the type of approach that encourages feedback at the drafting stage. The feedback is not coming from the instructor alone but sometimes from the peers in the class. It is good for the teacher’s feedback to take the form of a one-to one discussion about the writing. Furneaux (1995) admits the fact that this is time-consuming.

CONCLUSION

The paper investigates the approaches to teaching academic writing in the tertiary level. It focused on the Ghanaian universities and suggestions have been made regarding content and pedagogy, (Nartey & Dorgbetor, 2014; Afful, 2007). Moreover, many stakeholders in the educational sector in Ghana have questioned the products that are being turned from the country’s universities, especially in their communication skills at workplace. Therefore, there is the need to take the academic writing as a course seriously. Nartey and Dorgbetor (2014:167) are of the opinion that the major reason for which most of the students fail Academic Writing in an English-medium universities in Ghana comes from the lack of correlation between the course curriculum and the course examination. Therefore, there should be correlation between the curriculum and the examination.

The various approaches to teaching academic writing have their strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, there is the need to consider the needs of the students in adopting a particular approach. The students are central when it comes to teaching and learning process and they are the beneficial to the process. Hasan and Akhand (2010) conducted a study on the effects of product and process approach to writing on Bangladesh students; they found out that collaborative approach has always been the excellent in class.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS REFLECTIVITY IN TEACHING AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

The present study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between reflectivity in teaching and job satisfaction of Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers. Therefore, in order to achieve these objectives, the number of 66 English language teachers from public high schools in Khorramabad, Lorestan Province participated in this study. The data were gathered using observations, interviews, and the reflective teaching and job satisfaction questionnaires. Correlation analysis indicated that teachers' reflectivity in teaching was significantly relating to their feeling of job satisfaction. All components of job satisfaction i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment were also negatively related to teachers' reflectivity in teaching. In addition, several interviews and observations were carried out with five of EFL teachers participated in the study in order to enrich the data. According to the results of the current study, teachers become aware of what actually happens in the educational contexts. This awareness of reality makes them frame and reframe new attitudes towards teaching. The principle implications of the study are for the EFL discourse community in general and the realm of teacher education in particular.

KEYWORDS: *Reflective teaching, Job satisfaction, EFL teachers*

INTRODUCTION

Although John Dewey (1933) first outlined his understanding of the notion of reflection, not until the past few decades or so have the concept and practice of reflective teaching gained credence and undergone wide-spread discussion in Western education systems. More teachers and teacher educators now understand the issues of teaching through the lens of reflection.

Among the different factors that are related to English teaching, reflectivity in teaching is very important. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between Iranian high school EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their job satisfaction. It should be noted that discussions on the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their job satisfaction independently needs further research. Hence, first, this study aimed to explore if the Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching English is related to their job satisfaction. Secondly, the present study checked the effects of job satisfaction on Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching. Accordingly, an attempt was made to examine whether the components of reflection and job satisfaction are interrelated.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Reflective Teaching

The notion of reflection traced back to John Dewey. Dewey (1933) defines reflection as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p. 9). When teachers look back at their teaching and its consequences in an attempt to understand what they know about teaching and actually do in the classroom. This continual reexamination of their practice is supposed to allow teachers to develop their knowledge and reconsider what they learn in practice (Shulman & Colbert, 1989; Brookfield, 1995; Loughran, 2002). In general, reflection is consisted of six components which each one has a definition: practical element including the tools and procedures for reflective practice, like ‘journal writing’, ‘lesson reports’, ‘surveys and questionnaires’, ‘audio and video recordings’, ‘observations’, ‘action research’, ‘teaching portfolios’, ‘group discussions’, ‘analyzing critical incidents’ (Farrell, 2004; Murphy, 2001; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1994), cognitive element concerned with teachers' attempt at professional development, conducting action research, attending conferences, and reading the professional literature (Farrell, 2004; Richards & Farrell, 2005), learner element concerned with a teacher's reflectivity on his/her students, how they are learning and how learners respond or behave emotionally in their classes (Hillier, 2005; Pacheco, 2005; Pollard et al., 2006; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1994), meta-cognitive element dealing with teachers and their reflections on their own beliefs and personalities (Hillier, 2005; Pollard et al., 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Stanley, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1996), critical element concerned with socio-political aspects of pedagogy and teachers' reflectivity on the political significance of their practice and introducing topics related to race, gender and social classes (Bartlett, 1997; Day, 1993; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Zeichner & Liston, 1996), moral element dealing with teachers' reflectivity on moral issues such as justice, empathy, and values.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the most widely investigated job attitude, as well as one of the most extensively researched subjects in Industrial Psychology (Church & Judge, 2000). Many work motivation theories have represented the implied role of job satisfaction. In addition, many work satisfaction theories have tried to explain job satisfaction and its influence such as Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's (1968) Two-Factor Motivator-Hygiene Theory, etc. As a result, it can be said that job satisfaction is linked to productivity, motivation, absenteeism/tardiness, accidents, mental/physical health, and general life satisfaction (Landy, 1978). Therefore, job satisfaction means the feeling of pleasure and achievement that you experience in your job when you know that your work is worth doing, or the degree to which your work gives you this feeling.

Job satisfaction and reflectivity

Many studies on job satisfaction and reflectivity in the past have been carried out by means of questionnaires. There have been only a few studies that have researched job satisfaction of teachers by using interviews or combining interviews and other methods, for instance Evans (1998).

Evans' contribution came from 4 interrelated studies. She studied primary school teachers' morale, motivation and job satisfaction and the reasons behind them.

The first study of Evans (1998:48-52) conducted in 1988 was a pilot study with the aim of finding out the level of morale and job satisfaction of the teachers as well as the areas which had an effect on them. The participants were chosen from Rockville primary school as the school was known for its low morale among the teachers. Evans used versatile methods of data gathering: first she observed the teachers and the school climate for one year and she simultaneously worked there as a part-time teacher. Then she chose 12 teachers for her interviews and follow-up questionnaires for comparison between results, clarification, and to get quantitative data. Evans concluded that the teachers had very different and individualistic views and experiences of morale and job satisfaction. A minority of the teachers had very low levels of morale while some teachers had very high levels of morale and job satisfaction. Most importantly, *professionalism*, *relative perspective* and *realistic expectations*, were the three concepts with which Evans explained the differences between the teachers' views.

The second study by Evans was conducted in 1989-1990 with an aim of checking how generalizable the results of the first study are. Another aim was to find out whether the teacher's professionalism and the professional climate of the school shaped teachers' job attitudes. Evans chose six teachers from two schools where she had been making observations and as many different professionalism types as possible.

Then, in the third study conducted in 1990-1992 she wanted to find out whether extended professionalism had an effect on teachers' job attitudes (Evans 1998:53). She found out that teachers with extended professionalism were more often frustrated with how the schools were run and also they had trouble reaching *job fulfillment*. There were clashes in various schools between the restricted and extended individuals.

In the fourth study, Evans (1998:53) wanted to see if the Reform Act of 1988 and the National Curriculum implementation in the UK had an effect on teacher morale and job satisfaction. However, Evans (1998) did find out these kinds of reforms did not have any special effect on their job satisfaction and morale.

In conclusion, Evans (1998:147-153) most central findings were that individuality and three other concepts stemming from it: *professionalism*, *relative perspective* and *realistic expectations* shape teachers' attitudes towards their work. Evans' finding concerning the *individuality* of teachers is central also in the present study. In her first interviews, Evans noticed that when she asked teachers to identify sources of satisfaction in their job, some factors were similar to Herzberg's (1966) intrinsic (motivation factors) which were "working with children and watching them progress, organizing in-service training days for colleagues, feeling that individual children's learning needs were being accommodated" (Evans 1997a:326). Also, there were some similar factors that could fall in Herzberg's category *hygiene factors*: room size, resources, and how close the school was to home. The results of her studies were more in line with Herzberg's *motivation and hygiene factors* after she had divided job satisfaction into job comfort and job fulfillment,

they were more precise and she got more consistent information.

Maenpaa (2005) had similar results in her study of upper secondary school teachers' job satisfaction as many of the teachers had very differing views towards their jobs. Also, Evans emphasized the importance of providing a clear definition of job satisfaction so that it includes both the element of *job comfort* and *job fulfillment*. The division of job satisfaction into these two terms was seen as useful in Maenpaa's (2005). However, there are not many other studies except for Evans' studies that have used this distinction, so the empirical validity is not very good.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their job satisfaction?
2. Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional exhaustion and their reflectivity in teaching?
3. Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' depersonalization and their reflectivity in teaching?
4. Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reduced personal accomplishment and their reflectivity in teaching?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study aimed to survey the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their job satisfaction. To this end, from a total 79 EFL teachers that taught the English language in public high schools in Khorramabad, Lorestan Province, by using Morgan's table to achieving the sample size, 66 EFL teachers, male and female at various language proficiency levels were chosen. The participants were heterogeneous in their ages, academic degrees (B.A. and M.A. holders), and teaching experiences (from 2 years to 27 years). They also taught the English language to students at different grades (grade 7 to grade 9).

Instruments

Teacher Reflectivity Questionnaire

For reflectivity in teaching, the instrument used in the present study was the questionnaire developed by Ghadam Pour, Moradian, and Shokri (2014). It includes 27 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always with six factors of the teacher reflectivity constructs including practical, cognitive, meta-cognitive, learner, critical, and ethical sides.

Observations

Wajnryb (1999) has explained that observing our own teaching is a way of discovering the classroom from a perspective other than the one we actually engage in, of collecting classroom-observation information about teaching, and of providing focus and clarity.

Various kinds of observations can be used on the basis of their structure. In the present study, a checklist was used to facilitate the process of recording accurate data and compare participants'

activities in a principled manner (Mackey & Gass, 2005). This observation checklist was prepared by the researcher of this study on the basis of the reflective questionnaire and was consulted upon with a panel of four teacher educators to ensure its validity.

Semi-structured Interviews

The semi-structured interview is the most common form of interviewing (Rubin & Rubin, 1995) and not only helps the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent during the interview but also allows informants the freedom to express their views in their own terms. In this study, the semi-structured interview's questions were constructed based on the reflective questionnaire including six components of reflective practices including practical, cognitive, learner, meta-cognitive, critical and ethical, and also based on the job satisfaction questionnaire including three components of job satisfaction including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. The questions include 12 questions in six parts according to the six reflective elements that were explained above. Moreover, the questions include 6 questions in three parts in accordance with the three job satisfaction elements. The participants were interviewed in both English and Persian (their mother language) to delve into their cognitions towards their activities. Actually, since all of the reflective practices cannot be observable, the researcher was supposed to interview the participants to meet the objectives of the study accurately. The major goal of employing these instruments was to discover the main reasons of some discrepancies that might exist between the teacher participants' reported performances and their actual behaviors or what was observed in their classrooms.

Procedures

At the beginning of this study, two different types of closed form questionnaires were distributed simultaneously among the EFL teachers under study to collect the data needed. The researcher directly distributed and collected the two questionnaires. Among the 66 EFL teachers participating in the study, only five EFL teachers accepted to take part in interviews and allowed the researcher to observe their classrooms. The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews so as to compile more precise information on root causes of the EFL teachers' job satisfaction and its effect on their reflection. A checklist was made by the researcher to observe and notate the behavior of the EFL teachers under study.

Therefore, to fulfill the objectives of the study, the teacher participants were first required to answer the reflective and job satisfaction questionnaire items and fill in demographic information such as gender, teaching experience, and academic degree. Incidentally, the researcher asked them to mark their responses carefully.

Then, the researcher took permission and consent from the language teachers to take part in their classrooms and observe their real behaviors and record their teaching activities according to the checklist to be examined later. These classroom-observations occurred during eight sessions, ninety minutes per session.

As mentioned earlier, all the items of the questionnaire were not observable. They often referred to the general ideas that were not formulated as actual samples of reflective behaviors by the

language teachers. For example, some statements of the reflective questionnaire relate to reflection on the socio-political and cultural aspects of teaching or some others refer to the language teachers' reflecting on their own beliefs and personality.

These categories cannot be directly observed in the classrooms, thus, the language teachers were also interviewed after each session of teaching to gain in-depth information about their reflective teaching practices, and they were questioned about any discrepancy that might be observed between their self-reported practices and their actual behaviors and explored the main reasons of them. In addition, during the interviews, they were required to talk about the causes of those statements which they reported in the questionnaire about their reflective teaching performances and their job satisfaction, but these performances could not be really observed in their classrooms. They were generally questioned about how they attempted to be reflective while teaching and why sometimes they did not manage to apply knowledge to practice. They should discuss the rationale behind them in detail.

Data Analysis

After collecting the EFL teachers' responses to the items of the Reflective Teaching and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for inputting the data and processing them. The mean scores and standard deviations of the two measures, that is, the Reflective Teaching and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire were calculated. The Pearson Product-Moment correlation was used as an analytical method to analyze the data and to determine the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity and their job satisfaction in teaching. Cronbach's alpha was also used to assess the reliability of the instruments. Since this study also takes into account the concepts of reflectivity and job satisfaction in teaching from a qualitative perspective, the data gathered qualitatively were analyzed by the micro-genetic method. The tools for gathering data consisted of observations and interviews.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of the reflective language teaching questionnaire

The reflective questionnaire used in this study included 27 items on a 5- point Likert scale ranging from 'never' to 'always' with six factors of the teacher reflectivity constructs including practical, cognitive, meta-cognitive, learner, critical, and ethical sides. The first few items of the reflective questionnaire (1-6) included the practical component of reflective teaching. The cognitive component is the second element of reflective teaching on the questionnaire, that is, items 7 to 12. The third reflective factor is the learner or affective element including items 13-15. Items 16-20 show the meta-cognitive element as the fourth dimension of reflective teaching on the questionnaire stating teachers' reflection on their own personality and beliefs, and items 21-27 show the critical and ethical elements as the final components of reflective practices in language teaching the scores 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 were regarded for the choices 'never', 'rarely', 'sometimes', 'often', and 'always' in the reflective questionnaire, respectively. Then, the responses of each participant to 27 items of the questionnaire were added and the obtained score was considered as a measurement for identifying the participants' reflection level in language

teaching. For defining the reflection level of the teacher participants, the four factors of low, moderate, strong and highly strong were determined as the measures of reflectivity in language teaching. It means that the teacher participant whose score is between 0-27 is considered as a low reflective teacher. The language teacher whose score falls between 28-54 is regarded as a moderate language teacher reflector. In addition, the language teacher whose reflective score ranges from 55 to 81 is operationally defined as a strong reflective teacher. Lastly, the reflective teacher whose score is within the range of 82-108 is assigned as a highly strong reflective language teacher. Therefore, the highest level of reflection belonged to that language teacher who gets the score 108. On the other hand, this score implies that this language teacher perfectly reflects on his/her teaching performances and selects 'always' to all items of the reflective questionnaire. Table 4.1 shows the distribution of the study participants according to their demographic data. Among the total 66 EFL teachers participating in the study, 28 of them were male and 38 of them were female. Twenty five point seven percent of all participants had (6-10) years of experience.

Table 1: Demographics of Participants

Gender	No	Percentage
Male	28	42.42
Female	38	57.57
Years of Experience		
1-5 Years	4	6.06
6-10 Years	17	25.75
11-15 Years	11	16.66
16-20 Years	10	15.15
20+ Years	4	6.06

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

At the outset of the study, to ensure normality of the data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run. H_0 which is indicative of the normal distribution of the data was evaluated using this test; the results of this test are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: The Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Variables	Mean	df	sig	z	result
Reflection	3.31	0.67	0.26	1.01	null hypothesis approved
Job Satisfaction	3.40	0.49	0.41	0.91	null hypothesis approved

As viewed in the table, the significant quantity of the data is higher than 0.05. Therefore, it can be assumed that the data are normally distributed. Consequently, the Pearson product-moment correlation can be used.

The first research question

In order to study whether there is any significant relationship between the EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and teachers' job satisfaction, Pearson product moment correlation was run (Table 3). The results suggested a strong, negative correlation between the two variables $r = -$

.54, $n = 66$, $\text{sig} = .007$ which is lower than $\alpha = 0.01$. It means that high levels of teachers' reflection associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. Differently put, the more the teachers are reflective, the less they feel job satisfaction.

Table 3: Pearson Correlation for Reflective Teaching and Job Satisfaction

r	N	sig.
-.540	66	.007

The second research question

The second research question aimed to explore the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their emotional exhaustion. To answer the question, the Pearson product-moment correlation was used. As displayed in Table 4, there is a large negative correlation between these two variables ($r = -.721$, $\text{sig} = .001$ which is lower than $\alpha = 0.01$). It means that the higher the amount of Iranian EFL teachers' reflection is, the lower their emotional exhaustion is

Table 4: Pearson Correlation for Reflective Teaching and Emotional Exhaustion

Variables	r	sig.
Reflective Teaching		
Emotional Exhaustion	-.721	.001

The third research question

In order to examine the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their depersonalization, the Pearson product-moment correlation was run. As illustrated in Table 5, there is also a strong negative significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their depersonalization. ($r = -.440$, $\text{sig} = .006$ which is lower than $\alpha = 0.01$). It means that the higher the amount of their reflection is, the smaller the amount of their depersonalization is.

Table 5: Pearson Correlation for Reflective Teaching and Depersonalization

Variables	r	sig.
Reflective Teaching	-.440	.006
Depersonalization		

The fourth research question

To study that if there is any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their reduced personal accomplishment, Pearson's correlation was used. From the results shown in Table 6, it can be inferred that there is a strong negative relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their reduced personal accomplishment. ($r = -.495$, $\text{sig} = .004$ which is lower than $\alpha = 0.01$). In other words, the larger the amount of their reflection, the smaller amount of their burnout is.

Table 6: Pearson Correlation for Reflective Teaching and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Variables	r	sig.
Reflective Teaching	-.495	.004
Reduced Personal Accomplishment		

Analysis of qualitative data

The qualitative data were collected through the teacher observations and interviews with the participants. Observed practices were formed in the checklist including how and why the observer questioned on the EFL teachers' challenges of their own teaching theories and practices. From the 66 EFL teachers participating in this study, only 5 language teachers were willing to cooperate in the interviews and allowed the researcher to observe their classrooms. In reporting the data, the participants remained anonymous. Therefore, the labels such as T1, T2, T3, T4, and T5 were used instead of the language teachers' real names. The following table shows the participants' level of reflection and job satisfaction.

Table 7: The Participants' Reflection and Job Satisfaction Level

EFL Teachers	Scores	Reflection Level	Scores	Job Satisfaction Level
T1	60	High	65	Average
T2	24	Low	77	Low
T3	20	Low	75	Low
T4	70	High	55	High
T5	75	High	54	High

Semi-structured interviews consisting of nine questions based on the questionnaires (RTQ and MBI-Ed) were carried out to investigate participants' perception of the concepts of reflection and job satisfaction. Each interview was administered face-to-face and individually.

Reflective teaching

Six of the interview questions were about reflective teaching and three of them related to job satisfaction. The first interview question was "When do you decide to write about your classroom experiences and why?" In response, T3 explained:

Writing about teaching experiences is not very useful because we have different students in different classes and in each class we encounter special problems. I have no close relationship with my colleagues to talk about my teaching experiences.

T1 expressed:

Writing about classroom experiences makes the teacher think about challenging problems. I could remember that problems much easier. I did it at the end of the class.

T5 stated:

I sometimes write about my teaching experiences but I talk about them with my colleagues when I am free at the break time.

T4 believed that:

Writing teaching experiences makes her become aware of her personal feelings, and she said that she could overcome her failures related to her feelings.

T2 stated:

Between the classrooms in a break, teachers prefer to refresh themselves for the next class. They are tired and busy. I don't pay so much attention to this matter.

By observing the behavior the EFL teachers participating in the interview sessions, only one of them, T1 talked about her teaching experiences in her free time practically. Indeed, other EFL teachers did not practically understand the benefit of writing and talking about teaching experiences.

All EFL teachers who participated in the interviews agreed that teachers should develop their professional knowledge through updating themselves in issues relating to language learning and teaching. Five EFL teachers chose 'always' or 'often' for items referred to the cognitive component of reflection. This element leads teachers to improving their teaching by attending conferences or carrying out small-scale projects.

T1 stated:

Teachers should take learners' viewpoints into account, and decide on adopting the most appropriate teaching methods according to their favorite learning styles. By knowing students' interests and favorite styles, the teachers' autonomy does not decrease, but they will become mediators.

In the same line, T5 reflected:

In teaching grammar, I prefer to teach the grammatical points inductively but before teaching I ask my learners about their favorite method in learning grammar (inductive or deductive).

One of the EFL teachers, T3 pointed out:

Although developing professional knowledge is beneficial for improving the teaching style, but I don't pay attention to it. I prefer to teach based on my current knowledge. I find it hard to be updated or attend conferences. For teaching the current books, my knowledge is sufficient.

In the interviews, they talked about their opinions about the learner's dimension of the reflective teaching questionnaire or the third question of the interview, as follows:

T2 reflected:

Because each class includes more than 25 students with different opinions, it is not practical to ask them about their learning styles. Teachers should use their preferred style in their classrooms and students should accept it. I rarely ask them about their interests or favorite learning styles.

T4 explained:

Teachers cannot control the process of learning only by themselves. Students can manage their own learning by helping their teachers. We teachers should afford our learners the opportunity to voice their opinions and favorite learning style. I always ask my students about the date of their mid-term exam.

T3 also explained:

If we ask students about their styles, the autonomy of teachers decreases and students will gain autonomy in classrooms. I always manage my classrooms on my own.

It was really observed that T1, T4, and T5 asked their learners about their preferred learning styles. For example, in the teaching present continuous tense, T1 asked her students to teach the grammatical points by using the whiteboard or power-point slides. During the interviews, the

participants talked about the impact of personal experiences contributing to building a theory of teaching.

T2 pointed out:

The theory of teaching is being formed through the teaching process.

T1 stated:

During their teaching profession, teachers encounter many unpredictable situations. By referring to teaching experiences, teachers can overcome the pedagogical problems more successfully.

T4 explained:

Teachers build their theory of teaching during teacher training courses. Then, they use their experiences when they become teachers during their professional career.

T5 explained:

Based on my personal experiences, it is better to teach new materials at the beginning of the classroom because students and teachers are fairly fresh to receive new materials. I often use my previous experiences.

In observing T5's classroom during 8 sessions, he often taught new materials at the beginning of the class time.

Question five and six of the interviews were about critical and ethical components of reflective practice. These reflective elements state teachers' attitudes toward social, political and moral problems of the educational system and of the society as well. During the interviews, teachers stated that they rarely discuss these issues in their classrooms because of their students' age. Students cannot critically discuss these problems.

T5 stated:

I think about these topics, but talking about them depends on the subjects of lessons. One of the course lessons is about personality traits. I asked my students what traits can be revealed more in males and what in females. Students believed that boys are brave and girls are more sensitive.

In observing the T5' classroom, when the lesson subject was about travelling, the teacher asked his students when they decide to travel. One of the students said when I have enough money. It depends on our financial status. In fact, they implied the issue of poverty. In other classroom observations, the researcher did not observe any discussions about such issues. Other EFL teachers believed that the discussion subjects in classes should be related to lessons; otherwise, students get confused. All of the EFL teachers participating in interviews in justification of not talking about political issues stated that political topics are too challenging to be discussed in the classes. They mentioned the subjects of lessons are not related to political issues but as much as possible they talked about moral issues like justice and values.

Job Satisfaction

The last three questions of the interview were about job satisfaction components including emotional exhaustion (question 7), depersonalization (question 8), and reduced personal accomplishment (question 9). Teachers expressed their ideas in answering the question “*what factors demotivate or dissatisfy you with your job?*”

T5 continued:

If a teacher becomes demotivated, it is due to his/her students' demotivation. It is the teachers' duty to encourage their students to become interested in English.

T4 also stated:

We teachers prefer to assign our favorite textbook, but by the pressure of authorities, we should teach a specific textbook for each grade that may not be suitable for each geographical place like rural schools. Overall, I like teaching English with all its deficiencies.

T4 and T5 expressed:

They enjoy working with students, specially teaching English to students, but they sometimes complain about teaching English to uninterested learners.

T2 pointed out:

Long hour of work, not get enough money, school restrictions, and its high expectations dissatisfy me with my work.

T3 stated:

Teaching is a routine action. Teachers must teach the same thing over and over again. Teachers do their best to teach their students, but there is no promotion for the teacher at all. I try to enhance my students' achievement, but sometimes parents blame me because of their students' failures.

T1 explained:

Teaching a foreign language only by using textbooks is not imaginable. It requires audio and video CDs related to the subject matter. It is a factor that sometimes makes me demotivated with my job.

Question eight, which was “*what makes you be indifferent to your students, successes and failures and take distance from your students?*”

As mentioned earlier, it refers to the second dimension of job satisfaction, that is, depersonalization. Teachers mentioned factors like inexistence of students' achievement, students' demotivation, and teachers' demotivation. For example,

T2 stated:

Teachers expect their teaching to create learning in their students, but when they see students are indifferent and demotivated, they experience a state of detachment from students.

The last interview question was about the third dimension of job satisfaction that is reduced personal accomplishment. The question was “*what factors cause you not to feel successful with your job?*” The five EFL teachers participating in the interviews mentioned such factors: as having not control over materials, lack of interest in their job, low payment, no prospect of progress, and routine nature of teaching. For example,

T2 also explained:

Routine nature of teaching and long hours of work per week makes me tired. Consequently, I cannot promote learning in my students.

T3 in this regard said:

Teachers, especially English teachers, work hard and are underpaid. Despite their hard efforts, there is no promotion for them.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their sense of job satisfaction. Based on the results, an important and

meaningful relationship existed between teachers' reflectivity in teaching and their sense of job satisfaction. Up to now, a great number of studies (for example, Uzun, Yuksel, & Dost, 2013; Moradian & Ahmadi, 2015) have shown the positive effects of teachers' reflectivity on their teaching practice. The results obtained from the present study evidenced the findings of previous research studies and highlighted the fact that teachers' reflectivity in teaching fosters the quality of teachers' practice and prevents problems like job dissatisfaction they may encounter during their teaching profession (Chan, 2007).

The findings showed that despite the high degree of reflectivity in teaching claimed from participants' responses to the questionnaires, by implementing interviews and classroom observations this high degree of reflection was not found. The difference between the reflective practices which was understood by the participants themselves and those practices that were really observed in their classrooms, were recognizable in terms of practical element of reflectivity in language teaching.

In other words, most of the teachers highlighted the importance of group discussion as a very effective means for communicating with others about teaching events and exchanging ideas to achieve useful feedback and advice in line with enriching teaching performances and behaviors. While no discussion in groups was actually observed. After interviewing with the participants, it seemed they justified the issue variously. Based on the findings, it seemed that the teacher participants all believed in reflection as a positive concept that could be benefited in teaching, but they had problems for putting their ideas into practice and applying all reflective practices in their classrooms. This is chiefly because of the lack of time. Scheduling time for opportunities to learn and share ideas was difficult, especially with other school-related activities. Unfortunately, no classroom-observations occurred during this study. That is why the language teachers were asked about the reasons in the interviews. Moreover, all the EFL teachers participating in the interviews had a degree of job satisfaction. Based on their responses, one of the factors that made them satisfied is their motivation. This is one of the factors that influence reflective practice. Additionally, the teacher participants mentioned that other different intrinsic and extrinsic factors that could influence their attitudes and practices. External factors like no prospect of promotion, low payment and students' lack of interest were the main causes of job dissatisfaction from the teachers' viewpoint.

The present study was limited in relation to the sample of participants that were selected to be studied particularly. It means that those teachers who taught English as a foreign language in different high schools in Lorestan Province, Khorramabad City, were chosen due to their availability to the researcher. Therefore, the present study faced with the limitations of the sample size and geographical domain for the collection of data. That is why the sampling of the present study cannot be regarded as a wide population whose findings can be generalized broadly. For this reason, the generalization of the findings must be further examined. On the other hand, for more valid results, further researches must be conducted on larger samples of participants from various communities.

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THE THEATRE AS A SITE OF GENDER-BASED DISCRIMINATION IN ALICE CHILDRESS' *FLORENCE*

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ABSTRACT

Gender-based discrimination is a serious problem which women are still suffering from in almost all fields of life. This problem becomes more serious when gender join forces with color and race. These three factors deeply affect the afro-American women and their status in the American society. One of the sites in which black women experience discrimination is the theatre. This paper intends to explore the multi-faceted aspects of this problem in Alice Childress one-act play Florence. It consists of two main sections and a conclusion. Section one deals with Childress' efforts to fight discrimination by establishing a career of her own in the theatre. Section two critically discusses the attempts of the black community, represented by Florence and her mother to resist the stereotypes imposed on them by the white-dominated society. The paper is concluded with a warning against all forms of discrimination and an invitation for mutual respect and understanding.

KEYWORDS: discrimination, Childress, Florence, theatre.

The Theatre as a Site of Gender-Based Discrimination in Alice Childress' *Florence*

"Sweepin'! Them folks ain't gonna let her be no actress" (Florence, p.111)

FINDING A VOICE OF HER OWN: ALICE CHILDRESS' JOURNEY IN THE AMERICAN THEATRE

Being the only Afro-American woman playwright in the United States of America whose plays have been written, produced, and published over a period of four decades, as the drama scholar Elizabeth Brown- Guillory (1990, p.28) reports, the theatre for Alice Childress (1920-1994) is certainly more than a place to voice her opinions and explore the chronic dilemmas and problems the black people in general and black women in particular suffer from in a highly racially discriminated society. It is her life and destiny.

Childress, as a matter of fact, is a woman of theater who is determined to go on in her struggle against all sorts of racial discrimination which her people historically endure. She is widely known for her staunch refusal to compromise her vision and her insistence on "not keep[ing] quite,.... and not stop[ping] telling the truth" (Alice Childress, 1987).

Although Childress writes in a variety of genres, she believes that "the play form is the one most familiar to [her] and so influences all of [her] writing"(Childress Facts-Biography, 2010). In a telling statement that explicates the central position of the theater in her life and literary career, Childress says: "When I'm writing, characters seem to come alive; they move my pen to action, pushing, pulling, shoving, and intruding. I visualize each scene as if it were part of a living play.... I am pleased when readers say that my novels feel like plays, because it means they are very visual"(Ibid).

Childress began her career in the theater, initially as an actress and later as a director and playwright. Although "theater histories make only passing mention of her, ... she was in the forefront of important developments in that medium," writes Dictionary of Literary Biography contributor Trudier Harris. Rosemary Curb concurs with Harris and further adds that Childress's 1952 drama *Gold through the Trees* was "the first play by a black woman professionally produced on the American stage." Moreover, Curb adds, "As a result of successful performances..., Childress initiated Harlem's first all-union Off-Broadway contracts recognizing the Actors' Equity Association and the Harlem Stage Hand Local"(Childress Facts-Biography, 2010)

The establishment of the Actors' Equity Association in 1913 with a few actors banding together to end the exploitation of the black stage performers was an important step in Childress' lifelong project to combat all sorts of discrimination on the basis of race, gender, age, national origin, union activity or sexual orientation. The importance of the Equity for Childress and other black performers lies in the fact that as an organization, it aims at enhancing and protecting the rights of stage performers in relation to wages, work rules, contracts, pension, health and legal assistance, and life insurance(Actors Equity Association,p7).

Fighting discrimination in the theatre was of special importance for Childress. In fact, she was fully aware of the deep-seated racial attitudes against the blacks, especially the women, in this sector. As a result, the questions of gender, performance, and (mis)representation were central to Childress, the playwright, actor, and director. Historically speaking, these racial attitudes affected not only the types of roles played by black people, but they also contributed to maintaining the status quo concerning the images of black in the American society. In the *New York Times*, Arthur Gelb states that Childress "has some witty and penetrating things to say about the dearth of roles for [black] actors in the contemporary theatre, the cutthroat competition for these parts and the fact that [black] actors often find themselves playing stereotyped roles in which they cannot bring themselves to believe"(Childress Facts-Biography, 2010)

Childress acknowledges in her writings that many Black actors took jobs even if they were demeaning. Judith E. Barlowe explains that Black actors often played stereotypical roles that they knew were wrong(Barlowe, 1994, p.471). Childress herself often played undesirable roles. More often than not, Childress ran into problems when she tried to act in the theater at large, because she was considered too light skinned to play black roles but not fair enough to play whites(Ibid). Childress does not shy away from the truth. When she was asked about what exactly bothered her about the roles she played as an actress, **Childress** answered "They were stereotypes, "packaged

situations. I don't mean derogatory stereotypes, but too predictable" (Betsko & Koeing, 1987, p.68). Childress was resolved to resisting such racially biased outlooks. She challenges Blacks to look in the mirror and see the bad depictions of them and make a change (Jenning, 1995, p.81). By producing plays about blacks, Childress attempts to speed up the process of self-realization for others. Her *Trouble in Mind* (1955), for example, can be considered an example of her sincere efforts to revolt against racial discrimination in the American theatre. It is a play within a play that focuses on the anger and frustration experienced by a troupe of black actors as they try to perform stereotyped roles in a play that has been written, produced, and directed by whites. In her seminal study *Adding It Up: The Status of Women in Canadian Theatre*, Kate Taylor deliberates the problem of gender-based discrimination in the Canadian theatre which, one can safely say, is as fitting to the American as to the Canadian. The problem of "invisibility" of [black] women in American theatre, that is their relative exclusion from participating in the creation of the nation's theatrical culture, indicates that an unbalanced and biased (usually white, middleclass, male) view of America and American culture has been perpetuated and overstated; it is a view that fails to represent the diversity of the nation. Moreover, the relative absence of women, Taylor contends, feeds back upon the culture and further perpetuates the inferior status so often accorded to women (Burton, 2006, p.8). As Rina Fraticelli states: "This incapacity to (literally) see oneself reflected in the national culture then becomes a central link in the perpetuation of the cycle of women's oppression: Women's invisibility in the real world of [theatre] confirms and propels her low status in society at large". This clearly reflects the "internalized, perhaps unconscious... culturally-encoded and institutionalized... [and] systemic discrimination" against women (Ibid).

This brings to light the question of the (mis)representation and discrimination against the black in the American theatre which dates back to its early beginning. According to Stuart Hall (qtd in Coleman, 2003, p.25), representation is "(T)he production of the meaning of the concepts in our minds through language." Representation then, in this context, refers to words or images that stand for social groups and categories. Creating and controlling the image for specific purposes constitute the "politics of representation." This "politics of representation" complicates the interpretation of the black image on the stage. Not only is the politics of representation concerned with the creation and control of the image, but also with whether the image that is created is accurate or empowering (Ibid). Unfortunately, the images of black were far from being accurate or precise. They were mainly intended to entrench, cement, and proliferate the stereotypicality and inferiority of blacks as fools, violent, ignorant, grinning, happy-go-lucky, dandified coon, and subservient. Similar to their position in public life, blacks on the American stage have been "subordinated, marginalized, positioned, and devalued in every possible manner to glorify and relentlessly hold in place the white-dominated symbolic order and racial hierarchy of American society" (Ibid, p.28). A classic example of stereotyping and controlling the image of black Americans appears in the minstrelsy show; the comic entertainment in which whites, who blackened their faces with burnt cork, mimicked Negroes (Ibid, p.29).

This show is responsible for the creation of the well-known and hardly benign American character, Jim Crow (For more information, see Jim Crow Museum: Origin of Jim Crow). Its impact had a life that extended far beyond the stage in American social, political and civil rights policy. For many years, (largely due to the audience expectations created by these white

performers) the only work black performers could find was to perform in minstrel shows, in blackface. This absurd situation reinforces the notion that the depictions of blackness and black people on white stages were not real. Even black actors had to “perform” white ideas of blackness by darkening their skin, wearing silly costumes and miming the white actors’ racist depictions of black people (A Brief Overview of the History).

Minstrelsy had a profound effect on stereotyping the images of blacks in American culture. In these theatrical shows, blacks are often and predominantly presented as dim-witted, buffoonish, lazy and superstitious. Edith Isaacs in *The Negro in the American Theatre* states that minstrelsy “helped to create and fix the Negro stereotypes—passive or scheming, over-dull or over-shrewd, but always irresponsible and caricatured—which have burdened our theatre ever since” (qtd in Coleman, 2003, p.29). To sum up: “From beginning to end, minstrelsy was a white man’s show—the white man’s concept of the naïve, comic aspect of the plantation slave’s life. Played for white audiences, it was careful not to disturb any nationally “acceptable” images” (Clyde Gene Sumpter, qtd in Ibid). These stereotypical images in the plays helped to rationalize a system which oppressed their real life counterparts. Margret Just Butcher (1956, p.129) argues that “for decade after decade, the negro character was synonymous to ‘comic relief’ diverting antics, crude dialect, and grotesque appearance- either physically or in terms of costume” she adds “the negro was evaluated as a second-rate dramatic talent; he was regarded exclusively as mimic or clown.” Therefore such stereotypes created artistic expectations which black playwrights have to overcome when writing for the stage, thus, negro playwright has had for many years to struggle against the tradition and the static limits of popular taste. They have to revise early stereotypes and to prepare the ground for the evolution of the negro character in the American drama.

Black women often face two hurdles in theatre, constraints linked to gender and race. Not only must the black woman confront the portrayal of herself as “woman” on the stage; she must equally confront her portrayal as black woman. Jo A. Tanner remarks in *Dusky Maidens*: “In addition to sharing all the restrictions of sex oppression with White women, they have been further handicapped by the restrictions of race oppression shared by Black Americans” (qtd. In Coleman, 2003, p.122,123). In many ways the challenges that women face on the stage reflect the challenges they face in everyday life. Traditionally, men have dominated the theatre arts. Male roles are far more prevalent in most plays; male performers generally command higher salaries than their female counterparts. Female characters usually ranged from the sexually provocative to the laughable. These roles were almost always played by men in drag (Robert C. Toll, 1974, p.79). Early blackface minstrels were all male, so cross-dressing white men also played black women who were often portrayed either as unappealingly and grotesquely mannish; in the matronly, mammy mold; or highly sexually provocative. The theatre has for too long remained locked into the stereotypical image of the black woman in society, either completely ignoring her on stage or succumbing to whatever the current stereotype is (Omofolabo Ajayi-Soyinka, 1993).

It is against this background of prejudice, discrimination, and stereotyping in theatre that Childress wrote *Florence* (1949). The play, definitely, reflects Childress’ own experiences and thoughts as a Black female playwright in a white-male dominated field. In relation to this, Elizabeth Brown-Guillory (1990, p.43) notes, “For many years after the emancipation, blacks

were all but excluded from the American theatre as audience, actors or playwrights” In the play, Childress demonstrate show a young black woman in the title character finds it difficult to make a living in the theatre as a performer; she is a victim of racist stereotyping even by a self-styled liberal white woman, and nobody sees a profession for her except as a maid or cook. However, before discussing the play per se, a word must be said about Childress’ theatrical experience and the central role her maternal grandmother played in sparking her imagination by encouraging her to make up stories about people she watches and knows.

Her grandmother, Eliza Campbell, taught Childress that observing was not enough, that she should write down the ideas, which as she thought, deserved to be kept. Childress said as a child she would sit with her grandmother and watch people from their window, and then make up stories about them. The grandmother also served as a muse for the protagonist in Childress’s novel, *A Short Walk* (Childress Papers, 2). She used to take Childress to walk up and down New York city, going to art galleries and private art showings and tell the people in charge " Now this is my granddaughter and we don't have any money, but I want her to know about art" (Alice Childress: A Pioneering Spirit, 1987, p.66).

As a teenager Childress became interested in pursuing a career as an actress after seeing one of Shakespeare’s plays. Although she did not complete high school, around this time she began studying with the spians Venzuella Jones and Nadja Romanov. Around the age of 19 she met and married actor Alvin Childress (1908-1986), best known for his role as Amos in the controversial television show, *Amos and Andy* (Alice Childress Papers, p.3).

Records reveal that the young couple worked together in at least two productions together, the most notable being the American Negro Theatre’s *Anna Lucasta* in 1944. According to documentation Childress was one of the founding members of the ANT in 1939.

In 1941 Childress joined the American Negro Theatre (ANT), which met in the Schomburg Library in Harlem. Like all ANT members, Childress participated in all aspects of theater, though her main interest was acting. She stayed with ANT for eleven years but was frustrated by the emphasis on issues important to black men and the consequent neglect of black women’s issues and roles (Childress Papers, p.3).

Prior and during her tenure with the American Negro Theatre the young mother, wife, and budding writer, worked a number of jobs to support her family including jobs as an apprentice machinist, domestic governess, insurance agent and salesperson. Through these jobs, she became acquainted with numerous working-class people, whose lives became the basis of characters in her later plays and novels.

As the " Mother of professional black theater in America" (Brown-Guillory, p.46), Childress uses her keen mind to address the struggle of black women with the aim of effecting social change. Her plays reflect her passionate interest in the intersection of race and gender. She wrote about black women who are traditionally invisible in drama, she also tackled interracial marriage, the objectification of women, and race and gender stereotyping. She uses her double perspectives

as southerner living in the north to challenge not only the obvious target, the Jim Crow system in the south, but the hypocrisy of northern integration. (MacDonald & Linda, 2002, p.74) Commenting on Childress' various interests, Doris Abramson in her book *Negro Playwrights in the American Theater* (1969, p.89), describes Childress as "a crusader and a writer who resists compromise. She tries to write about Negro problems as honestly as she can, and she refuses production of her plays if the producer wants to change them in a way which distorts her intention."

Of her experience as a writer, Childress has written "Being a woman adds difficulty to self expression, but being Black is the larger factor of struggle against odds. Black men and women have particular problems above the average, in any field of endeavor" (Childress in Mari Evans, 1984, p.115). While gender is one reason of inequality, race is another, they are not mutually exclusive forms of discrimination. Indeed, too often they intersect, giving rise to compound or double discrimination. Accordingly black women live at the crossroad of gender and racial discrimination.

On the importance of Childress as a dramatist, activist, and a human being, John O. Killens reports in *The Literary Genius of Alice Childress* (1984, p.129), that

Alice Childress is tremendous gifted artist who has consistently used her genius to effect change in the world: to change the image we have of ourselves as human beings, Black and White Her gift has been used as an instrument against oppression Childress captures most of all capacities to overcome, to better than it is, or ever could be, its monumental change.

NOTHING CAN MAKE ME TURN BACK: THE IMPLICATIONS OF RESISTANCE IN ALICE CHILDRESS' FLORENCE

Florence (1949), is Childress' first professionally produced play which she both directed and starred in propelled by her awareness of the shortage of quality theatrical roles for black women on the American stage. It is a one-act play about what happens when a Negro woman and a white woman in the Jim Crow waiting room of southern segregated railroad station try to communicate. With American Negro Theater's production of *Florence* in Harlem in 1949, and its publication in 1950, Childress began her professional career as playwright.

In this play, Childress' primary goal was to readdress the black image, especially of women, on and off national and international stage. Childress's characterization of Mama (Mrs. Whitney) allows the play to pay specific attention to the history of Afro-American women in America. While the play is ostensibly about Florence, the segregation situation is extremely relevant. The significance of Florence after which the play is named is multilayered. First, Florence, which is the name of Childress' mother, *Florence is an English given name for girls. It is the French version after Saint Florentia, Roman martyr under Diocletian. It comes from Latin florens, florentius "blossoming", verb floreo, meaning "to flower", in the sense of a blossom (Florence, Wikipedia). It means that Childress' efforts at combating racial discrimination finally blossoms into a theatrical work that deals with this crucial issue. Second, Childress' choice of an offstage*

character to give vent to her opinions concerning the discriminatory practices against the blacks in the theatre is very apt. In fact, the very invisibility of Florence signifies more than anything else the invisibility of black people not only from theatre but from other fields of life in general. Third, although Florence is physically absent, she dominates the whole theatrical show as her decision to become an actress turns the play into a forum in which contesting stances are offered on one hand and on the other denotes the fact that change is coming.

Childress believes that Afro-American women live in a world where they are not free from the emotional shackles of slavery and Jim Crow laws. Therefore she pays much attention to tell their stories, she insists that black women are victimized or oppressed by the dominant race because of the unfamiliarity with their lives. She argues that: "today we hear so much about the 'New Negro' as though we had never breathed a protest until a few years ago. But the story of the 'Old Negro' has not been told" (qtd in Brown-Guillory, p.53).

Childress linked the meaning of black theater with the great need to represent Afro-American women on the stage in images and through stories that vindicate their collective and individual identity. In her essay *For A Negro Theater*, she writes:

I have learned that I must watch my people in railroad stations, in restaurants, in the field and tenements, at the factory wheels, in the stores, on the subway. I have watched and found that there is none so blind as he who will not see. (1951, p.62)

In *Florence*, Childress uses the conventions of realism-set, characters, modes of speech, to draw unsettling portrait of the Jim Crow South that has equally disturbing implications for the (supposedly) less prejudiced North. The choice of the place is very significant as it a rail station in which Mrs. Whitney Mama is waiting for the train to take her to the north. The train here denotes not only physical mobility, but also social and psychological mobility. The themes of this play are obviously those of gender discrimination, racial injustices, the clash of cultures and also pride and self-worth.

According to Doris E. Abramson (1969, p.189), although *Florence* is a "static" play in the sense that there is no real action in the conventional sense of the word, it is strong enough to "prove that every day situation can be dramatized." The play focuses on the corrosive effects of racism and stereotyping and shows how prevalent they were during this period. Childress uses realism in her portrayal of characters, setting and psychological development to depict the prejudices that many white people had about Blacks. She also challenges ideas about what should constitute a suitable career for black women in the theatre. This shows her indignation of what is known as vocational discrimination that affects the quality of roles available to black women, types of scripts accepted for performance and wages. In *Opening the Curtain on Playwright Gender*, Emily Glassberg Sands (2009, p.9) points out that female playwrights face not only worker discrimination, but also customer discrimination. In fact, the severity of the discrimination against female playwrights appears to be more pronounced for women writing about women than for women writing about men.

This one act play dramatized a simple encounter between an Afro-American woman , Mrs. Whitney (called Mama) and Mrs. Carter, a white [allegedly] liberal woman who tries to show Mama that she is not racist, in a southern train station . The two women are preparing for a trip to the North, Mrs. Carter is returning home after a visit to her brother Jeff, Mrs. Whitney is to convince her daughter Florence – an unemployed actress – into coming home.

From the early beginning, Childress illuminates the background of the segregated South and its policies. Describing the railway station waiting rooms , Childress takes pain in her stage directions to accurately reproduce the Jim Crow experience:

The room is divided in two sections by a low railing. Upstage center is a double door which serves as an entrance to both sides of the room. Over the doorway stage right is a sign "Colored," over the doorway stage left is another sign "White." Stage right are two doors . . . one marked "Colored men". . . the other "Colored women." Stage left two other doorways are "White ladies" and "White gentlemen."(Childress, 1990, p.110)

Racial discrimination is signaled by the very use of the words "Ladies" and "gentlemen" on the restrooms doors designed for whites. These titles , which suggest grace, wealth or royalty, don't appear on the restrooms doors of the blacks, an implication that " White " ladies and gentlemen are regarded superior to the " Colored" women and men.

In addition to that , it was informed by the porter that the " Colored Women" restroom is out of order, he only mops the white side of the rooms. The porter tells Mama that she must use the bathroom for black men, since the law forbids her to use the bathroom for white women.

In relation to this Brown-Guillory(1990, p.55) states "the out - of - order restroom becomes a symbol of the black women historical burden in America, that of struggling to keep together the family that the system of slavery plotted to destroy." The disordered restroom is a clue that for black women there is no rest neither in their own community nor in the white community. This disorder will remain as long as people are still judged by the hue of their skin.

In the waiting room there is also a low railing which literally divided it, but it is in fact figuratively divided by much more. The railing refers to special limitations imposed on the two races. It serves as physical and emotional barrier between them. It prevents them from interaction. Childress moves both white and black characters toward or away from this low railing to suggest racial constraints.

By accurately and realistically reproducing segregated waiting rooms , Childress confronts her audience with the problem of segregation and forces them to examine their own feelings about racial discrimination.

The first scene opens with the assumption that Florence, the unseen protagonist, left the south after the lynching of her husband, Jim, whose crime was only trying to vote in the elections. Because her husband died while trying to fight injustice, Florence feels she cannot accept the

discrimination that black people have been forced to endure for so long. The name of Florence's husband is very suggestive since it is a strong reminder of the Jim Crow rules and its racial restrictions. His is an act of resistance and protest for which he pays dearly. Florence knows that it is only by challenging oppression that Afro- Americans will be able to have the same opportunities as white Americans. She is more courageous than her sister Marge and is willing to take risks that her sister will not take.

Marge the other daughter accompanies Mamato the railroad station and informs her mother of the rules of safety traveling to the North. Marge explains:

MARGE: (places box on bench) Don't forget to eat your lunch . . . and try to get a seat near the window so you can lean on your elbow and get a little rest.

MAMA: Hmmm . . . mmph. Yes.

MARGE: Buy yourself some coffee when the man comes through. You'll need something hot and you can't go to the diner.(p.111)

Marge indicates that Mama should buy a coffee when the waiter passes through the Jim Crow train because she will not be able to go to the segregated dinner room. This is one of the restrictions imposed upon Afro-American people.

Marge unconsciously wanders upstage to the railing, she goes to the empty white side and comments: *Don't feel a damn bit different over here than it does on our side.(p.112)* .Though the white side is not very different , its inhabitants have privileges and freedom not available to the inhabitants of the other side in that time. This undoubtedly indicates Childress' belief in the equality of races. Marge introduces different frame of mind from her sister Florence. She is convinced that Florence will fail because she is black woman attempting to find a job in a white dominated, segregated society. Although Mama seems to have a little bit more faith in Florence, she still wants her to come back home, they even have a check ready to pay for her trip home, which causing them to be late on their rent. This reveals that they are willing to sacrifice a little in order to prevent Florence from possible failing in her quest for success in the theatrical world. As Marge speaks with Mama, she reveals her mentality in regard of Florence's situation:

MARGE:(wanders upstage to the railing division line)... She ain'tgonna get rich up there and we can't afford to do for her.... you got to be strict on her. She got notions a Negro woman don't need..... You tell her she ain'tgonna feel right in no place. Mama, honestly! She must think she's white! (p.111)

Marge seems to accept her fate in life and wishes for everyone in her family to do the same, she knows her place and limitations , when she crosses over the line and onto the "white" side of the stage , she states *"there's things we can't do cause they ain'tgonna let us"(p.112)*.The crossing over suggests that Afro-Americans feel harnessed in their struggle against oppression and perhaps envious of the privileges and rights accorded to the white. When Mama expresses her

little faith in Florence and tells Marge that *"Maybe we shoulda just sent her the money this time. This one time"*(p.112), Marge steps back over the "colored" side, and tells her mother that she must not give Florence any money but, must instead bring her back home. She reminds her of the time when Florence went to Strumely's asking to be a sales girl, knowing that blacks were not hired for such position. She gave Mama more than one reason:

MARGE: Listen, Mama . . . She won't wanna come. We know that . . . but she gotta! I bet she's livin' terrible. What's the matter with her? Don't she know we're keepin' her son? ... Didn't she go to Strumley's down here and ask to be a salesgirl? (rises) Now ain't that somethin'? They don't hire no Colored folks.(p.112)

Mama tries to defend Florence and her aspiration and desire to achieve her dream, she tells Marge that Florence doesn't like the South, and that she *"don't feel right 'bout down here since Jim got killed."*(p.112). Noteworthy is the choice of the name 'Marge' for Florence's sister. The name obviously signifies the marginalization of the black character. Childress, through the character of Marge, intends to criticize this form of internalized discrimination which makes black people believe in their inferior status. She suggests that unless Marge carries the banner of resistance, like her sister, she will never have a chance in bettering her life or achieving self-realization. She is and will remain marginal leading a mundane life.

Mama shows that she is a thoughtful and supportive mother who fully understands her daughter's liberal motivations to escape the South, and her attempt to prepare a better future for her son. As she argues with Marge she stated: *"she was in a real play. Didn't she send us twenty-five dollars a week?"*(p.111), but Marge told her *"Sure she was in it! Sweepin'! Them folks ain't gonna let her be no actress"* (p.111). Marge, knowing that Black actresses are humiliated by playing domestic rather than serious roles; she concludes that whites will prevent Florence's success.

After Marge's departure, the most significant encounter in *Florence* happens when Mrs. Whitney meets Mrs. Carter, a white woman who considers herself liberal, but proves the contrary. The two main characters somewhat unwillingly confront racial segregation, only to realize the size and the significance of the gap between them. From the first word that Mrs. Carter utters, it is obvious that she is a racist woman. She calls the porter "boy" just because he is black-he is about fifty years old - while Mama calls him Mr. Brown. The use of such words proves that Mrs. Carter is a racist woman.

As they exchange the conversation Mrs. Carter makes a big show by telling Mama not to call her "Ma'm". :

Good for you! You can stop "maming" me. My name is Mrs. Carter. I'm not a southerner really...You don't have to call me mam. It's so southern. Mrs. Carter! These people are still fighting the Civil War. I'm really a New Yorker now.(p.114).

The irony is so plain, because Mrs. Carter doesn't reveal her first name, nor ask Mama for either her first or last name. While continuing their talking, Mrs. Carter tells Mama about her brother Jeff, she gradually moves near the dividing line of the station's waiting room. She explains her brother's struggle to capture the lives of Afro-American people in his novel (*Lost my lonely Way*). Mrs. Carter tells Mama that the novel is "*about your people*", its protagonist, Zelma, is a mulatto girl who wants to be a lawyer, but commits suicide because she is only a half white girl.

Here a word should be said about type of character Jeff presents in his novel. Besides the Toms, the Coons, the Mammies, and the Bad Bucks, the "Tragic Mulatto" was one of the widespread stereotypes or fixed-images of the black women. According to Lofton Mitchell, the "tragic mulatto," or "octoroon" became popular in abolitionist drama (qtd in Coleman, 2003, p.30). But Lisa Anderson notes that the mulatto originated in the minstrel show. As a bi-racial woman, the mulatto's position in culture was tenuous. Beautiful and sexually attractive, she possessed mixed blood, which condemned her to a tragic ending, often suicide (Ibid.).

Almost on the rail, Mrs. Carter boasts of her brother's novel when she says:

It's profound. Real . . . Jeff poured his complete self into it. Really delved into the heart of the problem, pulled no punches! He hardly stopped for his meals . . . And of course I wasn't here to see that he didn't overdo. He suffers so with his characters. (p.115)

Leaning on the rail, Mrs. Carter proceeds to tell Mama about this mulatto girl who, with her tears on her cheeks, jumps from the bridge to her death saying "*almost! almost white . . . but I'm black! I'm a Negro!*" (p.116), she can't handle the "*deep shame*" of being black.

Childress' disdain for the stereotype is plain, particularly for the tragic mulatto. Brown-Guillory writes (1990, p.55) that "Mrs. Carter's brother is held up as a white liberal who means well but knows little about what he writes."

Mama, who has gotten caught up in Mrs. Carter's telling of the story, becomes furious when she hears the end and challenges Mrs. Carter: "*MAMA: (carried away by her convictions . . . not anger . . . she feels challenged. She rises.) That ain't so! Not one bit it ain't!*" (p.115)

Mama tries to explain, through example, that mixed race people don't perceive their color as shameful, but Mrs. Carter just cannot understand.

MAMA: (During the following she works her way around the railing until she crosses over about one foot to the "White" side and is face to face with MRS. CARTER.) I know it ain't! Don't my friend Essie Kitredge daughter look just like a German or somethin'? She didn't kill herself! She's teachin' the third grade in the colored school right here. Even the bus drivers ask her to sit in the front seats cause they think she's white! . . . an' . . . an' . . .

she just says as clear as you please . . . "I'm sittin' where my people got to sit by law. I'm a Negro woman!"(p.116).

Crossing the line in this instance suggests Mama's refusal to accept the whites' myths about blacks. According to her perspective Mrs. Carter believes that since whiteness is 'superior ' all blacks must necessarily hate their color and wish to be white. But Mama denies this and gives Mrs. Carter another example:

MAMA: (stands silently trembling as she looks down and notices she is on the wrong side of the railing. She looks up at the "White Ladies Room" sign and slowly works her way back to the "Colored" side.) No such thing! My cousin Hemsly's as white as you! . . . an'. . . an' he never . . . He never once wanted to kill his self! (p.116).

Samuel Hay (1984, p.119) explains the complex situation of the two women in his article "Alice Childress Dramatic Structure." He states" Mrs. Carter gives signs of liberalism, allowing Mama to momentarily overcome her mistrust. Mrs. Carter's underling beliefs prove racist , however, and Mama returns to her original mistrust." Mrs. Carter hesitantly makes the next move; she approaches the rail to apologize to Mama:

Well! Let's not be upset by this. It's entirely my fault you know. This whole thing is a completely controversial subject. (silence) If it's too much for Jeff . . . well naturally I shouldn't discuss it with you. (approaching railing) I'm sorry. Let me apologize (p.116)

Even in her apology , Mrs. Carter proves racist. She indicates that Mama is too simple-minded to understand the issues surrounding the poor review given to her brother's novel. She crosses over to the "Colored" side as she tells Mama "*You know I try but it's really difficult to understand you people. However . . . I keep trying "* (p.117)

Mrs. Carter doesn't perceive herself as racist, when she notes that Mama remains unmoved , she goes back to the white side , and tries to give Mama another sign of her respect and love for Afro-American people. She tells her that she gave a thousand dollars to a black college and boasts: *I know what's going on in your mind . . . and what you're thinking is wrong. I've . . . I've . . . eaten with Negroes .* (p.117) . Eating with Negroes is a strong clue of a claimed equality that Mrs. Carter tries to explain. According to Samuel Hay eating with Negroes is "a biblical reference that serves as a symbol of equality " in addition to the " Southern oligarchy made it so by outlawing breaking bread together"(Hay, 1984, p.121).

Childress uses her protagonist to appeal to the audience as a spokesperson for racial and gender equality . She illustrates how black woman are forced to live in a world that prescribes position or career for them. Childress also levels an indictment against white liberals who claim to be experts about black life , but who are both presumptuous and blind.

Mama is drawn in again , however , when Mrs. Carter asks her about the reason behind her daughter's heading to New York, Mama tells her that " *she's trying to get on stage*" . Again Mrs. Carter shows her underling belief of the inferiority of Afro-American people . She rapidly indicates that black are better suited for entertainment :*You people have such a gift. I love spirituals . . . "Steal Away," "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot."*(p.117), but Mama interrupts her and states that Florence is trying to be an actress in the theatre.

As Mrs. Carter reveals herself to be an actress , Mama is encouraged to ask her to help Florence. She tries to persuade Mama to make Florence give up her dream of becoming an actress. She explains that Florence's efforts and aspirations are futile, especially since she , a white woman, is an actress who cannot find work. This shows that black women more than white suffer from what is called the 'triple jeopardy' of racism, sexism, and classism(Deborah K. King, 1988, p.42).

Knowing that Mama has in mind an acting job ,Mrs. Carter instead offers to contact a director friend of her who will take on Florence as a maid .

MRS. CARTER: (gives her the address) Tell your dear girl to call this number about a week from now.... I'll just tell her . . . no heavy washing or ironing . . . just light cleaning and a little cooking . . . does she cook?(p.119)

Despite her desire to understand and help , Mrs. Carter cannot conceive of a world of racial equality. She hasn't the vision that Mama has , the vision of equal rights and equal opportunities. With this offer Childress proves that Mrs. Carter " represents the persuasiveness and depth of racism which perpetuates black economic enslavement and concomitant notions of Black inferiority"(Will Harris, 1994, p.217).

Mrs. Carter's refusal to engage Mama's request reflects her inability to imagine Florence as anything other than a maid, even after Mama tells her explicitly that her daughter wants to be an actress. When Mrs. Carter crosses over to the " colored" side to give Mama the address of her friend and told her that her daughter will be in a good hand , Mama in her rage , clutches Mrs. Carter's arm as she handed her the paper:

MAMA: (reaches out, clutches MRS. CARTER's wrist almost pulling her off balance) Child!

MRS. CARTER: (frightened) You're hurting my wrist.

MAMA: (looks down, realizes how tight she's clutching her, and releases her wrist) I mustn't hurt you, must I.(p.120)

Mrs. Carter goes scurrying across the line, rubbing her wrist and not fully understanding why Mama has reacted so violently. Soyica Diggs(2007, p.34) argues that " the idea of Florence as an actress transgresses the parameters Mrs. Carter has established for woman like Florence." Within

Mrs. Carter's framing of mind , Florence would have all her need if she had " *her own room and bath, and above all . . . security* " (p.120)

Mama's reaction is to cancel her trip and send Florence amount of money and an encouraging note " keep trying " . Mama knows very well that the odds are stacked against Florence's dream, she has already her share of trouble, her husband was killed for trying to exercise his legal right to vote. Mama therefore decides not to be another discouraging voice in Florence's life. Hay(1984, p.121) argues that Mama " recognizes the truth of her having to make a greater sacrifice if Florence is to be given a fair chance to compete."

The realist framework of the play allows the playwright thoroughly to develop her two protagonists , even in so short play . *Florence* in the apt words of Hay(1984, p.121) "radically altered the African American 'Mama' stereotype." Mrs. Whitney "Mama" in the play, became a prototype for the strong black woman . She grows through the play as she works with a better and more equal future. She urges Afro-American women to encourage their sons and daughters to pursue their goals and fulfill their dreams by any possible means. In her final speech in the play, she tells the porter that:

*[Florence] can be anything in the world she wants to be! That's her right.
MARGE can't make her turn back, Mrs. Carter can't make her turn back.
Lost My Lonely Way! That's a book! People killing theyselves 'cause they
look white but be black. They just don't know do they, Mr. Brown?* (p.120)

Brown-Guillory (1990, p.57) comments " Mama's linking Marge to Mrs. Carter is significant , because both woman believe that Florence does not know her limitations"⁵². Marge from the early beginning pleads with her mother to force Florence to come home because she thinks Florence pursues a career in which typically only white had succeeded. The same idea is entertained by Mrs. Carter who assures Mama that Florence will not success as an actress, and that her efforts are futile. Both women are trying to make Florence give up her dream.

As a dramatist, Childress uses her talent to translate the reality of segregated world outside the theater into realities of segregated world on stage. Diggs states(2007, p.35) " Florence complicates the binary of whiteness and blackness , presenting woman who simultaneously must consider how their class and gender inform their occupations, mobility, and safety."

CONCLUSION

Childress addresses the 1950s' and the 1960s' audience. In these two decades, Afro-Americans challenged cultural differences in the United States of America. In *Florence*, she exposes the cross-cultural trip in a waiting room of a small Southerner railway station . She seems to be working with a symbol within a symbol, i.e., a trip within a trip. The cross- country trip that the women are about to take parallels the cross-cultural trip that they take each time the railing is crossed. These women step in and out of each other's cultures as they try to communicate their limitations. The symbols and symbolic gestures that Childress uses point out that blacks must not

turn over to white liberals the responsibility of nurturing young, black dreamers but must encourage their children to fight and resist to reach their fullest potential in spite of racial biases. Afro-American individuals, not their white counterparts, must struggle against the policies of racism to get their human rights and economic equality. In this play, Childress proves to be deeply feminine and humane. She depicts black women as loving and strong, willful women demanding to be treated equitably. She shifts those on the margin of society to occupy the center of American stage, defining themselves and their concern rather than being defined by inaccurate stereotypes. By doing this she puts the white viewers into a new position; a position which they can observe well, see the facts, and ask about the complexity and difficulty of black women's lives.

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THE EFFECT OF IMPLEMENTING VIRTUAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS ON ADVANCED EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY ACQUISITION IN SPEAKING THROUGH NICENET ICA

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ABSTRACT

Considering the importance of Computer assisted language learning (CALL) in L2 teaching and learning, conducting further research in this area is essential. This study, therefore, was an attempt to investigate the effect of implementing a virtual learning environment (VLE) on vocabulary in speaking improvement among Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. To this end, a well-known VLE called Nicenet was employed to teach vocabulary to an advanced group of Certificate in Advanced English (CAE) learners who were already homogenized through Nelson test. Indeed, the experimental group received vocabulary instruction through Nicenet and in-class teaching, while the control group received just the conventional instruction of vocabulary. The treatment took 40 sessions each held for 90 minutes. Conducting two posttests of vocabulary and speaking (interview) revealed that implementing this VLE had a significant impact on the vocabulary improvement among the learners, though to a lesser extent, speaking skill was enhanced after the treatment. This research finally provides some pedagogical implications as well as further suggestions in the related area. Regarding the effectiveness of Nicenet implementation established through this study, EFL instructors could be advised to resort to this method, should they optimize their teaching output.

KEYWORDS: Virtual Learning Environment, Nicenet, Vocabulary improvement, Speaking Improvement

INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that technology has perfectly received particular attention in language teaching and learning. Indeed, these days the use of technology in teaching languages have remarkable advantages on the development of grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, pronunciation, listening, and speaking skills (Levy, 2009). In this regard, the first example that springs to mind is the Internet. The Internet opens an endless supply of academic sources and teaching material

for EFL teachers who are interested in integrating them into their programs as many supporters recommend them. Among them, Warschauer et al. (2001) stated that authenticity, literacy, interaction, vitality and learners empowerment are the main reasons for using the Internet for English teaching.

In the field of L2, omputer-Assisted Language Learning CALL is often considered as an approach to language teaching and learning in which the computer is used as an aid to the presentation, reinforcement and assessment of material to be learned. Levy (1997) defined CALL as “the search for and study of presentations of the computer in both language teaching and learning” (p. 7). It means that the first application of technology's aid in language learning was viewed in terms of exercises and practices. Moreover, CALL has undergone quite a large number of advancements, among which Virtual Learning Environments (called VLE hereafter) stands out. The most important point about a VLE is that it is a wide system used by a variety of educators to deliver a range of courses, it is not specific to one course or one function (Weller, 2007). In fact, VLEs permit educators to make resources fast and without the need to develop technical skills (Weller, 2007). Some popular commercial VLEs are currently being used around the world include Blackboard, WebCT1, and Nicenet ICA, the latter of which has been chosen for the purposes of the current study. To elaborate more, it should be mentioned that Nicenet is a free internet service that was designed to help teachers and learners to interact. Nicenet is a virtual classroom that both teacher and students can share their learning needs or anything that is not possible through normal class time. The administrator page includes the following features: conferencing, scheduling, document sharing, personal messaging, link sharing. (www.nicenet.org)

On the other hand, Vocabulary knowledge is a critical element in second language (L2) acquisition (Nation, 1982). By learning new words, students can increase their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills and thus can improve comprehension and production in L2 (Frigaard, 2002). A student can increase vocabulary knowledge formally in the classroom and informally through communication with others and through out of class activities. As Celce-Murcia (2002) pointed out, vocabulary learning has been the annoying problem of the second language learners and is fundamental in in first, second, or foreign language acquisition. According to Wallace (1982), the most frustrating experience in speaking another language is the inability to use the words that we need to express ourselves. In fact, learning vocabulary is one of the most challenging learning tasks facing L2 learners. This challenge comes from two important reasons: one reason is that there are a large number of words to be learnt, and the other is that little attention has been paid to the problems of students in this regard (Hill, 1998). However, as Chapelle (1998) stated, teachers need to comprehend how CALL can best be used to offer effective instruction to language learners. In case of Iranian L2 instruction, little has been done about or applied of CALL. As a result, it is considered necessary to familiarize Iranian EFL teachers with the ins and outs of CALL and its various effects on L2 learning. The present study aims at investigating the effect of CALL, specifically in the form of Nicenet, on vocabulary development and speaking as well. one of the difficulties Iranian L2 learners face with is learning how to fluently speak English. The concern heightens when one sees that these people are almost

great at other skills like reading. All this indicates clearly that speaking instruction is in a growing need of getting encouraged through newer methods.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Definition of CALL

Trawling the literature pertaining to CALL reveals that there are a plethora of definitions proposed for it. However, perhaps the most concise, though much noted, definition is the one proposed by Levy (1997), who defined CALL as “the search for and study of applications of the

computer in language teaching” (p. 1). More recently, Egbert (2005) mentioned that by CALL, it means using computers to support language teaching and learning in some way.

Moreover, Davies (2000) believed that CALL gained popularity in the early 1980s and substituted the older CALI (standing for Computer Assisted Language Instruction). This happened simply because CALI was mainly associated with pre-planned learning, i.e. a teacher-centered approach. CALL, however, has broadened its coverage by subsuming the communicative approach along with a number of new technologies. In fact, CALL is now synonymous with interactive and communicative support for all the four skills involved in L2 learning and teaching. There is a strong relationship between CALL and the communicative approach to English learning. This is because CALL incorporates a large number of Information Communication Technologies such as computers, the Internet, Software Learning Programs and multimedia programs to transfer teaching materials.

Virtual Learning Environments

Quite a number of definitions have so far been proposed to configure virtual learning environment (VLE). Another definition for VLE was suggested by Holyoke (2011) who stated that a virtual learning environment (VLE) is a set of teaching and learning instruments which is designed to improve a student's learning experience by including computers and the Internet in the learning process. The main mechanisms of a VLE package include curriculum mapping (breaking curriculum into sections that can be assigned and assessed), student tracking, online support for both teacher and student, electronic communication (such as e-mail, negotiations, chat, Web publishing), and Internet links to outside curriculum resources. Thus, according to this definition, either VLE users are assigned a teacher ID or a student ID. The teacher sees what a student sees, but the teacher has additional privileges to create or modify content and track student performance. According to Dillenbourg (2007), a VLE is a single piece of software which provides an integrated online learning environment, bringing together functions including content delivery, communications accommodations, evaluation, student tracking, and the relations to other systems.

Nicenet

Reviewing the literature relevant to different web tools to run courses under virtual environments reveals that many researchers and academic centers have tried to compare and contrast different aspects of these tools, thereby evaluating their rate of effectiveness. For example, Marshall

University (1999) has offered a chart in which various tools for virtual courses including Blackboard, Convene, Embanet, eCollege, Saratoga Group, Symposium, TopClass, WebCT, Web Course in A Box, and WebMentor. These tools are compared against such criteria as hardware requirements, technical support, student tools, instructor tools software costs, administrative features, and instructional features. The three Online Course Management Systems were used as a supplement to in-class instruction: WebCT, Moodle and Nicenet. Prior to online instruction, the online course tools were described and instructions on how to use the course tool were presented. At regular intervals, the same grammar websites related to the grammar topic covered in class were added. The links contained explanations, exercises, quizzes, and a daily grammar point. Questions that required the use of a particular tense or grammatical structure were sent in the discussion setting of each online course. In addition, the students could do short writing paragraphs on any topic they wished to write about.

Vocabulary and Speaking

The skill of speaking which is commonly defined as the use of oral language is interacting with others directly and immediately could be the most crucial language skill applied in communication (Butler, Eignor, Jones, McNamara & Suomi, 2000). Moreover, Egan (1999) has argued that in second language learning, speaking is the heart of second language learning and is

the most critical skill for business and government personnel working in a especial field. Speaking is essential for the simple reason that it is mostly called upon while communicating. Students who usually speak English well have better opportunities in their lives in terms of the kind of job they find and the following promotions in it, or even continuing their studies (Baker & Westrup, 2003). In spite of what said above, a considerable number of language learners struggle to develop strong EFL English speaking skills, which is mainly attributed to the complexity of the language (Nunan, 1999). The differences between English and the native language also adds to the problem (Ellis, 2008). More importantly, lacking the chance to practice the language frequently and in various contexts can also be another cause (Shumin, 2002). Bearing this in mind, it seems quite urgently needed to conduct further research studies to devise fresher methods which might help elevate students' levels of achievement in EFL learning. Speaking English is quite challenging for EFL learners. Among the most important reasons for weak speaking skills among students is the lack of L2 vocabulary. As a result, it is essential to run more studies in order to find newer and more modern ways to improve vocabulary learning among EFL learners. In the current study, therefore, the attempt was to examine the effect of applying a VLE, which is Nicenet, on vocabulary and speaking improvement.

Previous Studies

Yoshi and Flaitz (2002, as cited in Al-Jarf, 2007) examined the effect of three annotation types (such as text-only, picture-only, and a combination of the two) on second language vocabulary retention in a CALL reading setting. Results showed that the combination group performed better than the text-only and picture-only groups on the immediate tests. Also, there was a significant interaction between the annotation type and students' proficiency level for immediate and the delayed tests. Moreover, Akbulut (2007) investigated immediate and delayed effects of different glossaries provided on the net on Turkish students' vocabulary improvement. The results

suggested that students who have an access to word definitions with pictures and short video clips got significantly better vocabulary scores than those assigned to the definition only groups. In a study conducted on some Korean students, Kim and Gilman (2008) found that information provided with visual text and supplementary graphics, or with visual text supplemented by spoken text and graphics could best facilitate students' vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, teaching new words in context, combining vocabulary with reading and writing practices, and providing the students with some information about the new words increased vocabulary acquisition. Finally, Integration of different forms of technology such as CALL software, online lessons, multimedia contexts, interactive materials, online dictionaries and e-books contributed to higher vocabulary learning.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Considering these points, the following research questions were addressed:

Q₁. Does implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA have any significant effect on advanced EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition?

Q₂. Does implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA have any significant effect on advanced EFL learners' speaking enhancement?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The sample in this study primarily consisted of 70 female advanced EFL learners at Safir English Language Institute in Tehran. The age range was between 22 to 36 years. In the current study, the researcher gained permission to choose from all the female advanced learners studying in Safir. However, since the researcher had access only to the advanced learners attending Safir Language institute, the sampling method of this study can be said to be convenience sampling. During this course, a coursebook titled "CAE Result" written by Gude and Stephen (2008) is taught. This course was held during 40 sessions of a three-month semester. Prior to administrating the main test, a proficiency test was conducted to meet the homogeneity consideration of the study. The participants, then, were randomly divided into two groups of 30, namely experimental and control. In addition, another group of the participants, including 20 EFL students from the same institute with the same characteristic of the main participants were chosen randomly in the pilot phase.

Instruments

Proficiency Test

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, a Nelson test was administered. There are two parts in the original exam: vocabulary, and reading comprehension. The vocabulary section has 80 multiple choice questions, and test takers will choose from five possible answers on each one. For the reading comprehension section, the test taker reads five brief passages taken from college textbooks, and then answers 38 multiple choice questions testing both direct comprehension skills, and the ability to make inferences based on what they've read. The entire test takes about 45 minutes. However, due to some limitations concerning managerial considerations in the

institute where this test was conducted, the test was shortened into 40 vocabulary questions and three reading passages. Accordingly, the time allowed for the test was also reduced, for the sake of reliability concerns.

Vocabulary Test as a Pretst and Posttest

The a researcher-made vocabulary test was another instruments which was administered twice. The first time was at the beginning of the semester to make sure that the participants did not significantly know the words to be presented during the treatment and training, thus creating a vocabulary test for the posttest phase. The second time was at the end of the treatment to compare the amount of vocabulary learning between experimental and control groups. It should also be added that the pretest and posttest of the vocabulary were identical, meaning no change was applied in them.

This was because no single, specific test could be found in which all the vocabulary words taught have been brought. Moreover, the words which were used in the questions came from a longer list of the words which taken from CAE Results written by Gude and Stephen (2008). Prior to designing the test, however, the mentioned list was given to four CAE teachers who were asked to choose 40 words as "the most common words" occurring at that level. These teachers also were already briefed about the objectives of the study. To assure the content validity, the complied vocabulary test was checked and revised by two TEFL professors. However, to further add to the validity, a criterion-validity correlation was considered in which the vocabulary test was correlated with the Nelson test as one of the most valid tests. The results indicated that both have roughly significant power to predict learners' vocabulary performance, indicating high validity of the vocabulary test. In addition, through Cronbach's Alpha method, the reliability was .71, which is statistically significant indicating high reliability of the vocabulary test.

Interview

Another instrument applied in the present study was an interview which was conducted twice. The first time was at the beginning of the semester to gauge the current level of the participants' speaking skill (speaking pretest) and the second time was at the end of the semester to evaluate the extent to which the treatment (experimental group) and training (control group) had been effective. Furthermore, to ensure the objectivity of the scorings, each interview was attended by three raters who were already briefed about the premises and purposes of the study.

Procedure

As the first phase of this study, a pilot test was conducted through which the reliability of the test was assured. In the pilot test, 20 learners whose proficiency level was the same as them were asked to take the test. Having collected the data obtained, Cronbach's alpha formula was employed to calculate the reliability which turned out to be .71. Then, 70 participants were randomly chosen and, after excluding 10 subjects through homogeneity test and vocabulary pretest, 60 of them were found to be homogenous based on Nelson test as the proficiency test in which vocabulary and reading skill were tapped. Then they were divided into experimental and control groups. As the next phase, a vocabulary pretest was conducted in both groups to gauge their current knowledge and make sure that they had not considerably known the words. After

that, an interview pretest was conducted to evaluate the current level of participants' speaking. In so doing, three raters who were already instructed about the premises and purposes of this study were asked to attend the interview sessions. More specifically, they were asked to concentrate their attention on the lexical resources, by which it means they were supposed to primarily assess the interviewee's vocabulary skill. The next stage was vocabulary instruction acting as the treatment, with the experimental group receiving it via Nicenet, while the control group received conventional teaching, by which it is mainly meant in-class teaching of vocabulary including dictionary checking for new words. In fact, the learners, whenever meeting an unknown word, were asked to check it in their dictionaries, hereafter writing the definition, an example by them themselves, along with the pronunciation of it.

In the experimental group, on the other side, the words were sent three times a week to the participants. Moreover, a classroom check was done by the teacher to ensure their grasp of the new words. The whole process was initiated by the teacher visiting nicenet.org and selecting the "create a course" option. The first thing students need in order to join Nicenet is "class key" which the teacher supplies to the students. They were asked to enter the unique code for the course to create a username and a password. Once teacher's course was created and all participants joined, the teacher began the process of adding a wide range of vocabulary in Conferencing section. The teacher posted the vocabulary related to the specific topics three times a week during the experiment for students, approximately 10 words every session. It is worth mentioning that the course took 40 sessions held in three months. Once the course was finished, a vocabulary posttest as well as an interview posttest were run in both groups, thereafter comparing the obtained results to figure out any possible, statistically significant difference between them. Considering the interview posttest, it should be mentioned that the same three raters as in the interview pretest were asked to attend it.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The descriptive statistics of the participants' pre-test and post-test scores in control and experimental groups are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum and Maximum Scores

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental (Speaking)	Pre-test	30	1	17	6.80	3.49
	Post-test	30	5	18	13.27	3.25
Experimental (Vocabulary)	Pre-test	30	0	27	12.47	5.42
	Post-test	30	0	38	30.70	7.65
Control (Speaking)	Pre-test	30	2	18	7.10	3.43
	Post-test	30	4	18	9.03	3.62
Control (Vocabulary)	Pre-test	30	0	29	11.73	5.57
	Post-test	30	0	38	21.93	8.49

According to the Table 1, the mean score of the experimental group's pre-test is 6.80 in speaking enhancement and 12.47 in vocabulary, which changed to 13.27 in the post-test in speaking enhancement and 30.70 in the post-test in vocabulary. On the other hand, the mean score of the control group's pre-test is 7.10 in speaking enhancement and 11.73 in vocabulary, which changed to 9.03 in the post-test in speaking enhancement and 21.93 in the post-test in vocabulary.

The distribution of scores for dependent variables should be normal for each value of the independent variable. To check this assumption the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was utilized. Moreover, to check the homogeneity of variances, Levene's statistic was used. Levene's statistic tests the assumption that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. Also, the homogeneity of effects interaction was examined through the interaction of pre-test and groups by using variance analysis test. After checking assumption, and due to observance of homogeneity assumption for regression slopes in research variables, which is one of the basic assumptions of the analysis of covariance, in examining these variables the ANCOVA test was utilized.

Checking the First Research Hypothesis

With regard to the first research hypothesis, which stated that implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA has no significant effect on advanced EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition, the descriptive statistics showed that there was a difference between control group and experimental group in vocabulary acquisition. In order to assess whether this difference was meaningful or not, the ANCOVA analysis was utilized. The results of this analysis is presented in the Table 2.

Table 2: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta	Observed Powerb
Corrected Model	4201.454a	2	2100.727	161.916	.000	.850		1.000
Intercept	1068.84	1	1068.84	82.38	.000	.59		.99
Pre-test	3048.64	1	3048.64	234.98	.000	.81		.99
Group	908.21	1	908.21	70.00	.000	.55		.99
Error	739.53	57	12.97					
Total	46495	60						
Corrected Total	4940.98	59						

Based on the results, it can be concluded that there was a meaningful difference between the two groups ($F=70.00$, $p<0.05$). In other words, it can be stated that the treatment had a significant impact on the experimental groups. Furthermore, the results indicated that implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA was able to determine %55 of changes in recognizing vocabulary. The value power of test ($1-\beta = .99$) shows that ANCOVA analysis was able to reject the null hypothesis with significant power. To locate the difference an LSD post hoc was run.

Table 3: Pairwise Comparisons: LSD post hoc on vocabulary achievement scores

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Exerimental	-7.799*	.932	.000	-9.666	-5.932
Exerimental	Control	7.799*	.932	.000	5.932	9.666

The results indicates that when the scores are adjusted to control pretest differences (adjusted MD = 7.799, SE = .932, $p=.000<.01$, 95% CI [5.932, 9.666]), the experimental group outperformed the control group.

Checking the Second Research Hypothesis

With regard to the second research hypothesis, which stated that implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA has no significant effect on advanced EFL learners' speaking enhancement, the descriptive statistics showed that there was a difference between control group and experimental group in speaking enhancement. In order to assess whether this difference was meaningful or not, the ANCOVA analysis was utilized. The results of this analysis is presented in the Table 4.

Table 4: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta Squared	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	865.922a	2	432.961	275.038	.000	.906		1.000
Intercept	256.04	1	256.04	162.65	.000	.740		.99
Pre-test	597.11	1	597.11	379.31	.000	.869		.99
Group	304.74	1	304.74	193.59	.000	.773		.99
Error	89.73	57	1.57					
Total	8415.00	60						
Corrected Total	955.65	59						

Based on the results, it can be concluded that there was a meaningful difference between the two groups ($F=193.59$, $p<0.05$). In other words, it can be stated that the treatment had a significant impact on the experimental groups. Furthermore, the results indicated that implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA was able to determine %77 of changes in speaking. The value power of test ($1-\beta = .99$) shows that ANCOVA analysis was able to reject wrong null hypothesis with relatively significant power.

Calculation of Effect Size with Glass Method (in Vocabulary)

The effect size was calculated by dividing the difference between two mean scores (in the pre-test and post-test) of the control group and the Experimental group on the standard deviation of the control group.

The mean of Experimental - the mean of control group = 7.8

The standard deviation of the control group = 8.49

$$ES = \frac{7.8}{8.49} = .92$$

The effect size was 0.92. This shows the impact of treatment on EFL advanced learners' acquisition of vocabulary. Based on the glass method Table, the variation range of scores was large.

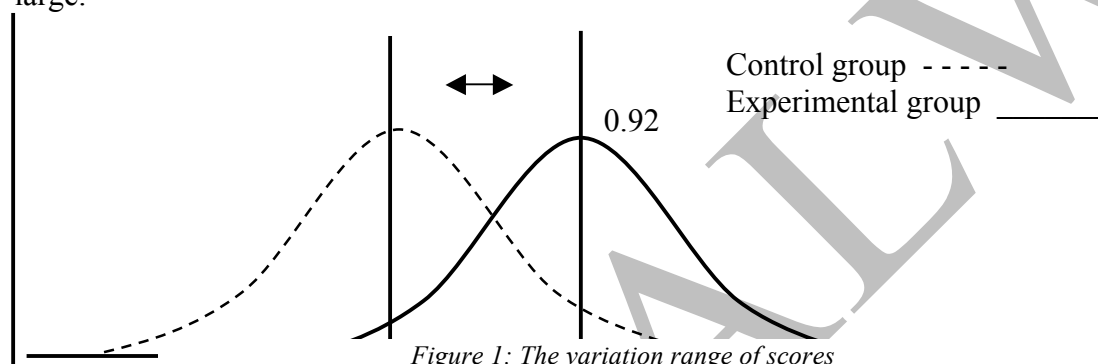


Figure 1: The variation range of scores

Figure 1 shows the distribution of the subjects' scores in the experimental and the control group. The difference between the Experimental and the control group is 0.92 of the standard deviation. This means implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA has significant effect on EFL advanced learners' acquisition of vocabulary.

Calculation of Effect Size with Glass Method (in speaking enhancement)

The effect size was calculated by dividing the difference between two mean scores (in the pre-test and post-test) of the control group and the Experimental group on the standard deviation of the control group.

The mean of Experimental - the mean of control group = 4.51

The standard deviation of the control group = 3.62

$$ES = \frac{4.51}{3.62} = 1.25$$

The effect size was 1.25. This shows the impact of treatment on EFL advanced learners' speaking enhancement. Based on the glass method Table, the variation range of scores was very large.

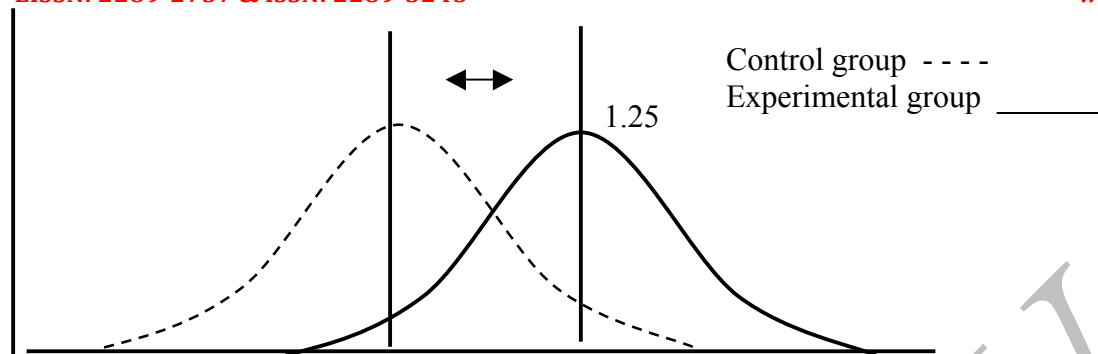


Figure 2: The variation range of scores

Figure 2 shows the distribution of the subjects' scores in the experimental and the control group. The difference between the Experimental and the control group is 1.25 of the standard deviation. This means implementing virtual learning environment through Nicenet ICA has significant effect on EFL advanced learners' speaking enhancement.

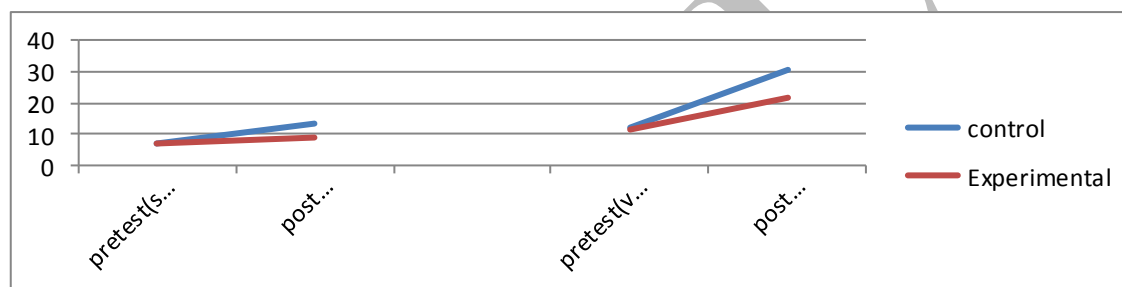


Figure 3: Line Chart of the experimental and control groups' mean score in pre-test, post-test

Figure 3 indicates that experimental group in vocabulary and speaking performed better in comparison to the control group.

Findings

Having amassed the results of the research, the following findings were obtained. In the first place, comparing the results of vocabulary posttests between the experimental and vocabulary group clearly indicated that applying Nicenet as a virtual learning environment can have a significant effect on improving vocabulary learning among Iranian EFL learners. Another seminal, more recent, study the findings of which is in harmony with the ones in this study is Tozcu and Coady's (2004). They investigated the effect of direct vocabulary learning through CALL on vocabulary knowledge. They found that students who used CALL to learn high frequency words mastered a much larger number of words than those in a control group. A word of caution, however, should be made here. The other method of vocabulary instruction applied in this study i.e. in-class instruction, was also found relatively effective, but it is no stain on the effectiveness of virtual teaching of vocabulary via Nicenet whatsoever. In the second place, analyzing the results related to speaking improvement in the experimental and control group showed that this method of vocabulary instruction can have an almost significant effect on EFL

speaking skill. It should be admitted; however, that applying Nicenet as a virtual learning environment appears to be more effective on vocabulary learning than on speaking.

CONCLUSION

Applications and Implications

Nowadays, it is generally acknowledged that classroom teachers are often held accountable for utilizing more novel methods to enhance the quality of their instruction delivery. Such being the case, incorporating the findings of the latest research, including the present study, seems highly warranted. Broadly, the results indicated that L2 vocabulary knowledge of the learners in the experimental group was significantly enhanced compared to those in the control group. This indicates that technology in general and VLE in particular had some positive impacts on the participants' vocabulary and thus speaking. Considering this, implementing VLE's in educational

settings undoubtedly deserves more attention. Moreover, regarding the effectiveness of Nicenet implementation established through this study, EFL instructors could be advised to resort to this method, should they optimize their teaching output. More specifically, if vocabulary and speaking as a critical component of EFL learning are to be developed, VLE's should be vigorously introduced into EFL teachers' curriculum. In addition to this, material developers can consider VLE intervention while producing EFL lessons germane to vocabulary and speaking instruction. Here, the inclusion of some tasks and exercises to be done virtually can be deemed appropriate. In addition, the findings of the present study have a number of implications for managers involved in educational programs in which a VLE is applied. As the use of VLE's increases throughout the educational institutes, it is of critical importance to teach students how to best use these systems. Furthermore, much emphasis should be put by the managers on how crucial it is to them to see the students engaged in virtual learning. This will give rise to a sense of excitement and responsibility among other staff to take this requirement into more serious account.

Suggestions for Further Research

The participants of this study were advanced learners; replications should be made with participants of other groups and proficiency levels to examine the effect of VLE's in those situations. The same basic design could also be employed for learners of other languages. In the same vein, the effect of implementing VLE's can be gauged within other EFL skills as well as subskills like grammar, speaking and so forth. In addition, future studies should investigate affective or emotional factors, which were not treated in the present study. Further research should consider including additional independent variables in order to examine their contribution to vocabulary instruction. Additionally, the effect of L2 instruction via VLE's in ESP/EAP fields can be quite an area of interest. As the next point, the paradigm of this study should also be exercised with other sample populations of different cultural backgrounds.

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