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This journal seeks to meet the needs of the scholars who wish to publish in a journal in accordance to the National Master Plan for Science and Education in the country. It will sever potential publishers in the field of English language and related sub-divisions. Thus, the aims of this journal include the followings:

- Encouraging and upholding expert and academic research in major fields of English language teaching, literature, translation and linguistics
- Creating a suitable space and set-up for sharing innovative methods and practices in English classroom
- Providing a vehicle for expressing classroom practice in all its aspects, classroom-based research in English language and methodological questions in teaching and research in English language
- Creating a platform for an interaction between Iranian culture and English language
- Promoting comparative studies between Iranian literature and English literature
- Encouraging studies which present a high level of novelty and research in teaching English, literature, linguistics and major related fields of English language

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Editor's Note:

We are very pleased to present the first volume, first number of *Journal of English Language Research* to our readers. This edition includes seven academic papers.

The first paper written by *Hamideh Gharouni, Mona Tabatabaee-Yazdi and Hamid Reza Kargozari* discusses the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' preference of continuing professional development strategies and their level of burnout. The second paper investigates verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence as predictors of vocabulary knowledge, written by *Zohreh Nahavandi, Mona Tabatabaee-Yazdi, and Aynaz Samir*. The third paper is an investigation of a constructive tool for enhancing learners' self-esteem: peer-scaffolded assessment by *Sajjad Fathi*. Translation transcending cross-linguistic, intertextuality, and beyond equivalences: figurative mind is the fourth paper written by *Mohsen Adel and Mina Mohammadi*. Promoting intercultural competence and speaking ability through developing language learning materials by *Solmaz Esalati and Hossein Rahmanpanah* is the fifth paper. The sixth paper is a literary paper entitled "Postmodern Historiography in Graham Swift's *Waterland*" written by *Fariba NoorBakhsh*. Finally, the seventh paper on electronic portfolios: a review and evaluation of an alternative method of assessment is written by *Samaneh Karami*.

Undoubtedly, the publication of this edition would not have been possible without the contribution of the scholars and researchers who entrusted their academic works to us and also our committed reviewers who devoted their precious time and knowledge to examine and review the manuscripts we received. We thank them and the team of the journal who contributed to the publication of this volume.

Editor-in-Chief

Parvin Ghasemi

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On the Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Preference of Continuing Professional Development Strategies and Their Level of Burnout

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ABSTRACT

Throughout the past decade, assessing and reducing teachers' burnout has become a significant concern in educational settings to promote teachers' accountability and, in turn, students' success. In view of that, this study aimed to investigate significant connections between teachers' practices and preferences of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) strategies and their burnout. To this aim, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) questionnaires were distributed among 209 EFL Iranian English school teachers. Data were collected by sharing the questionnaire google form's link in Telegram, and WhatsApp. The results revealed that there was a negative significant relationship between overall CPD and overall burnout. Moreover, reflecting construct was shown to have the highest negative relationship with overall burnout, though updating construct was proved to be not a significant predicting power of burnout. Thus, it can be concluded that EFL teachers' practices and preferences of CPD programs can significantly reduce their burnout.

Keywords: burnout, collaborating, continuing professional development, decision making, EFL teachers, reflecting, updating

Introduction

Human beings, regardless of their jobs, seem to experience different types of stressors during their lives. Within today's working professions, occupational stress has been reported as being a considerable problem. Stress in occupation, when experienced in the long term, can lead to a state of 'burnout' which has been used to describe a fundamental disconnect between the employees and the workplaces for several decades (Leiter, & Maslach, 2004). In some studies, (Heinemann & Heinemann, 2017;

Maslach & Leiter, 2016) the burnout syndrome is identified as a result of ongoing stress. Any professional can be a candidate for burnout if they do not know how to avoid and manage daily stressors. Moreover, good, qualified and energetic teachers play a central role in society and their students' lives. The value of teaching and the learners' academic achievement are highly dependent on teachers' performance in the class. Among all educational resources, teachers are considered to be fundamental contributors in enhancing the learning process and also to students' learning in making them able to

obtain higher levels of knowledge and skill to succeed as future citizens and workers. Burnout can negatively influence teachers' job and decrease the quality of their classes which leads to extensive mental pressure, fatigue, anxiety, and stress, which in turn influences learners' achievement and motivation (Klusmann, et al., 2008).

On the other hand, in recent years, teacher CPD plays a crucial role in teacher education (D'oye, 1990) due to the fact that both individuals and societies pay too much attention and give importance to education. Therefore, since teachers find themselves responsible for the achievement and efficient performance of students, they mainly face new learning needs to make improvement in their professional development (Fullan, 2000; 2001). Day (1999, as cited in Evans, 2002) describes teacher CPD as the process by which teachers acquire skills, develop their knowledge, and try to renew, review and extend their commitment as teachers alone or with others throughout their teaching lives. Moreover, for the purpose of meeting the expectations and needs of the society, professional development of teachers is considered as a keystone by educational researchers (Borko, 2004; Dede, et al., 2009; Desimone, et al., 2006).

Burnout is an important factor debated widely in the educational settings, and known as a serious problem that may affect teachers and students as well; and CPD is considered as one of the main direct ways to advance knowledge and skills and to gain motivation in teaching (Tabatabaee Yazdi, et al., 2017); the researchers found it an interesting point to concentrate on this problem and the probable relationship which might exist between the level of teachers' burnout and their participation in CPD programs that aimed to improve their knowledge, efficiency, and motivation during their career life. Therefore,

the following research questions were proposed to be addressed in this study:

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' preference of CPD strategies and their level of burnout?

Q2: Which construct of teachers' preference of CPD strategies is the most correlated one to the teachers' level of burnout?

Literature Review

Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Continuous or Continuing Professional Development (CPD) clearly has been identified as the process of continuing the growth of a profession after joining it. Mafakheri (2016, p.45) defines CPD as "a process whereby teachers try to develop their personal and professional qualities, skills, and to improve their knowledge, qualifications, and practice, leading to their empowerment, the improvement of their authority and the development of their organizations and their pupils." Thus, professional development is necessary to develop teachers' knowledge. It would assist teachers to be improved in their career and profession by providing learning opportunities to explore novel teaching styles and to share their experiences with other colleagues on different topics.

The CPD programs that teachers take can be categorized into four subcategories of updating knowledge and skills, reflecting on experiences, cooperating with coworkers, and making decision (Tabatabaee Yazdi, et al., 2017; Timperley, et al., 2008). By updating activities teachers advance their practical knowledge individually (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Van Driel, et al., 2001). Accordingly, reflection can be supported by updating, because sufficient and efficient theoretical knowledge is a necessary

condition for meaningful reflection (Van de Ven, 2009; Verloop, 2001). Moreover, according to Cheetham & Chivers (2001), updating activities offer the basic general knowledge and theory for reflection and collaboration. In view of that, reflection which is a specialized form of thinking is used to handle problems or situations (Dewey, 1933). Reflection is considered as an important professional activity (Eraut, 1994; Schön, 1983), and it is one of the basic and most significant component to CPD (Cheetham & Chivers, 2001). It aids teachers to gain control over their daily routines and make necessary changes (Schön, 1983).

In addition, collaborative activities with colleagues inside and outside the school is a highly effective and influential form of CPD (Bakkenes, et al., 2010; Cordingley, et al., 2005). It supports teachers by decreasing occupational stress and improving teachers' confidence (Cheetham & Chivers, 2001), by giving feedback and new ideas (Kwakman, 2003); by providing teachers with greater motivation and enthusiasm, and by providing a model for shaping the learning situations that can both directly and indirectly affect the performance of the classes positively (OECD, 2009; Westheimer, 2008). All of these could be enhanced by activities such as discussing teaching problems, exchanging instructional materials, like team teaching and joint preparation of educational materials.

Finally, research in the field of teacher decision making has shown that inexperienced teachers make different decisions from the more experienced ones (Breen, et al., 2001; Nunan, 1992). Thus, according to Farrell, (2008), McKay, (2005), Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis (2013), the contribution of teachers in making decisions on teachers and teaching matters plays a vital role in teachers' success and reducing burnout.

Burnout

According to Pines and Aronson (1981, p.9), "burnout is a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding". In view of that, Maslach (1982), one of the pioneers in the study of teacher burnout, defined burnout as a syndrome encompassing three factors: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, (c) reduced personal accomplishment.

Emotional exhaustion which is the core sign of burnout syndrome (Shirom, 2003), refers to individuals' feelings of emotionally exhaustion caused by their occupations. The second factor, depersonalization, is an uncaring viewpoint towards the work generally and the people working with, particularly. Lastly, personal accomplishment refers to the personal satisfaction resulting from self-esteem that is related to burnout not positively. Therefore, reduced personal accomplishment indicates the decrease of individuals' competence, achievement, and accomplishment in their jobs (Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2009).

Many studies revealed that workplace setting was the most significant factor associated with burnout (Sinclair, et al., 2015), but recently numerous studies have claimed that psychological variables are also very operative in increasing burnout (Canadasde la Fuente, et al., 2015). Accordingly, Maslach & Leiter (1997, as cited in Esmaili, 2017) thought that key aspects of burnout were value conflict, work overload, absence of control, equality, and reward. Besides, burnout syndrome affects the employees, their colleagues, and the quality of their work by its negative consequences (Deery, et al., 2011).

Methodology

Participants

The total number of 209 Iranian EFL teachers from both genders (41.6% Male and 58.4% Female, Mean=1.58, SD= .49) with different age groups (below 20 to above 40 years old, Mean= 32.80, SD= 7.48) were invited to voluntarily participate in this study. They were asked to answer the questions of the questionnaires which were sent to them via Social Networks such as in Telegram and WhatsApp. They were Bachelors, Masters or Ph.D. from different fields of study of the English language (Teaching, Translation, and English literature). Their first language was Farsi and they were all citizens of Iran.

Instrumentation

The Maslach Burnout Inventory Questionnaire

The 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson 1981, 1986) was applied to assess teachers' burnout. The inventory consisted of three factors of emotional exhaustion (EE), desensitization (D), and personal accomplishment (PA) on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 0 to 6 (0 = Never; 1 = A few times a year or less; 2 = Once a month or less; 3 = A few times a month; 4 = Once a week; to 5 = A few times a week; and 6 = Every day). The internal reliability of the questionnaire was reported by Maslach & Jackson (1986) as highly acceptable (EE [$\alpha = .90$], DP [$\alpha = .79$], and PA [$\alpha = .71$]). Moreover, the burnout reliability in this study was shown to be .87 using Cronbach alpha.

Continuing Professional Development (CPD) Questionnaire

To gather data regarding CPD, a questionnaire designed and validated by Tabatabaee-Yazdi et al., (2017) was used. The 20-item CPD questionnaire assessed

teachers' opinions about various programs and the extent to which they can effect on teachers' teaching practices, on the Four-Likert scale, from (No Impact = 0) to (A Large Impact =4), evaluate reflecting, updating, decision making, and collaborating strategies. The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be 0.9 using Cronbach alpha.

Results

Before addressing the main research questions, preliminary analyses were performed to ensure that the data met the necessary assumptions of Normality, Linearity, and Homoscedasticity. None of the assumptions were shown to be violated. Table 1 shows the Cronbach alpha values for the man variables of the study and their sub-constructs.

To find the correlation between EFL teachers' preference of CPD programs and their burnout, the Pearson-moment correlation was used. The results (Table 2) displayed that there was a negative significant correlation between overall CPD and overall burnout ($r = -.29, p < .05$). Results also specified that among the three sub-constructs of burnout, reduced personal accomplishment had the highest negative relationship ($r = -.31, p < .05$) and depersonalization had the lowest negative relationship ($r = -.13, p < .05$) with overall continuing professional development strategies. Moreover, among the four sub-constructs of continuing professional development strategies, reflecting had the highest negative relationship ($r = -.32, p < .05$) and updating had the lowest negative relationship ($r = -.23, p < .05$) with overall burnout. Therefore, the findings revealed that the signs of burnout among teachers can be reduced by keeping teachers updated, reflective and collaborative.

Furthermore, to find out the most correlated

Table 1
Cronbach Alpha Indexes

Scale	Subscales	Items	Cronbach alpha
Burnout	Emotional Exhaustion	1,4,9,10,15,16,18,20,22	.86
	Depersonalization	2,5,8,11,14	.68
	Reduced Personal Accomplishment	3,6,7,12,13,17,19,21	.73
	Overall Burnout		.87
CPD	Reflecting	8, 10, 11	.75
	Collaborating	4,6,7,14,15,17,20	.81
	Updating	1,2,3,5,9,18,19	.81
	Decision Making	12, 13, 16	.74
	Overall CPD		.92

Table 2
Results of Pearson Correlation between Overall Continuing Professional Development Strategies and Overall Burnout

		Burnout
CPD	Pearson Correlation	-.290
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	209

construct of CPD with the teachers' level of burnout, SEM was employed using AMOS software. Figure 1 shows the proposed model of the interrelationship among variables.

As the proposed model shows, it was hypothesized that all four sub-constructs of CPD strategies are predictors of teacher burnout. To check the structural associations, the proposed model was examined using the AMOS. As indicated in Figure 2, among four sub-constructs of continuing professional development strategies, three sub-constructs were negative significant predictors of burnout: Reflecting (B=-.40, p<.05), Decision making (B=-.18, p<.05), and collaborating (B=-.15, p<.05). However, the

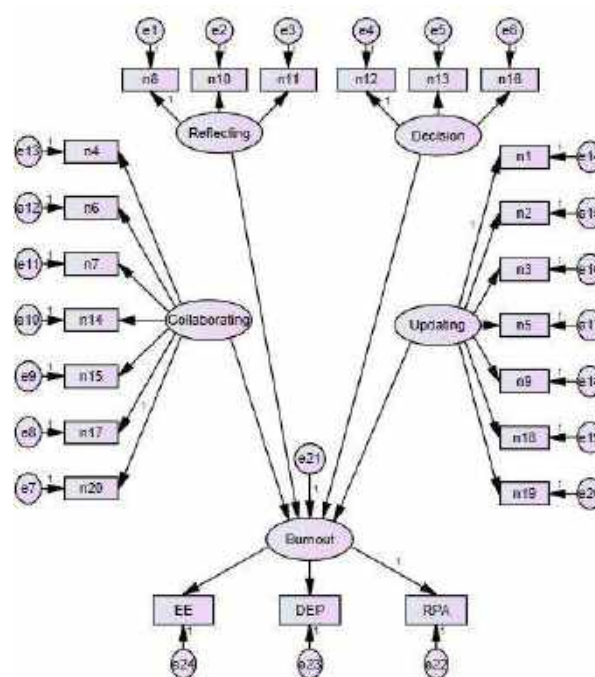


Figure 1. The Proposed Model of Interrelationship among Variables

results of SEM revealed that burnout was not significantly predicted by updating (B=-.05, p=.11).

Moreover, according to the fit indices (Table 3), the goodness of fit indices is not within the acceptable range. According to Schreiber et al. (2006) the chi-square magnitude should not be significant, Chi-square/df ratio should be smaller than 2 or 3, the NFI, GFI, and CFI should be larger than

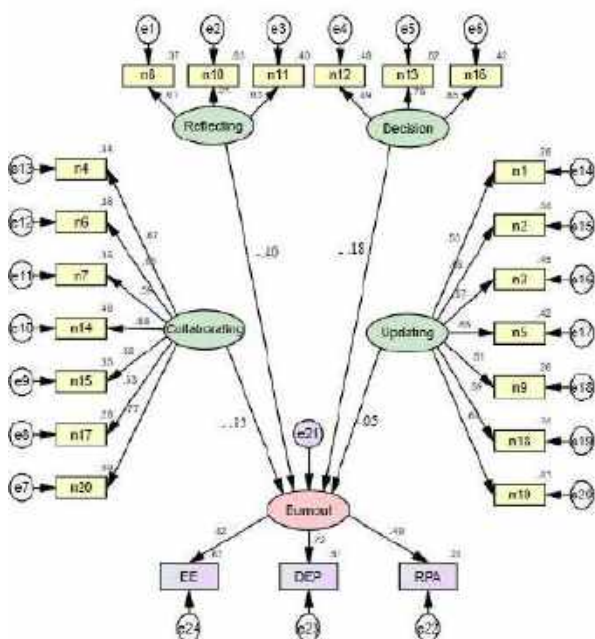


Figure 2. The Model of the Interrelationships among Teachers' Continuing Professional Development Strategies and Burnout before Modification

.90, and the RMSEA should be about .06 or .07. Therefore, it can be concluded that the suggested model needed modification. These modifications included the removal of one non-significance path from updating to burnout ($B=.05, p>.05$).

The goodness of fit indices after modification demonstrated that the chi-square/df ratio (2.98), GFI (.91), CFI (.92), NFI (.91) and RMSEA (.076) are within the acceptable fit thresholds. Figure 3 shows the model of the interrelationships among variables after modification.

Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the correlation between different components of Continuing Professional Development (CPD), and Iranian EFL teachers' burnout. The findings illustrated that there was a negative correlation between teachers' preferences of CPD and their burnout, which is in line with the study of Özer & Beycioglu

(2010) that showed a significant negative correlation between CPD and teachers' burnout in Turkey. Accordingly, Tabatabaee-Yazdi et al. (2017) revealed that teachers' burnout had a negative correlation with their self-efficacy and a positive relationship with their age.

Moreover, Kulavuz-Önala & Tatarb (2017) explored burnout and CPD among Turkish EFL teachers at university level. Findings suggest that private university teachers felt more success than state university teachers, and teachers' personal accomplishment was positively related to their attendance in CPD activities which is in line with the results of this study. Similarly, Mafakeri (2016) reported a negative relationship between English Language Teachers' Lifelong Learning Competence and their beliefs on CPD, mainly because of dissatisfaction with school facilities, working conditions, administrative procedures, teachers' workload, current instruction, availability of time and methodology. In this regard, Mohammadi & Moradi (2017) investigated Iranian EFL Teachers' Perceptions of CPD by establishing CPD workshops to train teachers in order to apply CPD in their careers. It was found that workshops had a great influence on the performance of teachers. Moreover, the findings indicated that Iranian EFL teachers held positive attitudes toward participating in CPD programs.

The results of the current study also illustrated that there was a negative correlation between teachers' burnout and reflection. In view of that, a survey which was done by Shirazizadeh & Moradkhani (2018) about minimizing burnout through reflection showed that reflection has a negative correlation with burnout, meaning that reflective practice is connected with less sense of burnout which is in line with the results of this study.

Table 3
 Goodness of Fit Indices for Model before Modification

	X2/df	GFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
Acceptable fit	<3	>.90	>.90	>.90	<.08
Model before Modification	3.02	.89	.90	.91	.079

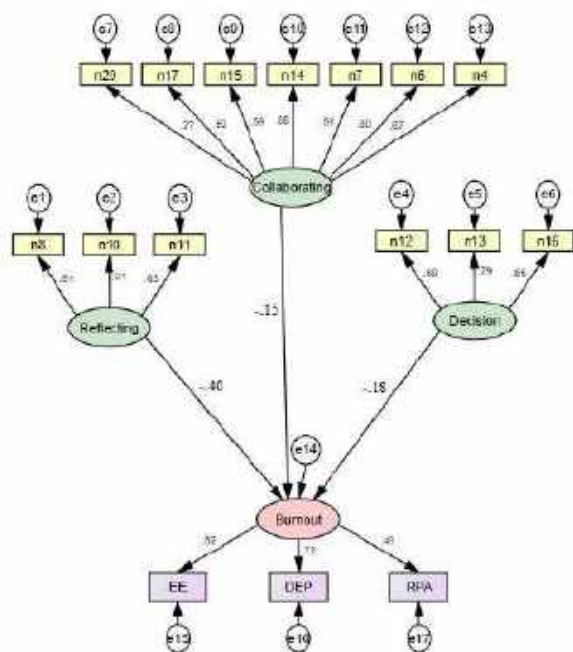


Figure 3. The Model of the Interrelationships among Variables after Modification

Besides, the results illustrated a negative relationship between teachers’ burnout and updating and collaboration. In line with this finding and according to the study of Smith & Ingersoll (2004), the novice teachers who were supported by mentors and who participated in CPD programs like planning and collaboration were less likely to leave their jobs after their first year of teaching, which is in line with the results of this study.

The results also disclosed that there is a negative relationship between teachers’ burnout and decision-making construct therefore, contribution of teachers in decisions eliminates their sense of burnout.

This is in line with Farrell (2008), McKay (2005), Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis (2013). Moreover, according to Kamali & Esfandiari (2016), autonomous teachers may be more inspired when they can select their teaching materials.

Conclusion

The study’s finding showed that there was a negative significant relationship between overall CPD and overall burnout. Among the three sub-constructs of burnout, reduced personal accomplishment has the highest negative relationship and depersonalization has the lowest negative relationship with overall CPD. Furthermore, among the four sub-constructs of CPD, reflecting has the highest negative relationship and updating has the lowest negative relationship with overall burnout. Thus, the results of this study indicated that attending CPD programs can reduce teachers’ level of burnout.

Accordingly, the study’s findings showed that keeping teachers updated, reflective and encouraging them to collaborate with their colleagues can result in reducing the signs of burnout in teachers. The result indicated that for planning CPD programs, policymakers and stakeholders should care about the needs of the teachers which means they must be aware of the necessary components for creating effective professional development practices. What is more, teachers should be supported to be better decision-makers in the

field as well as being respected by authorities for their ideas and decisions.

The findings of the study on teacher burnout would be efficient in many parts like teacher training. Teachers need to be aware of the signs of this syndrome and how to cope with it. Thus, relevant precautions should be taken to avoid and prevent this syndrome by encouraging and supporting teachers to participate in training programs not only to ensure the best learning outcomes for their students but also to be more successful and satisfied in various aspects of their work. Future research could validate the instruments within University settings and other contexts to generalize the findings or to find the differences. Moreover, future studies will be needed to evaluate how teachers' CPD programs may act as a predictive power on students' success.

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Verbal and Non-Verbal Fluid Intelligence as Predictors of Vocabulary Knowledge

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ABSTRACT

Vocabulary development seems to be the most significant and useful activity in any language class because learning the words of a language is undeniably an important part of a speaker's command of that language. Therefore, teaching vocabulary is an essential component of standards-based curriculum alignment. In view of that, this study aimed to find out whether there is a significant relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge and their verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence. To this aim, 201 English language intermediate students were asked to fill out three questionnaires including Vocabulary Level Test, Visual-Spatial Reasoning Test as a non-verbal fluid intelligence test, and the Persian adaptation of Baddeley's 3-minute grammatical reasoning test as a verbal fluid intelligence test. The results of the study's hypothesized model showed that vocabulary knowledge is predicted by both verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence significantly, and non-verbal fluid intelligence is shown to be the stronger predictor of vocabulary knowledge than verbal fluid intelligence. Moreover, the results indicated that there is a significant difference in the level of EFL students' vocabulary knowledge between male and female students while there is no significant difference in students' verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence regarding their gender.

Keywords: EFL Learner, Non-Verbal Fluid Intelligence, Verbal Fluid Intelligence, Vocabulary Knowledge.

Introduction

In the educational settings, individual difference research has long been of interest due to its advantages to enlighten education on learners' differences in their needs, interests, and learning styles (Gardner, 1999; Vogel, 2005). Accordingly, vocabulary development seems to be the most significant and useful activity in any language class because learning the words of a language is undeniably an important part of a speaker's command of that language. Therefore, teaching vocabulary is a crucial part of

standards-based curriculum (Payne, 2009). Moreover, since inadequate knowledge of vocabulary can lead to the learners' difficulty in a language reception and production (Cameron, 2001), and the importance of vocabulary learning can be seen in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, Nation (2011) states that knowledge of vocabulary is one of the most important component of learning a language which has a significant role in learning a language. Harmon, Wood, and Keser (2009) as well as Linse (2005) state that the most important aspect of learners'

language development is their vocabulary development. Furthermore, Schmitt (2000, p. 55) asserts that “lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and the acquisition of a second language”. Thus, little can be conveyed if a learner does not know grammar, but nothing can be expressed if one does not recognize any vocabulary (Wilkins, 1972).

Thereupon, to learn new vocabulary daily in short spurts, teachers should encourage learners to learn vocabulary beyond memorizing words with flashcards (Schmitt, 2000; Stahl, 2005; Vogel, 2005). Learners need to be able to manipulate the language so that they can support their communicative needs (Schmitt, 2000; Stahl, 2005). Lexicon can also change over time. Therefore, teachers have to know the essential skills to apply and activate the best approaches to learning vocabulary. One of the areas of focus in this regard is the learners’ general cognitive ability.

Working memory and fluid intelligence (*Gf*), as the two important examples of general cognitive abilities, have long been considered as important areas of research in educational settings (Motallebzadeh, & TabatabaeeYazdi, 2016). Working memory has been characterized as temporary storing of information to do cognitive tasks (Baddeley, 1992; Jonassen & Grabowski, 2012), and visual working memory is connected to attentional control, *GF*, and academic aptitude (Vogel, et al., 2005). Thus, visual working memory is a momentary buffer which sustains a restricted number of items in an online state. According to Gardner (1983), people who possess visual intelligence are excellent collectors. Visual-spatial intelligence (as Non-verbal fluid intelligence) involves the imagination of things or ideas through which we can keep memories for a longer period. It enables us to

get the meaning of words better when they are connected with visual images (Kim, 2009). Hence, Golon (2004) states that visual-spatial ability which localizes on the right hemisphere of the brain allows learners to see the whole image rather than step-by-step seeing from many aspects.

Besides, according to Cattell (1943) fluid intelligence refers to the skill needed for advanced mental processes, thinking, and reasoning. Further, Cattell (1971) and Horn (1976) define fluid intelligence as an ability to reason, measured using tasks that require solving of the novel problems. Logsdon (2019) defined verbal fluid intelligence as a talent of solving problems and analyzing information by language-based reasoning such as listening to words or reading, discussing, writing, or thinking. In contrast, non-verbal fluid intelligence is the ability to absorb information and solve problems using visual, or active reasoning (Gustafsson & Undheim, 1992, as cited in Kipp, 2005).

Consequently, the current study aims to find out the relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge and their verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence. This study can be of benefit for language teachers to choose the best strategies that fit students’ needs and interests in learning vocabulary. Furthermore, this research can raise both learners’ and teachers’ awareness of the effectiveness of vocabulary use in English language teaching.

Literature Review

Successful teachers have always used various methods in their teaching and have known that engaging students in learning actively leads them to better retention and achievements (Sousa, 2006). Different studies in the area of education reported that vocabulary has a fundamental role,

particularly in learning the second language (L2). Many of these studies investigated the use of pictures in enlightening students' vocabulary mastery. For example, the teachers could improve their learners' vocabulary of abstract words by associating the word with a concrete object (Harmer, 2001). Sawyer (2006, as cited in Brokaw, 2012) believed that pictures were discovered with vivid images being recognized more frequently at a rate of 83% recognition. Garcia (2013, as cited in Aghaei, & Gouglani, 2016) also reported a PowerPoint presentation's effects on the English learners' vocabulary learning. Mohammed (2009) studied the usefulness of Total Physical Response Storytelling in learning and retention of learners' vocabulary knowledge.

Chen (2008) stated that using varieties of printed dictionaries positively influenced on the academic performance of students in vocabulary learning, retention, and reading comprehension. Green & Tanner (2005) hold that each person has an individual intelligence profile, consisting of different capacities. In this regards, Ghamrawi (2014) explicates that traditional teaching methods required only that students memorize word meanings, whereas Multiple Intelligence (MI) teaching methods allowed students to use words in context. In a related study, Khabiri & Pakzad (2012) indicated that intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention significantly increased applying critical reading strategies.

Brecher, et al. (1998), who studied Multiple Intelligence on students' daily writings, showed significant progress in students' spelling and transferring words properly. Accordingly, Orensteinné Emódi (2013) reported better acquisition and retention of the students who taught with Multiple Intelligence-based methods than those who were exposed to traditional methods. More recently, Farahani &

Kalkhoran (2014) asserted the existence of a significant linkage between Iranian EFL learners' Multiple Intelligence and their incidental vocabulary.

Ybarra & Green (2003) likewise stressed the importance of contextual vocabulary learning including visual context to aid comprehension, pointing at e-learning environments as being a helpful means to provide contexts. Besides, a study by Yang & Wu (2015) asserted the impact of using several vocabulary learning strategies in and outside an e-learning environment. Similarly, Khoii & Sharififar (2013) compared semantic mapping and memorization and found the latter to be superior. Moreover, Mason et al. (2011) noted the importance of using pictures as media for teaching vocabulary. They found that pictures can enable students to recall vocabulary either in form or in meaning in their mind longer.

Poldberg et al. (2013) theorized that art imagery can boost vocabulary learning in science. Some studies found that all students, including English language learners, became more fluent and cohesive writers as a pre-writing strategy when using image creation. Eisner (2002, as cited in Poldberg et al., 2013) claimed that students can think better about complex things when they create images of those things mentally and meaningfully. This thinking and scrutiny imply mathematical/logical and even naturalistic intelligence. Phillips (2011, as cited in Brokaw, 2012) proved that through the use of visual-spatial reasoning such as observing, drawing, symbols, and pictures, students can advance their vocabulary knowledge. According to Silverman (2002), in this century, visual-spatial learners are involved in visual exemplifications of information and icons through the use of computers.

The word and humans have developed over the last thousand years by being educated

(Silverman, 2002); thus, to be consistent with the new modern world, more consideration needs to be given to the improvement of visual-spatial skills.

Methodology

Participants and Setting

The data set of the current study, which was obtained through three questionnaires, consisted of 201 Iranian intermediate EFL students. They were from both genders (Male= 96, Female= 105) who were selected based on convenience sampling from different age groups between 15 to 47 (mean= 25.96, SD=5.62) studying English as a foreign language in different language schools. Their native language was Persian. To achieve reliable results, students are told that their participation in the study is completely voluntary, and they are assured that their responses will not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study and they will remain anonymous throughout the study. Questionnaires were spread both in online (Google form) and paper-pencil format.

Instrumentation

The first questionnaire of this study was a 20-MCI (multiple-choice item) standardized English language vocabulary test that was professionally designed by the Oxford Online English test (2019, www.oxfordonlineenglish.com) to assess the students' knowledge of vocabulary. The content validity of the vocabulary test also was checked by three experts in the field. The second instrument, as a test of visual-spatial intelligence, was a valid and reliable 10-item three-dimensional cube Test (Free Psychological Tests, 2019) which aimed to assess the EFL learners' non-verbal fluid intelligence. The last instrument was a

reliable and valid 64-item Persian Adaption of Baddeley's three-minute grammatical reasoning test (Baghaei, et al., 2017) which is an efficient measure of verbal fluid reasoning to assess cognitive abilities and the individual abilities for thinking, advanced mental processes, and reasoning (Baghaei, et al., 2017). The validity of the test was also investigated using the Rasch partial credit model for polychotomous data (Tabatabaee-Yazdi, 2018).

Results

Before addressing the main purpose of the study which aimed at investigating any significant correlation between Iranian EFL intermediate students' vocabulary knowledge and their verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence, initial analyses were done to ensure that the data met the necessary assumptions of Normality, Linearity, and Homoscedasticity. No assumptions were violated; therefore, no data transformation techniques were required.

To find the connection between Iranian EFL intermediate students' vocabulary knowledge and their verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence, Pearson product-moment correlation was used. The results showed both verbal fluid intelligence ($r=.38, p<.05$) and non-verbal fluid intelligence ($r=.41, p<.05$) were positively and significantly correlated with vocabulary knowledge.

Besides, a model (Figure 1) was proposed to find out any significant interrelationships among students' vocabulary knowledge and their verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence and to confirm the proposed model, path analysis was employed using AMOS software.

As the model shows, verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence correlated positively and significantly ($B=.53, p<.05$). In addition,

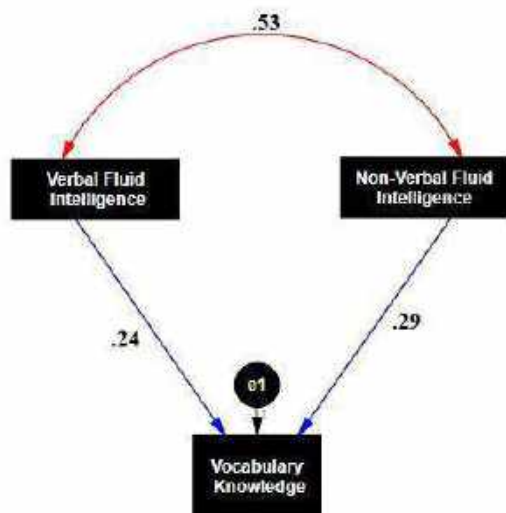


Figure 1. The model of the interrelationship among variables

vocabulary knowledge is predicted by both verbal ($B=.24$, $p<.05$) and non-verbal fluid intelligence ($B=.29$, $p<.05$); however, non-verbal fluid intelligence is a stronger predictor of vocabulary knowledge than verbal fluid intelligence. Moreover, the fit indices were checked (Table 1) and the all the indices were shown to be within the acceptable fit thresholds.

As the next aim, the study examined students' differences in their vocabulary knowledge, verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence across genders. To this aim, an independent-samples t-test was run. The results (Table 2 & Figure 2) indicated that there is a significant difference in the level of EFL students' vocabulary knowledge between male and female students ($t=3.25$, $P<.05$) favoring male students (Male mean=13.32, Female mean=11.84). However, no significant difference was shown in the level of EFL students' verbal ($t=.93$, $P>.05$), and non-verbal ($t=1.96$, $P>.05$) fluid intelligence between male and female students.

Discussion

The study's results showed that although vocabulary knowledge is predicted by both verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence, non-verbal fluid intelligence is a better significant contributor to vocabulary knowledge which is in line with previous study by Regard and Knapp (1982), who reported that verbal and non-verbal fluency correlated to standard measures of intelligence. Moreover, Widyasari (2018) found that teaching vocabulary can be enhanced by the students' spatial-visual intelligence.

In contrast, with the present study, Jarrold et al. (2001) studied the growth of vocabulary and reported that verbal and non-verbal intelligence improve at different rates in individuals and come out due to practice effects. However, Tajeddin & Chiniforoushan (2011), in a study investigating the use of visual intelligence to advance second language students' vocabulary knowledge, reported no significant relations between students' visual intelligence and their vocabulary knowledge.

Besides, the study indicated that there is a significant difference in the level of EFL students' vocabulary knowledge regarding their gender which is in line with the findings of the study by Catalan (2003), who reported sex differences in L2 vocabulary learning. However, Naeini & Shahrokhi (2016) indicated that there is not any statistically significant difference between male and female learners' vocabulary scores.

Besides, in line with the study's results, Colom & García-López (2002) revealed that there is no significant difference across learners' gender in the general intelligence, and also asserted that the sex difference in fluid intelligence is non-existent. In contrast with the results of this study, Đapo & Kolenović-Đapo (2012), reported that the effect sizes of sex differences on tests of fluid

Table 1
Goodness of Fit Indices for Model

	chi-square	X2/df	GFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
Acceptable fit	>.05	<3	>.90	>.90	>.90	<.08
Model Modification	.077	2.87	.91	.90	.92	.079

Table 2
Results of the Independent-Samples T-Test for Gender Difference

	t	df	Sig (2_tailed)	Mean Difference	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vocabulary Knowledge	3.25	199	.00	1.48	Male	96	13.32	3.19
					Female	105	11.84	3.26
Verbal Fluid Intel.	.93	199	.35	1.53	Male	96	30.58	11.09
					Female	105	29.05	12.04
Non-Verbal Fluid Intel.	1.96	199	.06	.55	Male	96	5.26	1.71
					Female	105	4.71	2.16

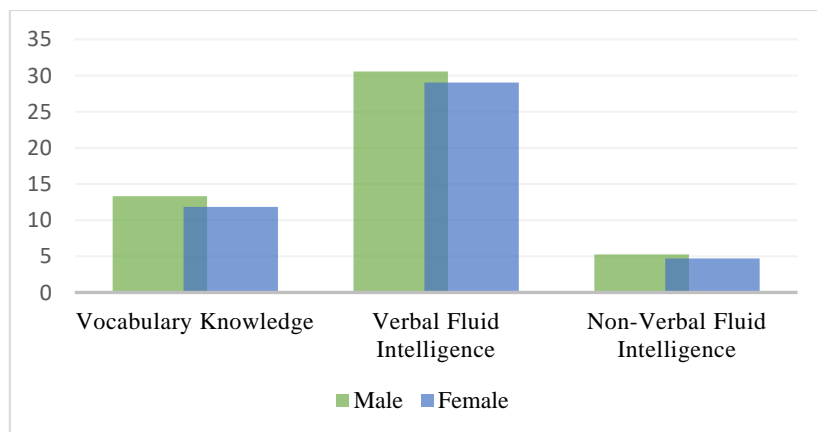


Figure 2. The differences in the level of students’ vocabulary knowledge, verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence between male and female students

intelligence for students at ages of 12 and 16 were small. However, at the age of 17 boys scored nearly one standard deviation higher than girls. Moreover, the data illustrated that

there is no significant difference in EFL students’ non-verbal fluid intelligence regarding their gender which is in line with the study accomplished by Herlitz & Yonker

(2002) who pointed out no gender differences on the non-verbal memory task. However, Buczyłowska et al. (2019) who investigated sex similarities and differences in visuospatial intelligence in children showed that girls displayed higher scores in their visuospatial intelligence.

Conclusion and Implications

In light of the learner's beliefs, all learners irrespective of their different learning environments place a high value on the role of vocabulary knowledge in English language learning and report high motivation to learn vocabulary. Vocabulary knowledge is central to communicative competence and the acquirement of a second/foreign language, and lack of this knowledge is a drawback to learning. In the context of teaching, it is necessary to present the required vocabulary before encountering it in the delivery of the lesson. EFL learners are different in their needs, learning styles, etc. Therefore, before teaching the form or meaning of vocabulary items, teachers have to be aware of the students' level, age, and their intelligence.

Teaching vocabulary not only goes beyond memorizing words with flashcards (Schmitt, 2000; Stahl, 2005; Vogel, 2005) but also is a development that begins with facing a word and ends when a student can produce the word. Students can merge this practice into their daily classroom routine. Lexicon can also shift over time. Therefore, teachers have to acquire essential skills to put on the best approaches to teaching vocabulary.

In view of that the findings presented in this study indicate that vocabulary knowledge has a positive significant relationship with verbal fluid intelligence and non-verbal fluid intelligence. Therefore, EFL teachers need to be aware of learners' needs and their type of intelligence when applying their teaching

techniques. This happens through a combination of tasks such as memorization, visualization, dictionary usage, context, and other activities (Gardner, 1999; Vogel, 2005).

Another important point, which is highlighted by the result of the study, is that non-verbal fluid intelligence was a stronger predictor of vocabulary knowledge than verbal fluid intelligence. In this regard, the learning process will function more effectively if learners' visual intelligence is activated by teachers in the classroom. Therefore, teachers should plan activities that incorporate visual intelligence by using different visual aids in their classrooms, and students should be persuaded to use this specific intelligence to make the process of learning more accessible.

In conclusion, this research can raise both learners' and teachers' awareness of the effectiveness of vocabulary use in English language teaching (ELT) by activating students' fluid intelligence. Contextualization and incorporation of pictures in ELT materials do result in significant enhancement of vocabulary acquisition since verbal and non-verbal fluid intelligence are shown to be significant predictors of vocabulary knowledge.

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A Constructive Tool for Enhancing Learners' Self-Esteem: Peer-Scaffolded Assessment

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ABSTRACT

This study seeks to investigate the effect of implementing peer-scaffolded assessment on students' self-esteem of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. For conducting this study, 40 homogenized intermediate learners were selected through OPT from an English center in Tehran. These learners were randomly divided into an experimental group (N=20) and a control group (N=20). The Foreign Language Self-Esteem Scale (FLSES) was administered to all the participants before the instructional phase to measure students' self-esteem level. At instructional phase, the experimental group were exposed to peer-scaffolding practice in which the participants applied scaffolding procedure and techniques on their peers for assigned tasks and problem-solving activities while the control group were exposed to conventional practice. Instructional phase lasted for 8 sessions, half an hour a session in a week for two months. To measure students' self-esteem level after the instructional phase, the researcher administered FLSES for all the participants. The collected data were analyzed through SPSS software. The analysis of data revealed that exposing students to the peer-scaffolding assessment can significantly enhance students' self-esteem level. The findings of this study can help language learners, educators, program developers, and curriculum planners to provide better learning condition and program for language learners.

Keywords: Peer-Scaffolding, Peer-Scaffolded Assessment, Scaffolding, Self-Esteem.

Introduction

Arguably, nowadays, the importance of psychological elements of language learning is becoming more evident in the field of English language teaching. Learner-specified psychological aspects like motivation, autonomy, anxiety, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and self-esteem play crucial roles in language teaching and learning. Learner's self-image and self-conception about their language ability and competence can determine his/her success or failure in language learning. Also, in recent years, the

paradigm of language assessment has gradually shifted from static approaches of assessment towards more dynamic approaches of assessment. In addition, collaborative approaches to dynamic types of assessment are the center of attention by many researchers and language teachers all around the world. In Iranian EFL context, these approaches have newly been concerned by some researchers and language educators.

Learner's self-esteem is considered as learner's self-concept about his/her language ability and performance. This self-image

helps the learners to come up with their language learning process and can play the role of an intrinsic motivator for keeping learners on the track of language learning road. Learners who show high level of self-esteem are expected to represent less-anxious language performance and achieve more success in their language learning respectively. Active participation in classroom practice and learning process is represented by students with higher self-esteem level. In contrast, students with low level of self-esteem avoid participating in classroom events. As Rubio (2007) states, language learner with low self-esteem may not be a risk-taker in order to acquire communicative competence and may suffer from feeling insecurity in his/her learning process. An acute low self-esteem on the side of language learners may even lead them to stop their efforts to learn the foreign language.

Generally, scaffolding techniques are utilized by language teachers in their own classroom practice. When it is realized that students are not progressing on completing and doing their learning tasks or they are not capable of understanding how to approach their learning activities, educators may choose the scaffolding techniques and practices as a potential solution to these problems. Scaffolding can help students to complete their learning tasks by providing interactional assistance and making them able to do the tasks independently in the future. Peer-scaffolding happens in situations in which peers provide each other with cooperative and constructive helps through hints, prompts, and feedback in order to assist their peers in achieving better language performances or abilities. The interactional nature of peer-scaffolding helps them to share responsibility of teaching and learning in classroom. Furthermore, Peer-scaffolding

enables students to move beyond their current language skill and knowledge levels.

Regarding Iranian EFL context, there appears to be lots of problems related to the concept of self-esteem among language learners whether at language institutes or schools. Iranian EFL students do not tend to be risk-taker, self-confident enough to produce desired language performances. Moreover, at the level of classroom, the students act passively in their language learning journey. Therefore, it can be said that there is no positive inner force and motivation on the part of students to take their learning responsibility and move toward autonomous learning practices. In addition, the cooperative events and practices in language classroom are not at a satisfactory level. Also, the peer-based cooperative and interactional potentialities of language classrooms are underestimated or neglected by language teachers, teacher educators, and language program designers especially in Iranian public school level. Furthermore, the static types of assessment are dominant in language institutes and schools. Summative assessments are widely used by language teachers in their classroom focusing on students' current level of language knowledge.

Considering these mentioned potentially existent problems, this study aims to investigate the effect of implementing peer-scaffolded assessment on students' self-esteem of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. Therefore, the following research question was formulated for this study:

RQ: Does implementing peer-scaffolded assessment have statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-esteem?

Review of Related Literature

Branden (2001) conceptualizes self-esteem

as individuals' beliefs and experiences about their competence in dealing with environmental and social challenges in their ongoing life. Also Richards & Schmidt (2002) define self-esteem as the person's value judgment on his/her own inner worth and ability to cope and interact with the environment efficiently. In addition, Rubio (2007) defines self-esteem as an individual's self-image and ability to evaluate his/her competence and performance based on some psychological and social values which lead the person to develop stable but changeable self-concept depending on various circumstances that individual faces.

Individuals with high level of self-esteem are more stable and responsive while dealing with unsuccessful situations than the low self-esteemed individuals. In addition, high self-esteemed individuals can effectively regulate their behaviors and actions for gaining desired goals (Di Paula & Campbell, 2002). Individuals who enjoy high level of self-esteem tend to be able to tolerate and handle unwanted and unpleasant situations, overcome their problems and challenges, manage their mental schematic function, and improve their relationships with others (Stavropoulos, et al., 2015). According to Dornyei (2005), self-esteem could be regarded as individual's feeling about his/her capability to manifest a particular performance. Students with a high level of self-esteem are highly determined to achieve their learning goals whereas students with low level of self-esteem show more skeptical concept regarding their inner value and competence in their efforts toward achieving their learning goals. Guindon (2002) describes students with low self-esteem as a person who is shy in his/her behaviors, feels insecure in dealing with challenges and problems, shows underachieving performances, has a negative attitude, acts as

a dependent person, exhibits a poor self-image, unable to take risks, lacks self-confidence, and demonstrates poor communicative competence.

Arnold & Brown (1999) classified self-esteem into three distinctive levels including *global self-esteem* which refers to the individual's general self-conception of his/her potentials and abilities, *situational self-esteem* that means the person's self-imagination about his/her abilities in various and different situations, and *task self-esteem* which concerns individual's self-conception of his/her ability to do specific tasks in various situations. Lawrence (2006) noted that self-esteem is the individuals' evaluation of their own self and the estimation of their ideal self. He categorized self-esteem in two levels i.e. *global* and *specific* levels. Global self-esteem refers to person's general view and feeling regarding his/her self-worth and self-image in his/her own life while specific self-esteem concerns the person's evaluation of their self-worth and ability to perform particular activity, task or behavior.

Nassaji & Cumming (2000) define scaffolding as a collaborative process done by learner and instructor based on the learner's ZPD in order to develop learner's understanding and performance. Also Sharma and Hannafin (2007) use the term scaffolding to refer to a process of cooperation between a teacher or a more knowledgeable classmate and a learner in order to enable the learner to solve a problem or complete particular learning tasks or activities. Peer scaffolding is put forward by Davin & Donato (2013) as a process in which peers provide each other with the scaffolding techniques in classroom so as to enhance their capabilities and performances.

The potentiality for providing autonomous learning is considered as an important aspect of scaffolding process which means that by

scaffolding, learners become capable of doing their learning tasks and solving their learning problem independently or in other words, they learn how to learn (Oxford, 1990). In scaffolding the students, teachers want to assist and lead students toward using desired skills and strategies autonomously and individually in their future performances. Teachers follow a process of gradual reduction in their assistance and gradual enhancement of student's autonomy in order to shift learning responsibility from the teacher to the students (Rosenshine & Meister, 1992). The interactional nature of scaffolding allows students to construct their knowledge and the mutual mediation between peers enables them to progress through and beyond their ZPD (Barnard & Campbell, 2005).

Accordingly, Beed et al. (1991) propose five levels of scaffolding which include: 1) *full modeling* in which the teacher provides the complete performance or verbal explanation for students regarding the tasks and problems that they face; 2) *assisted modeling* i.e. students are engaged in the teacher modeling process and cooperate with the teacher for providing mediation; 3) As to *elements cueing*, the teacher hints the students by mentioning the main elements of specific strategy related to their tasks; 4) *strategy cueing* in which the teacher just mentions the name of specific strategy for their problems; and 5) regarding *general cueing*, the teacher provides some verbal cues in general not related to specific tasks or problems.

Based on Hogan & Pressley (1997), eight required elements of scaffolding include: 1) student's engagement in desired subjects; 2) determining shared knowledge and goal for both sides i.e. teacher (peer) and students; 3) assessing learner's previous understanding and diagnosing their potential understanding; 4) providing the student with tailored

supports based on their situational needs; 5) persisting on assistance until students reach their learning goals; 6) providing on-time and scheduled feedback i.e. in-action, on-action; 7) considering and monitoring the potential resources of frustration and risk for learners; and 8) supporting the internalization of desired concepts and enhancing the generalization ability of learners.

Moreover, Van Lier (2004) mentioned six characteristics of scaffolding: 1) *Continuity* which refers to inter-connected and cycling nature of feedback assurances; 2) *Contextual support* which refers to safely treating students' errors as a sign of learning; 3) *Inter-subjectivity* which refers to mutual engagement between two sides of process and the interactional nature of scaffolding; 4) *Contingency* which refers to potentiality of adaption in supports and assistances based on learners' reciprocal reactions; 5) *Handover* which refers to the changing and shifting learning responsibility from teacher to students; 6) *Flow* which refers to the natural nature of communication and absence of forced interactions between participants.

Guerrero & Villamil (2000) studied the implementation of peer-scaffolding on ESL students' writing skill. This study showed that by peer-scaffolding practice, students actively constructed their understanding and meaning on the writing tasks. It means that peer-scaffolding has constructive and positive effect on promoting students' writing skill. Moreover, Storch (2005) investigated collaborative writing formed by peer-scaffolding practice. The study revealed that students who were exposed to peer-scaffolded practice writing were better than other students in terms of task completion, grammatical accuracy, and complexity of structures in their writing tasks.

Tadokoro (2002) studied the effect of students' global self-esteem on their

communicative competence in the ESL classroom in the United States. The results of the study showed that students' global self-esteem could affect their positive self-acceptance and self-evaluation and promote their communicative competence respectively. Also, Peleg (2009) investigated the relationship among test anxiety, academic achievement, and self-esteem among Arab adult learners with and without learning disabilities. The analysis of obtained data of this study revealed that there is a negative correlation between their test anxiety and self-esteem level and a positive correlation between their level of self-esteem and academic achievement whether among adults with disabilities or without disabilities.

Mirzaee et al. (2010) examined the effects of scaffolding based on the students' ZPD among Iranian EFL learners' construction of meaning dealing with collaborative writing tasks. Study's treatment administered in four levels included: 1) formal teaching, 2) input enhancement, 3) non-ZPD interaction, and 4) ZPD-based L2 discourse scaffolding. The findings of this study showed that scaffolding helps students to develop the mutual construction of meaning when they complete their writing tasks.

Soureshjani & Naseri (2011) investigated the relationship among self-esteem, proficiency level, and the reading ability of Iranian EFL language learners. The study findings revealed that there are strong and positive relationships among EFL learners' self-esteem, proficiency level, and the reading ability. Also Koosha et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between self-confidence and self-esteem among Iranian EFL learners regarding their age and gender and speaking skill. The study showed that there is a remarkable positive correlation between self-esteem and speaking proficiency. Also, this study revealed that

learners who had high self-esteem were more eager to speak confidently inside and outside the classroom.

Rezaei (2012) investigated the scaffolding behaviors of teacher and students whether in teacher-led or peer-led scaffolding in performing independent writing. For rating the scaffolding behaviors, Lidz's Mediated Learning Experience Rating Scale (MLERS) was used by the researcher. The study revealed that the teacher used more scaffolding behaviors than peers, but the difference between the teacher and students' behaviors was not statistically significant and meaningful.

Concerning peer scaffolding, according to Barnard & Campbell (2005), the interactional nature of scaffolding allows students to construct their knowledge and the mutual mediation between peers enables them to progress through and beyond their ZPD. In this study, it is maintained that an effective peer-scaffolded assessment practice helps the students to move forward on their ZPD.

Methodology

Participants

For conducting this study, 40 homogenized intermediate students learning English as a Foreign Language were randomly selected through OPT from Free English Courses at the International College of Tehran University of Medical Sciences in Tehran. They were both male and female learners whose age ranged from 18 to 30 years old. This study's participants had spent at least two years for learning English.

Instruments

Oxford Placement Test (OPT): This test, developed by Oxford University Press (Allan, 2001), was administered to the participants to homogenize the learners. It consists of 60

items in two parts in which the first section has been designed for vocabulary and grammar (40 items) and the second part is on reading comprehension (20 items).

Foreign Language Self-Esteem Scale (FLSES): This Likert scale questionnaire was developed by Hassan (2001) in order to measure students' self-esteem level. The FLSES is comprised of 25 items in four parts including: *language ability*, *actual in-class language use*, *in-class relationships*, and *attitude towards behavior in the foreign language class*. The researcher piloted this questionnaire on 55 EFL learners and calculated its reliability by *Cronbach Alpha* formula through SPSS software. The obtained reliability for this questionnaire was **0.80**. Therefore, the FLSES was considered as a reliable questionnaire for conducting the current study.

Data Collection Procedure

For collecting data in this study, first the researcher administered OPT for homogenizing participants in which 40 participants were considered as a homogeneous sample of this study. Then, the researcher evenly and randomly divided them into an experimental group (N=20) and a control group (N=20). Next, the researcher administered FLSES for all the participants before the instructional phase so as to measure the students' self-esteem level. At instructional phase, the experimental group were exposed to peer-scaffolding practice in which the participants applied scaffolding procedure and techniques (hints, prompts, question cards, and visual scaffolds) on their peers for assigned tasks and problem-solving activities while the control group were treated using conventional practices on their assigned tasks and problem-solving activities. Instructional phase lasted for 8 sessions, half

an hour for each session in a week for two months. In order to measure students' self-esteem level after the instructional phase, the researcher administered FLSES to all the participants. The collected data were analyzed through SPSS software.

Result and Data Analysis

The research question of this study is as follows:

RQ: Does implementing peer-scaffolded assessment have statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-esteem?

In order to answer the research question of the present study, the descriptive statistics for control group's pre and post-tests scores are presented in table 1 below.

As it can be seen in table 1, control group's pre and post-tests means are 67.40 and 67.10 respectively. Next, the normality test (Shapiro-Wilk Test) of control group's pre and post-tests scores is presented in table 2.

Table 2 shows that the Sig values of pre and post-tests are 0.268 and 0.283 respectively and more than 0.05 ($0.268 > 0.05$ and $0.283 > 0.05$) thus, for the comparison of two sets of score's means, parametric test (Paired Sample T-Test) was used. Next, the inferential statistics for control group's pre and post-tests scores presented in table 3. As indicated in Table 3, the obtained Sig value is 0.494 which is more than 0.05 ($0.494 > 0.05$). Thus, it means that Sig value for control group's pre and post-tests means is not statistically significant. So, the difference between pre and post-tests' means for control group is not statistically meaningful. Next, the descriptive statistics for experimental group's pre and post-tests scores are presented in table 4.

As it can be seen in table 4, experimental group's pre and post-tests means are 76.60 and 82.95 respectively. Next, the normality test (Shapiro-Wilk Test) of experimental

Table 1*The Descriptive Statistics for Control Groups' Scores*

Group	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Ctrl Pre	20	50	84	67.40	10.763
Ctrl Post	20	49	84	67.10	10.925

Table 2*The Shapiro-Wilk Test for Control Group's Pre and Post-Tests Scores*

Group	Statistics	df	Sig.
Ctrl Pre	0.943	20	0.268
Ctrl Post	0.944	20	0.283

Table 3*The Paired Sample T-Test for Comparison of Control Group's Pre and Post-Tests Means*

Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	Sig.
Ctrl Pre vs Ctrl Post	0.300	1.922	0.430	0.698	19	0.494

group's pre and post-tests scores is presented in table 5.

Table 5 shows that the Sig values of pre and post-tests are 0.535 and 0.593 respectively and more than 0.05 ($0.535 > 0.05$ and $0.593 > 0.05$). Thus, for the comparison of two sets of scores' means, parametric test (Paired Sample T-Test) was used. Next, the inferential statistics for experimental group's pre and post-tests scores presented in table 6.

As indicated in Table 6, the obtained Sig value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 ($0.000 < 0.05$). Thus, it means that Sig value for experimental group's pre and post-tests means is statistically significant. Thus, the difference between pre and post-tests' means for experimental group is statistically meaningful. The experimental group outperformed the control group in their self-

esteem after instructional phase in this study. So, it can be said that implementing peer-scaffolding assessment has statistically a significant effect on enhancing students' self-esteem level.

Discussion

The research question in the current study sought to explore the impact of implementing peer-scaffolded assessment on students' self-esteem of Iranian Intermediate learners of English as a foreign language at the International College of Tehran University of Medical Sciences in Tehran. The findings were analyzed for three proficiency levels of 40 students regarding their exposure to peer-scaffolded assessment and its effect on students' self-esteem. The findings of this

Table 4*The Descriptive Statistics for Experimental Groups' Scores*

Group	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Exp Pre	20	53	95	76.60	12.326
Exp Post	20	64	104	82.95	11.732

Table 5*The Shapiro-Wilk Test for Experimental Group's Pre and Post-Tests Scores*

Group	Statistics	df	Sig.
Exp Pre	0.960	20	0.535
Exp Post	0.962	20	0.593

Table 6*The Paired Sample T-Test for Comparison of Experimental Group's Pre and Post-Tests Means*

Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	Sig.
Exp Pre vs Exp Post	- 6.350	4.499	1.006	- 6.312	19	0.000

Study were analyzed and it was found that students' self-esteem level can be improved significantly through implementing peer-scaffolding assessment among learners. One possible reason for these findings might be that peer-scaffolded assessment has an interactive nature in which peers are mutually engaged in the process of negotiating meaning, sharing knowledge, and transferring ideas. These mutual interactions between peers enable students to accept and feel that they themselves are viewed as valuable and worthy individuals in the learning process. Such a kind of feeling in turn promotes their self-worth and self-acceptance and also, their self-confidence and self-esteem respectively. This fact is clearly in line with Sharma and Hannafin (2007) in defining the concept of

scaffolding in which they believed that scaffolding is a process of cooperation between a language educator or a more knowledgeable classmate and a learner in order to enable the learner to solve a problem or complete a particular learning tasks or activities.

Another reason to be mentioned for this finding is that peer-scaffolding assessment brings students the familiarity with assessment process and it can reduce their anxiety and apprehension about their being assessed. As a result, they achieve their potential to partake in learning tasks and activities more easily. Moreover, this familiarity and stress free participation make the students competent enough to put all their efforts and inner endeavor into learning

process. When students' inner capability flourishes, their self-esteem level is affected and enhanced respectively. As Dornyei (2005) put forward, self-esteem could be regarded as individual's feeling associated with his/her capability to manifest a particular performance. Students with a high level of self-esteem are highly determined to achieve their learning goals whereas students with a low level of self-esteem show more skeptical concept of their inner values and capabilities in their efforts towards achieving their learning objectives. This is also in agreement with Di Paula & Campbell, (2002) findings which showed that individuals with high level of self-esteem are more stable and responsive when dealing with unsuccessful situations than the low self-esteem individuals. In addition, high self-esteem individuals can effectively regulate their behaviors and actions for gaining desired goals.

In addition, the peer-scaffolded assessment can provide learners with the opportunity to practice autonomous learning in classroom. Apparently, there is potentiality for peers in peer-scaffolded assessment to become an autonomous learner to do their learning tasks and problem-solving activities independently. Since the learner's autonomy concept appears to be directly linked to the concept of self-esteem in language learning, it can be said that practicing peer-scaffolded assessment in classroom can promote students' self-esteem. This is in keeping with Oxford (1990) who argued that the capacity to implement autonomous learning is considered an important aspect of scaffolding process. In other words, by scaffolding, learners become highly efficient in doing their learning tasks and solving their learning problem independently, or in other words, they learn how to learn.

Conclusion and Implications

In the present study, the aim was to investigate the possible effect of peer-scaffolded assessment on students' self-esteem level. The findings suggest that, in general, implementing peer-scaffolded assessment in classroom significantly enhances students' self-esteem level. An efficient peer-scaffolded assessment practice can possibly assist the students in moving forward on their ZPD. Peer-scaffolded assessment can also provide an active and supportive learning environment for language learners. Such an atmosphere enables the students to freely ask questions, provide each other's works with feedback, and support their peers in learning tasks and activities. By implementing peer-scaffolded assessment in the EFL classroom, teacher's role changes from the dominant content expert to the mentor and facilitator of knowledge. This practice makes students more actively engaged in their learning and even in teaching process. In this regard, implementing peer-scaffolded assessment in FL classroom can be considered as a precious asset for teachers in foreign language classrooms especially when it comes to enhancing students' self-esteem level and reducing the learners' stress.

As discussed, peer-scaffolded assessment can enhance students' self-esteem in many ways. Students with a higher level of self-esteem are capable of taking more risks in their learning tasks and activities. By taking more risks, their self-confidence enhanced. Self-confidence is an essential component of self-esteem. Students with a higher level of self-esteem are more successful in their language learning. But finally, this is the teacher who decides whether peer-scaffolded assessment can be used in the class or not. Furthermore, although most of the educators possibly agree that this assessment type has some potential applications in the classroom, it is highly suggested that they undergo

enough training regarding its usages and the benefits that they can enjoy in their teaching foreign language.

Above all, the findings on peer-scaffolded assessment from the current study can help language learners, language teachers, language program developers, and language curriculum planners to provide better learning situation and program for language learners. By considering the potential of peer-scaffolded assessment practice in enhancing students' self-esteem and language achievements, language teachers can promote their teaching practice. Also, peer-scaffolded assessment produces the collaborative atmosphere for language learners to construct a positive understanding of learning process. Besides, this assessment type, if judiciously employed, can be regarded as an invaluable tool within educators and learners' access. Finally, it is highly recommended that FL teachers put their trust in the power of peer-learning in learning process and use it more in their practice.

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Translation Transcending Cross-Linguistic, Intertextuality, and Beyond Equivalences: Figurative Mind

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ABSTRACT

The translated texts of Nahjul-Balaqa and Fadak through reflective mind image of the target audience have provided this study with its findings beyond mere translations juxtaposition. The purpose of this research is to obtain how the phenomenon's mind picture can be recreated and to appraise the contextual devices retained for this process. The analyzing of four translated texts entails the Arabic text as the source, the Persian as the transmitter, and the English translation as the target text. First, the surveys of Persian translations have been conducted as intermediary and responded by the relevant scholars for the initial figurative image reflected in the translations. Subsequently, the English translations in similar procedures in maintaining equivalence have evinced analogous findings. The tables, graphs, and figures on the basis of clause units have illustrated homogeneously implied orientations in preserving equivalence. However, Situational domains for depicting figurative mind image necessitates certain contextual transcending.

Key words: translation; intertextuality; figurative mind; equivalences; Nahjul-Balaqa and Fadak

Introduction

1.1. Translation

Conspicuously, the narration of man and human civilization greatly relies upon ideas, views, and attitudes throughout the global perspectives. Translation undoubtedly in this respect plays a leading role.

In parallel, arbitrariness is a linguistic sign, i.e., a word, which is an alibi of self-consciousness, as being recognizable but beyond individual control. Translation may be viewed as a nascent word since it formally starts from the consideration of language, this cognate medium for consciousness. The becoming of sign as translation involves both

the conscious and the unconscious, which is ontologically connected to the conscious (Takeda, 2015, p.16).

Translation as a result of translating approach derived from the sophisticated mind network of the translator's mind image represents the fused imagery production onto and out of the target's responsive mind image in appreciating the phenomenon far beyond history and self-culture.

Intertextuality and cross-linguistic

Human history has, to a great extent, brought forth an amazing sense of ultimate

bonding of nations and strengthened the human potential for proximity beyond geographical borders. Literature, cross and inter-linguistics in particular, performs as constitutive and integral parameter in elucidating cultural identities, maintaining national integrity, and sustaining social values nation-wide and globally. There sometimes exists contextual-transmitter in between as mother language of translator in performance of translating procedures from source through target context. This tri-lingual intertextuality collaborates upon perceiving imagery equivalence in translating journey.

Therefore, it has a twofold coherence: an intra-textual one which guarantees the immanent integrity of the text, and an intertextual one which creates structural relations between itself and other texts. This twofold coherence makes for the richness and complexity of the inter text, but also for its problematical status (Plett, 1991, p.6).

However, the cross linguistic features in cultural dimensions for translating trend prove to be of paramount notice. Whether the language provides the resources for explicating its own meanings in language-internal terms. The expressive power of the language would be redeemed, of course, if it could be shown to possess one or more language-specific semantic primes which covered the same territory as the missing primes (Goddard, 2008, p.11).

The implied orientation of translating embodied content meaning of the occurrence through cross linguistic over intertextuality requires much more consideration. Intertextuality in the crossing of three different linguistic realms upon their divergence would require the translator to be exposed to as many possible text type devices to render the recreation of the occurrence.

Explicitation and Equivalence

The term equivalence itself, a relative newcomer in Western discourses on translation, suggests an equality of value and hence an equitability and interchangeability that translation, as understood in these Western discourses, has not possessed – just as the languages and cultures between which translation moves have not usually been equal (Millán & Bartrina, 2013, p.79).

The equivalence, upon which the translators have nearly always endeavored not to distort it as much as possible launches challenging investigation into the deal of rendering religious, cultural, and historical texts. The determination of such text instrument as decoding and depicting the story on one hand, and maintaining the fidelity to the original text in order for the translator not to be convicted of the translating principles violation on the other side is a complicated one.

Sacred texts

Sacred texts may contain historical, narrative, philosophical, literary and poetic material, but their sacred qualities mean that they function for certain sections of the community on another level altogether as Holy Scripture, a message from the deity, divine instructions for living. Their sacredness comes from the holiness in which they are held by the followers of the faith to which they are relevant; their dual status means that their translation has implications beyond cultural and linguistic transfer from one language to another (Millán & Bartrina, 2013, p.464).

Nahjul_Balaqa, the words of Imam Ali (a.s) and Hazrat Fatemeyh Zahra's Sermon (Fadak), in translation not only do need, like any other text, to be rendered at maximum

accuracy of faithfulness to the original book and at the same time considering as much as possible all the linguistic features, but the equivalent effect created by the translator is of paramount importance as well. Nonetheless, does the translating's commission here come to an end? Would it not be all translations' variations identical? Or the voyage of translating by its artistic nature should continue observing more detailed semiotic features and go through the situational of two or three intertextuality and linguistic crossing for displaying fused mind image and the text in rendering.

Unit of data translation

A translation unit "is a segment in constant transformation that changes according to the translator's cognitive and processing needs". Alternative, product-oriented definitions include: "the simultaneous consecutive comprehension in the SL and production in the TL of a text segment the size of which is limited by WM [working memory] capacity and the boundaries of which are identifiable through pauses" (Dragsted, 2004, p274), and "TL segments produced between pauses" (Englund-Dimitrova, 2005, p29). As it can be seen, there is not one accepted definition of a translation unit in process research and there is not necessarily a correspondence between translation unit and unit of analysis since the interests of process research are not necessarily limited to linguistic segments but also encompass cognitive indicators, such as the focus of attention or cognitive effort (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2013, p119-120).

The segmentation of translation units especially when engaged in three dimensionality of three languages from which one performs as the transmitter both culturally and linguistically for sure stands in very intricate patterns of the individual and

collective figurative pictures rooted in the translator's mind image.

Visual and figurative embodiment

Adopting a particular approach towards communication of the contextual discourse with the images drawn as a unifying essential element in depicting the sceneries conveyed from innermost depths of contextual and situational during translating course onto the minds of both the translator and target audience is very significant.

Having visual embodiment and the imagery of self-perception without mirrors in mind one might feel attracted to the by well-grooved but slightly one-sided 'theory of reception' in the first place. Caspar David Friedrich's paintings have always been considered hallmarks of romantic immersion of the spectator into the visual field. But apart from the corporeal transference of the beholder-feelings onto particular inhabitants of pictures we are bound to run into almost pure copies, so to speak, of the visual field itself (Krois, 2007, p.84).

This definition, however, may remain on the surface borders of contextual content, and if so, then the purpose of art, artistic translation, and multidisciplinary might stay camouflaging. The situation in practice reflects a mental mirror image of translating's nature.

Figurative mind in text recreation

The effect of over-reliance on the word image is to encourage a focus on literature which makes syntax, argument, plot, temporal and relational structures recede into invisibility, while description and figurative language become foregrounded to a distorted degree. The whole; thus, isolated becomes a static 'spatial' experience (Childs, 2006, p.115).

The vehicles for the recreation of the transitional mind texts pertaining to the situational domain vary according to the artistic nature of the translator's conscious and subconscious in translating when conjoined and moved along with the phenomenon observed through the voyage of the mind image.

Transcending in translation

The individual self is "realized" when it transcends all dualities. If the individual self is realized in this sense, it is transformed beyond all reference frames. Consequently, all talk of rightness or admissibility of interpretations of it would drop out. The limits of interpretive activity would have been overstepped (Krausz, 2006, p.103).

Translating procedure in the mind of translator by taking the helm of changing route of inner content meaning and underlying the situational environment employs additional text tools to touch upon the reflective mind image as possible, which most often discloses itself as a barrier for the translator to breach the translation notions.

Cross- inquiries of the designation

Cross- inquiries of the fused designation elaborate on the following:

What achievable insight of figurative translation emerges from equivalence transcending in Sacred texts?

Is/are there shared practical and workable feature/ features amidst

practical merged interdisciplinary translating project?

Methodology

This research has adopted approaches to translations by the use of componential analysis. Syntactic descriptions of languages provide a grammatical analysis of clause type's strategies. Linkages generally involve two clauses. For most kinds of linking, we can identify, on semantic grounds, a Focal clause and a Supporting clause:

- One clause refers to the central activity or state of the bi-clausal linking; this is the Focal clause (FC).
- Attached to it there will be a Supporting clause (SC), which may set out the temporal milieu for the Focal clause, or specify a condition or presupposition for it or a preliminary statement of it, etc. (Dixon & Aikhenvald, 2009, p.2-3).

The first step in this study is to extract the thirty participants' viewpoints in three questionnaires, which are employed for both TQA and CDA analyses. The second phase goes through analyzing the two corpora of translations.

In this research, complex compound sentences (CCS), and mega complex compound sentences (MCCS) are employed as the units of translation. Up to six sentences is accounted for the micro-translation unit (CCS), and more than this account is assessed for mega-translation unit (MCCS). The details of other parts have not been counted, and only just their number of occurrences has been included due to emphasis on enrichment strategy of translators.

Participants

In this study, every endeavor has been made to obtain statistical data from those who are knowledgeable upon Nahjul- Balaqa (peak of Eloquence) and Hazrat Fatemeyh Zahra's Sermon (Fadak). The translators and scholars in this respect are from several different universities and scholars who are related to this text type, and the evaluation will certainly be impacted by the means of this survey. The viewpoints of translators included in this study for comparison about their procedures, and styles concerning to this issue are of high importance.

All participants in this research have PhD degrees and are involved in teaching courses on human sciences (theology; religion, linguistics, teaching languages, etc.) at the local universities and the number of them is thirty. It should be mentioned that ten participants yielded their opinions on the quality of translation of the Arabic text into Persian, other ten ones took part in answering the second questionnaire to find out about approximate equivalent effect in translation of Nahjol-Balaghah into English, and the last ten were asked for the translation of Hazrat Fatemeyh Zahra's Sermon (Fadak).

Translators

The translators chosen in this study, four with Ph.D. are very well known for their achievements, including:

- Nahjol-Balaghah: Tahereh Saffarzadeh and Syed Ali Reza.
- Sermon of Fadak: Farideh mahdavid amghani and Ansarin.

The corpora of the study

The corpora of this research are composed of:

- I. A trilingual selection from Nahjol-Balaghah (Arabic, Persian, English) Translated by Tahereh Saffarzadeh., selected parts of the sermons of 1,176, and 198 (Saffarzadeh, 2008, Pp3-16)
- II. Translation of Nahjol-Balaghah by Syed Ali Reza, the same selected parts as above. (Reza, 1971, p20-116)
- III. Translation of Hazrat Fatemeyh Zahra's Sermon (Fadak) by Farideh mahdavi Damghani from her book, (Damghani, 2011, p.145-172)
- IV. Translation of Hazrat Fatemeyh Zahra's Sermon (Fadak) by Ansarin (Ansarin, 2008, p33-59).

The properties of selected corpora

To evaluate cross- inquiries of the designation in this research, amongst sermons, the two sermons of Nahjol-Balaghah, 176th, and 198th conveying probable sense of theology and morality, were conducted into the research.

I. Nahjol-Balaghah, sermon 176

Seeking benefit from the sayings of Allah, being admonished of Allah and accepting the advice of Allah, it is because Allah has left no excuse for you by providing clear guidance. The greatness of the Holy Qur'an. About the believers and their good deeds, the hypocrites, and their bad deeds, it is being addressed (al-islam, 2020).

II. Nahjol-Balaghah, sermon 198

Imam Ali Ibn Abu Talib, advising his companions about prayers, pledges to uphold prayers and to remain steady on it; offers prayer as much as possible and seeks nearness (to Allah) through it because it is (imposed)

upon the believers as a timed ordinance (Holy Quran, 4:103), (Al-Jibouri, 2009. p.625).

III. Upon Fadak sermon

Indeed, it required a great skill to show the indignation and to criticize the existing conditions in a way that gives the words a meaning of life and a chance of eternity to make the words as the soldiers of the revolution and its eternal support in the history of the faith. It is the faith and the death defiance for the sake of the truth that make the weak souls great and give power to the frustrated spirits without any hesitation or feebleness (Ayoub, 2012. p.12). Imam as-Sadr discussed the case of Fadak according to the Fatimite perspective, which referred to its ramified dimensions in relation to the aspects of the Islamic life and the later ages. So, he considered it (the case of Fadak) as a comprehensive revolution. He discussed the background of the case according to the thoughts rankling in Fatima's mind and the great memories of her father, Prophet Muhammad (s), circuiting in her mind. Then she came to a bitter phenomenon surging with unlimited ordeal and sedition. All that motivated her to squawk and to announce her start to confront. Then, Sayyid as-Sadr moved to the second chapter (Fadak in its real meaning and symbolic meaning). He defined Fadak and moved with it through the successive historical periods since it was extorted from Fatima (s) until what became of it at the last days of the Abbasid reign. Then, he moved to the third chapter (the history of the revolution), in which he talked about the revolution, defining the conditions of the research and the method of writing the biography of the individuals and the umma (Ayoub, 2012.p,5).

Comparatively observing, the features of the two sermons of Nahjol-Balaghah, 176th,

and 198th conveying probable sense of theology as well as morality, on one hand, and the aspects evinced from Fadak sermon with near seven sections of undulating upsurge of sense in a court like episode, on the other hand, can be instinctively emanated from the figurative image in the translators' mind into translating procedures that, to feasible extent of this research, has been undertaken to arrive at possible outcomes for further investigation.

Typology of Explication

The shifts within the explicature were covered separately in the concept of expansion/completion/enrichment of the utterance's logical forms. However, for the purpose of investigating explication in translation, it would be helpful if we expand the explication framework to include the shifts of expansion/completion within explicatures in transmitter text, i.e., the concepts of 'explication' and 'expansion/completion/enrichment in target text.

The expansion consists of replacing each indexical element by an expression that has the same reference as the indexical element it replaces but whose referent stays fixed with variations in time, place, speaker, etc. (Carston, 2002, p. 31). There are many possible completions all of which may uniquely denote the entity picked out in context by the original non-uniquely denoting description (Carston, 2002, p. 36). There is a range of processes, which can be loosely called cases of pragmatic enrichment (or development), that are required in the recovery of the proposition the speaker intended to express (an explicature) (Carston, 2002, p. 118).

In this research according to Carsten, three levels of assessment of expansion/completion/enrichment have been

employed; in addition, through the use and accumulating of the translation unit (CCS) of complex compound clauses, and mega-translation units (MCCS) of complex compound clauses (Dixon & Aikhenvald, 2009, p.2-3), estimated to decade onto and into contextual and reflective of the translators' determining in translating procedural turbulent line if necessitating, the study is analyzing to depict this process as much as possible.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires have been employed on the translated texts. The informants are seen as partners in the research and have more active involvement in constructing of the research process. Since each linguistic category of the TL, which is going to be investigated with Persian and Arabic counterparts, has its own features, the investigative procedures for each are conducted and described in a specific and separate tables and figures. On the basis of the findings of the descriptive translated texts, they are incorporated into total figure for identifying correlations among segments upon the underlying concept of translation, figurative mind image of the situation and sense. The layout of this questionnaire is constructed into five parts, each with an approximate corresponding box to be filled out by the surveyees from very low to very high. Then, each obtained data by its percentage of distribution included in the table and alongside in separate figure is presented for attaining unconsciously/consciously implied subtle sense of figurative translating mind image out onto surface of the translated texts.

Data analysis

The procedure attempts to arrive at the outcomes of the survey for the textual equivalents and the figurative picture they may expose in translated texts into English through Arabic and Persian of Nahjul-Balaaq by the two translators, (Reza, 1971, p. 20-116), and (Saffarzadeh, 2008, p. 3-16), encompassed into table1 as the following. It should be noted that this case ought to be comprised of highly sophisticated consideration in view of involving three languages over and across this path, of which the intermediate stage in the process of translating development, the transmitter, here the Persian language, certainly establishes subtle linguistic and cultural investigation into the impacts of this phenomenon upon translating procedure. The percentages represented above point out almost very close distances between similar levels; the diversion of data analyzed goes through 2% for both translators, (Reza, 1971, .20-116), and (Saffarzadeh, 2008, p. 3-16), in high mode up to 4 percent at most in very high state. 20-degree dimension displays the distance between the sums of the two versions from the viewpoints of ten scholars who answered to the survey for the equivalence and reflective figurative image they perceive through translations. However, it may depict meaningful observation of parallel strategies of the two translators. Figure 1 delineates the perspective disturbing trend of translating strategies responding to contextual meaning to be conveyed. The close symmetrical reaction of the two translators can be conspicuous.

The same survey has been performed for obtaining the implications of the contextual equivalents and situational perspective of Fadak by the two translators from the second ten scholars' viewpoints as conducted in table 2, and the impression emanated from

Table1

Statistics and percentages of translation surveys of Nahjul-Balaqa (Arabic - English – Persian-on CDA procedure)

Translator's name	Very low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	Sum
Raza	15	29	144	240	47	475
Percentage	3%	7%	30%	50%	10%	100%
Saffarzadeh	16	23	144	221	51	455
Percentage	3%	5%	30%	48%	14%	100%

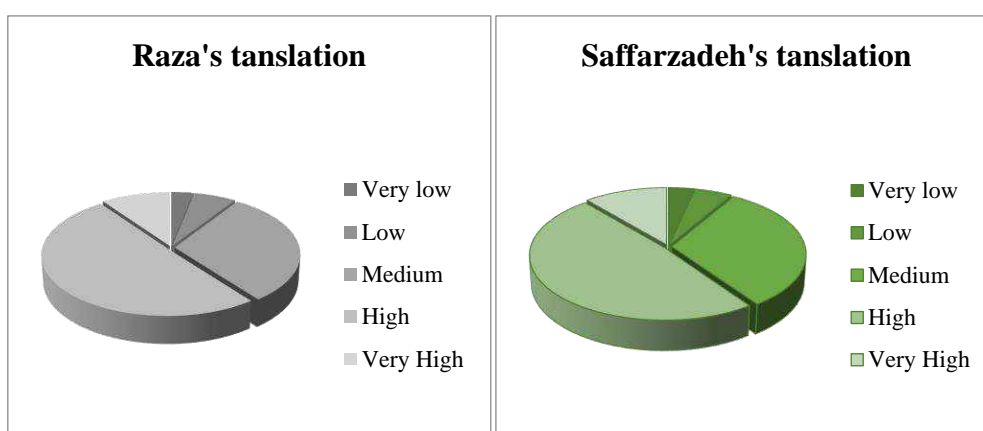


Figure 1. The perspective disturbing trend of translating strategies upon figurative image brought onto by the translator from the viewer’s mind picture

instinctively figurative mind directed from the viewers associated with figure 2.

It represents that the translated texts demonstrate a gap of 88-degree dimension in total image created by Ansariyan’s translation (Ansarin, 2008, p. 33-59), (total of 901), and Damghani’s translation (Damghani, 2011, p.145-172), (total of 989) appreciated from the viewpoints alongside analogous tendency revealed in this procedure. Again, as it can be inferred the obtained spans represent not very noticeable observation that this may imply the translators’ endeavors in sustaining corresponding equivalence and not to cross it as possible.

The three procedures of explicitation strategies, expansion/completion/enrichment,

along with their distribution percentages are brought in table 3.

This is taken for evaluating almost each translator’s approach towards translating due to their mental bounds in order not to violate translation surface equivalent under TQA tendency.

The percentage of the distribution for each translation explicitation found in the target text given in table 3 indicates that the explicitation strategies details, however, are different; the same amount is obtained in enrichment treatment, 1%. This, regarding the situational context at feasible innermost of content meaning, can be meaningful for maintaining translation production as near the source text as possible. Enrichment, loose or free narrowing, occurs most often in

Table 2

Statistics of translation surveys of Fadak (Arabic - English – Persian- on CDA procedure)

Translator's name	Very low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	Sum
Ansariyan	21	67	416	286	111	901
Percentage	3%	8%	46%	31%	12%	100%
Damghani	12	44	446	405	82	989
Percentage	1%	5%	45%	40%	9%	100%

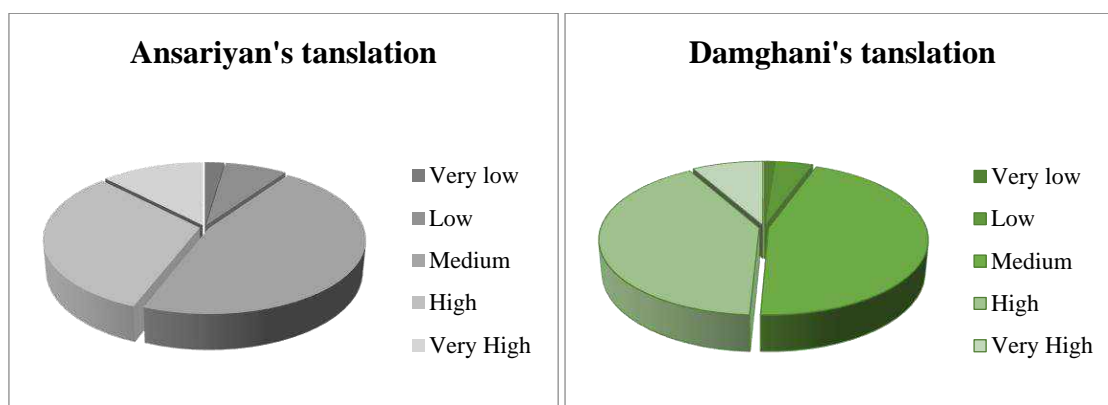


Figure 2. The perspective disturbing trend of translating strategies upon figurative image brought onto by the translator from the viewer’s mind picture

Table 3

Percentages of the distribution for each translation explicitation in target text of Nahjul-Balaqa (on TQA inclination)

Translator	expansion	completion	enrichment
Raza	95	20	1
percentage of Distribution	82%	17%	1%
Saffarzadeh	95	33	1
percentage of Distribution	74%	25%	1%

rendering of a refraction mixture of deep content meaning that is found to be drawn into cross linguistic, cultural and ideological bounds. Identical value in enrichment may also connote the main translators’ concern for

being most adhered to the principles of equivalence production. Nonetheless, as to the expansion, replacing each indexical element by the same reference, table 3 reveals 82% and 74% for Reza’s and Saffarzadeh’s

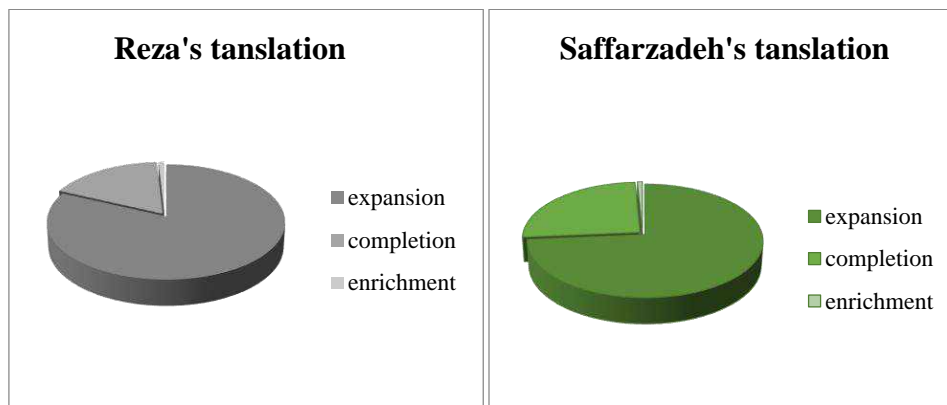


Figure 3. The perspective disturbing trend of translating strategies employed by the translator through expansion/completion/enrichment in rendering Nahjul-Balaqa (on TQA inclination)

translations respectively with 8% distance. For completion, strengthening the proposition expressed, it yields 17% for Reza's translation, and 25% for the Saffarzadeh's translation with 8% divergence between them. Substantial elements in utterances prevails upon expansion and completion that the two mentioned translators have maintained more likely to expose and address equivalence in translating the intertextual sacred texts of Nahjul-Balaqa.

Table 4 offers the percentage of the distribution for each translation approach of explicitation occurred in the rendered target text of Fadak over translating procedure adopted by Ansariyan's and Damghani's translations. The explicitation strategies here have also been placed into the expansion, completion, and enrichment based upon the clauses and phrases diffusion. Thereafter, deducible and cohesive implications delved into schematic inner picture as possible onto the surface of translation pertaining to the commuting communications saturated with turbulent marked remarks in breathtaking surroundings are depicted in figure 4 inferred from table 4.

Table 4 represents the various properties of 10, 2, and 9 percent in expansion/completion/enrichment between

Ansariyan's translating and Damghani's translating. As evidenced, Damghani's translating is adopting 9 percent more in enrichment than Ansariyan's in translating that they respectively entail appreciating figurative expressiveness. The varying usage of explicitation strategies in translating text of Fadak could stand somehow for the reflection of the translators' implicatures of the figurative image beyond the equivalence of the source text. An overview of the translating procedure in Fadak translation by each translator has been offered in the sequential phases as recognized below:

Table 5 offers the numbers of translation units in which CCS and M CCS (units of translation) occur in Ansariyan's performance. In this step, measures taken for CCS and M CCS (units of translation) occurrence appraisal have been taken after assessment of translation units, "the simultaneous consecutive comprehension in the SL and production in the TL of a text segment the size of which is limited by WM [working memory] capacity and the boundaries of which are identifiable through pauses" (Dragsted, 2004, p274), and "TL segments produced between pauses" (Englund-Dimitrova, 2005, p29).

Below comes Figure 5 (The numbers of translation units in which CCS and MCCS occur-Ansariyan’s translating), which is an

attempt made to reproduce a view for the movement of explicitation strategies that are applied by Ansariyan’s translating.

Table 4

Percentage of the distribution for each translation explicitation in target text of Fadak (on TQA inclination)

Translator	expansion	completion	enrichment
Ansariyan	185	116	47
percentage of Distribution	53%	33%	14%
Damghani	190	156	101
percentage of Distribution	43%	35%	23%
Sum	375	272	148

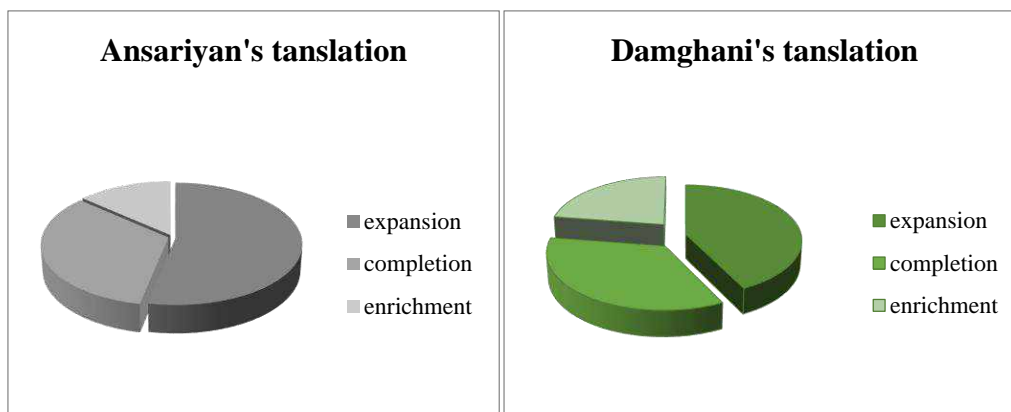


Figure 4. the perspective disturbing trend of translating strategies employed by the translator through expansion/completion/enrichment in rendering Fadak (on TQA inclination)

Table 5

The numbers of translation units in which CCS and MCCS occurrence, Ansariyan’s translation

CCS	83	88	91	93	123	124	126	127	128	129	130	131	133	134	136	137	138	139	140	143	145	146
MCCS	135	141	147	150	154	158	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	149	151	152	153	155	156	157	159	160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	159	170	171	172	187
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

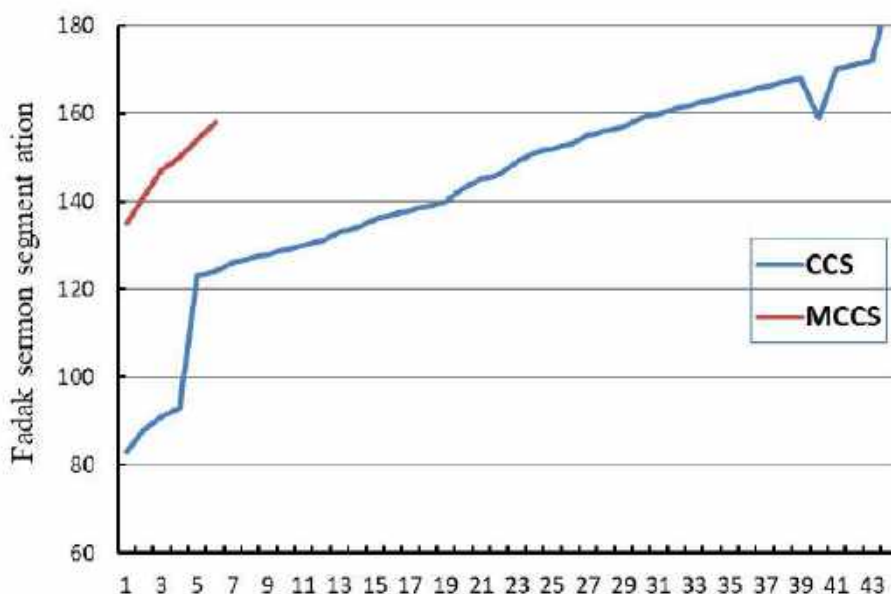


Figure 5. The numbers of translation units in which CCS and MCCS occurrence, Ansariyan’s translation

Figure 5 shows that in 6 cases, Ansariyan’s translation has applied MCCS and 44 ones for CCS (units of translation). The same procedure has been considered for Damghani’s translation who, by calculating the MCCS and CCS (units of translation), has exploited MCCS 33 times, and 27 times for CCS. These are drawn up in table 6.

Figure 6 expresses the same procedure for Damghani’s translation. By observing this graph, it can be inferred that Damghani in translating has made use of MCCS 27 times more, and 17 times CCS (units of translation) less than Ansariyan in translating.

Figure 7 depicts the integration of the data above. From this graph an overall implication of explicitation strategies may reach at the sight. Damghani in translation as to enrichment strategy gets ahead of Ansariyan’s.

For gaining a more comprehensive perspective, the above data is illustrated into figure 8. This section constitutes a CDA analysis with the data gathered, by which the reflection of situational utterance in target

text may be highlighted. Figure 8 has presented seven areas of the context of Fadak for CDA analysis: into these seven varying situational contexts of utterance can be identified. This may state the significance of the atmosphere dominated over the event of speech utterance that the translator through his or her figurative mind image of the conceptuality, intertextuality, cross linguistic, equivalence, and beyond takes into consideration.

Conclusions

The implications of this research may be categorized into the followings: Comparatively observing the religious and literary translated texts through both TQA and CDA, especially in the presence of intertextualities, it can be inferred that however, languages differ in the ways in which they are organized, the transfer of equivalence and its image of the situation at a wider glance will be created for better translation alongside undeniable standards of translation. The important thing is to set aside

Table 6

The numbers of translation units in which CCS and MCCS occur-Damghani's translation

CCS	83	88	91	93	123	124	126	127	128	129	130	131	133	134	136	137	138	139	140	143	145	146
MCCS	135	141	147	150	154	158	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	149	151	152	153	155	156	157	159	160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	159	170	171	172	187

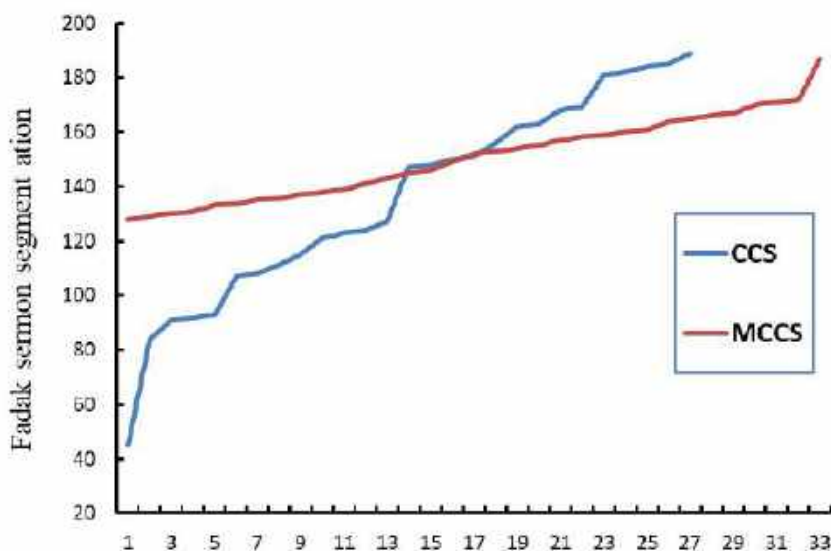


Figure 6. The numbers of translation units in which CCS and MCCS occur-Damghani's translation

all the words of the [original] text and see the picture clearly. It is the idea or the picture that is of paramount importance to be communicated, not just equivalents of the actual words. Some types of text are culture-specific and simply have no exact equivalent in other languages. Thus, Translation corpora can be an ideal resource for establishing equivalence between languages since they convey the same semantic content.

The context of utterance, and the universe of discourse out of this study indicate that cross-linguistic, intertextuality, and figurative

mind through utterance to sentence to proposition, and to the universe of discourse eminently but challengingly stay vital to be observed. Furthermore, it is worth noting that the shift of focus from language system to text correlates with situational context, ideological and cultural environment, and along with these into consideration, the explicitation strategies that the translator adapts and adopts may vary to some or more extent depending upon translator's figurative contextual images in mind.

Through negotiation between the translator

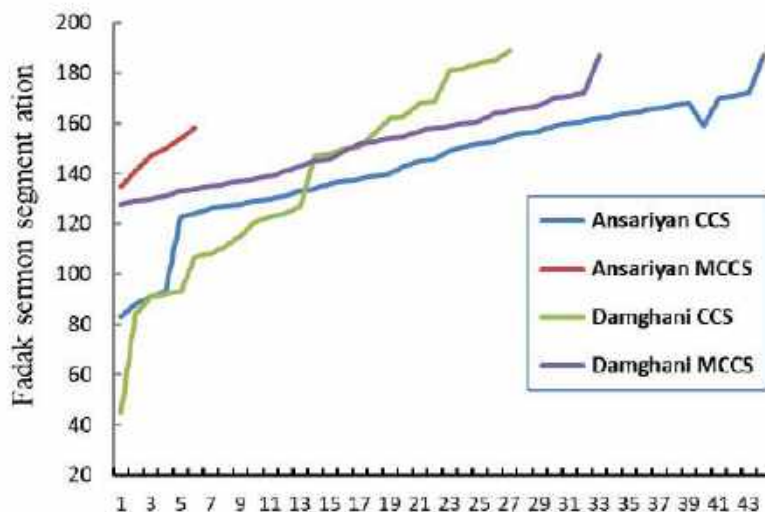


Figure 7. The numbers of translation units in which CCS and MCCA occurrence-Ansariyan-Damghani in translating

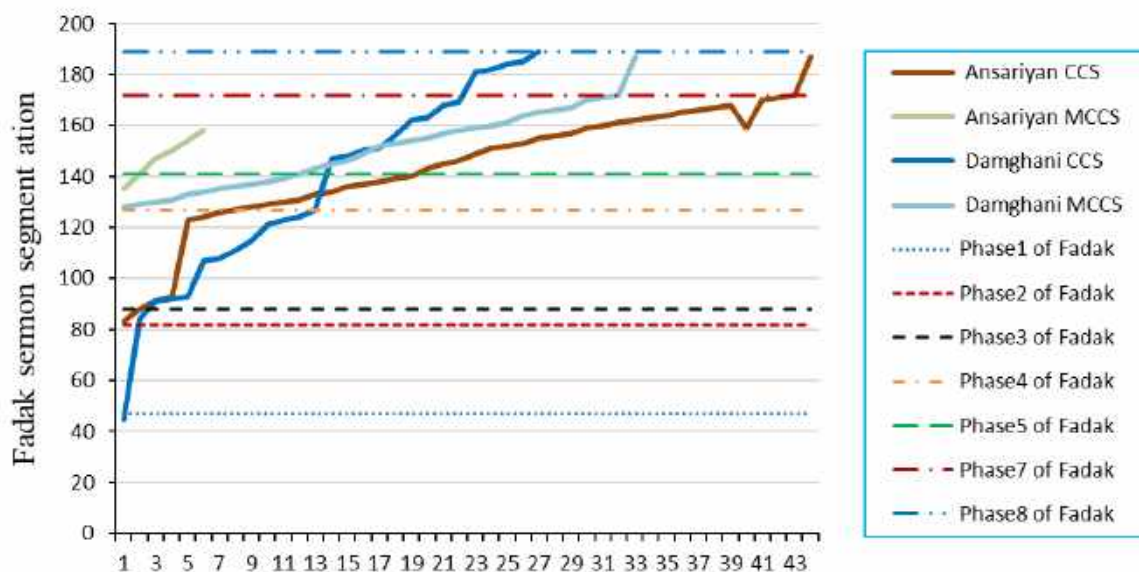


Figure 8. Fused TQA and CDA data analysis in seven varying situational Phases of Fadak (reflective tendency of the translators’ figurative equivalence)

and those who professionally study, work teach or practice religious texts either at universities or related institutions pertinent to the domain there, remains great significance before the translation procedure takes place.

Translation as both art and science requires practically being reviewed as an intra-interring disciplinary field across and beyond. Situational meaning which is crucial to the understanding of any text, the message is

produced in a given communication situation, and the relationship between the writer or speaker and the addressee will affect the communication, all these observations altogether with connection to the concepts of the field in question can be potential means for translator.

The English translations in similar procedures in maintaining equivalence have

evinced analogous findings, which may point towards preserving equivalence homogeneously by the translators. However, Situational domains for depicting figurative mind image necessitate certain varied orientations in contextual transcending and rendering.

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Promoting Intercultural Competence and Speaking Ability Through Developing Language Learning Materials

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ABSTRACT

Coursebooks are normally written to contain information, instruction, exposure, and activities that learners at a particular level need to enhance their communicative competence in the target language (Tomlinson, 2013). However, many global coursebooks make attempts to include content, topics, and texts that do not advantage any learner around the world. That is why, they usually wind up being dull, sanitized, and bland, deprived of little meaningful efforts to promote intercultural competence among learners. Therefore, this study aims at investigating the impact of developing language learning materials on enhancing EFL learners' intercultural competence and speaking ability. To this aim, of 40 homogenous EFL learners, 20 students were chosen into experimental groups and other 20 students were chosen into control groups. Both two groups had Intercultural Competence Questionnaire, and Preliminary English Test (PET) as a pretest for checking their cultural awareness and speaking ability. Whereas the experimental group benefitted from the framework of Text driven approach suggested by as Tomlinson (2013), the control group did not have manipulation in their instruction. The results show differences in experimental classes and control classes, in intercultural competence and speaking ability. In total, the findings indicated that developing language learning materials by Text driven approach encouraged the students to have information about other cultures. In addition, it helped the learners to improve their speaking skills.

Keywords: *Intercultural competence, Speaking ability, Developing language learning materials*

Introduction

The environment in which the language learning takes place has always been a matter of concern to second language acquisition (SLA) researchers (Martin, 2015). It is claimed that learners who are engaged in dynamic, interactive instruction are “organically” involved in their instructional

experience (Darabi, et al., 2007). Thus, it can be discussed that, learning environments that employ stimulating and intriguing learning strategies are more likely to engage learners than passive instructional strategies. The implementation of the most suitable, or the most appropriate, way of teaching a language

is “a clear and classic applied linguistic problem” (Cook, 2003, p. 38). Materials for language learning refer to anything which is used to facilitate the learning process of a language, anything that is used to engage language learners for deep learning and help them fully concentrate on the task (Tomlinson, 2011a, 2011b). Tomlinson, 2000, 2008a; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). On other hand, coursebooks as a material are placed at the heart of English teaching settings (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Sheldon, 1988). Moreover, as Tomlinson (2003a) points out, coursebooks should create, motivation, and help for the students to make meaningful connections in their minds. Language teachers mostly use textbooks as instruction tools in their classroom, whereas such global textbooks do not cater for every individual learner’s needs and wants as they normally include contents, topics, and texts that are not suitable for any type of learners.

Therefore, this is up to language teachers to produce, evaluate, and adapt language teaching materials for their own classrooms. That is to say, every teacher should be a materials developer, having the ability to produce materials that perfectly fit into his learners’ language proficiency level, interests, needs and wants and higher level of engagement. Learning materials can be comprised of a vast range of learning tools which in some extend facilitate the process of learning. These materials can include linguistic, visual, auditory and kinesthetic tools, which can be used exclusively or along with other materials in learning classes. These materials can also be labeled as instructional, experiential, elicitive or exploratory, in which learners may become aware of different aspects of the language. These types of materials can also make learners capable of

simulating the language that they are using and help to discoveries (Tomlinson, 2003).

Tomlinson (2011) has also claimed that learners may find it more convenient and peaceful while working on materials in different ways, as they are mentioned in following: (a) Learners will find it more convenient while dealing with written materials, (b) Learners will find it more convenient if materials are in text and illumination forms, especially if these forms are interwoven with their own culture, and (c) Learners will find it much easier to deal with, if they are asked to work on those materials which are transparently trying to assist them to learn Intercultural demands to raise an awareness and comprehension of the visible and invisible dimensions of culture, and the features that are embedded in the language (Newton et al., 2010). Thus, as previously stated, because relying on mere linguistic processing does not ascertain cultural competence (Deardorff, 2009), teachers need to develop both language and cultural competence in their learners in order to engage learners in the discovery of the intercultural dimension in the language classroom. One way that teachers can use to achieve this purpose is the use of materials that present adequate and appropriate degree of exposure to the target language culture this is significant in the EFL contexts such as Iran where learners gain much of their exposure to the target language through main materials such as textbooks and other supplementary sources such as the Internet, videos and so forth.

Research questions:

- 1) Do developing language learning materials have any impacts on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners?

- 2) Do developing language learning materials have any impacts on enhancing intercultural competence of Iranian EFL learners?

Language Learning Materials

Language learning materials are essential elements of any language since their lack would inhibit the success of the teaching and learning process. Therefore, the teaching materials function as a performer to teachers and learners so that they can depend on them to follow the teaching and learning processes according to established agenda (Tomlinson, 2011). The materials in this study included a series of units developed by the researcher which aimed at integrating the learners' first language (i.e., Farsi) culture as well as the target culture (i.e., English). Edge & Garton (2009) claim that materials support teaching, so they should be designed to be proper for the people engaged. Majority of teachers are not creators of teaching materials but providers of good materials. Hence, teachers may adapt the materials in order that they can provide good materials for their students. McGrath (2002) mentions that the textbook can only provide props and framework for classroom teaching; and no textbook can be considered appealing to all teachers or learners at a specific level. McDonough & Shaw (1993) also propose that textbooks, internally coherent although they may be, may not be thoroughly applicable. Elsewhere, McGrath (2013) suggests that any given coursebook will be unable of catering for the differentiation of needs which are common in most language classrooms. Sheldon (1988) addresses lack of cultural fitness of some textbooks, i.e. the thinking underlying the textbook writing may be various from or in conflict with the assumptions considered by the instructors. The problems presented here

are by no means exhaustive, but the key point remains: teachers, with complete personal knowledge of their classroom teaching should consider textbooks as their servants instead of masters, as a resource or an 'ideas bank' which can stimulate teachers' own creative potential (Cunningsworth, 1984).

A second language (L2) teaching approach grounded in the consideration of the target culture targets language learners' need to not only acquire effective language skills, but also to build up competent intercultural capacities, leading ultimately to efficient communications with the speakers of the target language and culture (Paige et al., 2003). Accordingly, teachers are expected to facilitate learners' way through becoming interculturally proficient individuals that can accomplish high levels of linguistic proficiency and communicative competence that are essential for intercultural communication (Byram, 1997, 2006). Nonetheless, it needs to be noted that ICC in the classroom may pose some challenges to language teachers in helping learners construct a competence that they may have not formed themselves since the new teaching difficulties are large-scale and for many language teachers they can often appear as impossible (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2000). To be able to smooth the progress of adopting and using such materials adequately, language teachers need to have the knowledge of and access to the practices of the culturally appropriate pedagogies (Richards, 2017).

The Significance of Material Development

Tomlinson (2016) define development as a practical procedure that consists of the production, assessment, adjustment and implementation of materials that are aimed at

facilitating the language learning and development. It is also an academic reality that examines the standards and processes of designing, composing, using, assessing and analyzing the learning materials. In fact, materials development practitioners and researchers cooperate and enlighten each other through seminars, publications and shared endeavors. A number of advances have been taken place which attempted to develop approaches to language teaching that are devoid of any materials such as the Dogme movement of Thornbury & Meddings (2001). However, it is generally agreed and verified that in the majority of language classrooms around the globe, nearly all lessons are still delivered through the use of different sorts of materials Richards (2001). It is also largely acknowledged that a large number of language teachers use coursebooks and that no single coursebook can, in fact, satisfy the goals and interests of every (or even any) class (Tomlinson, 2012). This implies that teachers are, indeed, materials developers themselves who continuously measure the accessible materials, adjusting them, substituting them, complementing them and discovering appropriate ways to use the materials selected for classroom use. This holds true today since the conditions on publishing imposes that most coursebooks on the market be designed in a global fit-to-all cases type for all learners of English while most English learners these days are learning English in unique and idiosyncratic contexts for different purposes.

The Material Development Procedure

Tomlison (2012) refers to the significant point that the process of materials development is far more impromptu and

unstructured than what is normally expected or assumed. Nevertheless, Mishan & Timmis (2015) highlight a number of systematic attempts for standardizing the materials developmental processes across the literature. Those comprise Richards (1995), Prowse (2011) and Stoller & Robinson (2014). Among these processes, however, it seems that the most relevant is the one advocated by Jolly and Bolitho in Tomlinson (2012). Materials development is a process far from being linear. The stages are rather flexible and have a cyclical character. The fundamental features contain the needs analysis, contextual relevance and a constant evaluation. In some ways, it also bears similarities with the ways that a large number of teachers select and adapt materials in their classroom. Having a lesson and identifying the learners, teachers move through the folders they amalgamated over the years, search through online worksheets or even type information up from scratch. Learners' needs as well as their capabilities, motivation, interests, objectives and learning styles are at all times major elements in their final decisions. If a lesson goes quite well, teachers tend to store the materials that they used for future purposes.

Types of Material

Materials that are used by the teachers in the classroom can be of several types; however, nowadays, the emphasis is on the authenticity of materials whatever type it is. Authentic materials would be utilized in the classroom, the most popular and frequently used ones include online websites, chat software, blogs, texts based on real events and stories, and so forth. Another significant feature of authentic materials is the boldness of culture in them. Those materials that do not attend to culture in any way can be said to be

away from the standards of authentic sources (Berardo, 2006). Exploitability concerns the ways that materials can be used to enhance the learners' competence as language users. A source that is not to be exploited for teaching purposes has no place in the classroom. Only because a particular source is in English does not necessarily make it useful for the teaching purpose. Thus, it is vital to measure the right level for the right learners which materials developers attain through specific readability measures. Variety and presentation also have impacts on the selection of authentic materials (Berardo, 2006). A speaking course, for instance, would turn into a more interesting environment if different types of discussion topics are used. Whether the source looks authentic or not, is also very significant when presenting it to the learners (Berardo, 2006). The authentic presentation, through the use of pictures, diagrams, photographs, videos, online activities and etc. help learners find interest in interacting with them. To summarize, care should be taken by both materials developers and teachers who are the consumers of the materials in the use of real-world tasks and activity to better prepare learner for the actual use of the target language.

The Significance of Intercultural Competence

As one of the aspects which has an association with 'intercultural competence', 'global citizenship' needs to be mentioned. As it was mentioned above, a great deal of research has been undertaken in the field to elaborate an appropriate definition for 'intercultural competence' which has led to many different definitions and understandings thus far. In this regard, 'intercultural competence' would be defined

in following way from a different perspective. As one of the important elements in 'intercultural competence', 'culture' cannot be overlooked. Culture in general can be defined as the way that people live, including expected behavior, beliefs, values, language and living practices shared by members of a society. Culture has been divided into two separate categories as explicit and implicit, which through each rule experience is interpreted (McKinnon, 2017). In Figure 1, the constituent elements of intercultural competence are presented.



Figure 1. Constituent elements of intercultural competence

Methods

Participants

40 homogenous EFL learners within the age range of 18-30 were chosen. The participants were selected through convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is a sampling that relies on data collection from population. All of participants were native speakers of Persian with Persian culture. The participants were selected through administering Preliminary English Test (PET) as a proficiency test and they were divided in two groups, one of them experimental group and the other control group, each including 20 participants, whose

scores on test were between one SD above and one SD below the mean.

Instruments

To homogenize the general level of the students Preliminary English Test (PET) as a proficiency test and Intercultural Competence Questionnaire (Ashraf et al., 2013) were used to measure degrees of cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards the cultural elements embedded within the English textbooks. Intercultural Competence Questionnaire is a 5-point (1= “strongly agree” to 5= “no idea”) Likert scaling questionnaire, including 44 items. Cross tabulation table puts participants under four different categories ranging from “Strongly Affected to Not Affected”. As Ashraf et al. (2013) report, the reliability of the questionnaire is 0.870.

The questionnaire is a 5-point (1= “strongly agree” to 5= “no idea”) Likert scaling questionnaire, including 44 items. Reliable data is important. PET and Intercultural Competence Questionnaire was estimated through Cronbach’s Alpha internal consistency measure on a pilot sample of 25 students before starting the main study.

Data Collection Procedure

For experimental group, the researcher developed 10 units, but for control group, the researcher brought the textbook (Top Notch 3) to promote EFL learner’s intercultural competence and speaking ability.

During instructional intervention, the researcher applied the principles of Text-driven approach in the experimental group. While the control group was not exposed to any instructional intervention, they just benefitted from conventional teaching.

Tomlinson (2003a, 2010) believes that there are the types of materials and activities

which engage language learners in EFL classroom. As Tomlinson points out, text-driven approaches are developing a unit of the coursebook, each unit is an engaging text. Also, text-driven approach has been suggested by a range of researchers (Gilmore, 2007; Masuhara, 2013; McDonough, et al., 2013; Mishan, 2005; Park, 2013; Tomlinson, 2003a, 2013c) to engage learners in learning process. For learners’ engagement, all the activities in the coursebook or units of the books are designed.

Text-driven Framework for Developing Language Learning Materials

In readiness activities, the learners do not necessarily have to talk but think and try to generate connections to the texts (Tomlinson, 2013c). The important point is that the lesson starts in the learners’ minds and not in the text and that the activities help the learners to gain a personal experience of the text which connects it to their lives (Tomlinson, 2013). However, as readiness activities, the teachers could ask the learners to visualize, to think of connections, to articulate their views, to recount episodes from their lives, to share their knowledge, to make predictions or anything which gets them to activate connections in their minds which will help them when they start to experience the text (Tomlinson, 2003a). For example tell learners to think or imagine about their favorite food and explain why they like it or show the different foods in other countries and they explain differences and similarities of the foods in both culture.

Therefore, initial response is an activity; the learners are asked to have mental representation such as visualization or inner speech while listening to or reading the text

as they are asked to do in readiness activities (Tomlinson, 2010). Moreover, as Tomlinson (2013) points out, these activities need to be given to the learners just before they start to read or listen to the text and should be given through concise and simple instructions which are easy to remember and apply. Moreover, these activities are devised to help learners move away from their tendency to study texts so that they can engage with the text instead experientially (Tomlinson, 2003b). For example, tell the learners read the story and they should imagine the characters in the story or listen to the song and say about their feeling about the song and what they think about it.

In intake response activities, learners could ask clarification questions to the teacher who knows the text well besides multidimensional mental representation activities. Moreover, as Tomlinson (2013c) points out, these activities should not be criticized or graded but based on the idea of helping the learners to expand their initial responses by means of sharing ideas with peers or getting help from the teacher. In other words, the learners perform various personalized tasks by continuing it, relocating it, changing the writer's views, personalizing it and responding to it (Tomlinson, 2003b). Development activities involve the learners going back to the text before going forward to produce something new (Tomlinson, 2013). The point is that they can base their language production both on what they have already understood from the text and on connections with their own lives. While talking or writing they will gain opportunities to learn a new language and develop new skills and, if they are affectively engaged in an achievable challenge, they will learn a lot from each other and from the teacher. For example, the teacher gives reading or writing such as about different

foods or clothes in other countries, the learners should write about differences and similarities.

Input response activities invite the learners to use high level thinking skills such as criticizing or creating in the target language. Two types of tasks belong to this category:

- Interpretation tasks

Interpretation tasks provide the learners opportunities to think more deeply about the text aiming at helping learners to develop critical and creative thinking skills in the target language by asking deep questions and debate about issues of the text (Tomlinson, 2013c).

- Awareness tasks

Awareness tasks help learners to be aware of language use, of communication strategies, of discourse features, of genre characteristics or text-type features (Tomlinson, 1994, 2013c). The important point is that evidence is provided in a text which the learners have already experienced holistically and then they are helped to make focused discoveries through discrete attention to a specified feature of the text.

However, the experimental group received an instruction through activities designed under the principles of the Text-Driven Approach presented by (Tomlinson, 2003); the control group was not exposed to any instructional intervention, and they just benefited from conventional teaching.

Intercultural Competence Questionnaire was used and completed in this study to measure awareness about intercultural competence of the learners. For measuring pretest and posttest used PET questionnaires happened both prior and after the treatment.

The control group had conventional method of teaching and received no treatment. After receiving the treatment, the

students had the posttest in two cases. To check the impact of promoting intercultural competence and speaking ability through developing materials (units), Intercultural Competence Questionnaire was administered after the completion of the instruction again. Also, for determining the effect of developing materials on learners' speaking ability, the researcher again asked all of the students to complete the Preliminary English Test (PET). When both pretests and posttests were ready, it was time to score them both before and after receiving the effect of developing materials on intercultural competence and speaking ability.

Results

Introduction

In order to analyze the collected data, the Statistical Procedures for Social Sciences (SPSS) software via version 25 was used. In order to answer the first research question, the non-parametric Mann Whitney *U* Test was conducted. Therewith, One-way ANCOVA was run for the second research question.

As it can be seen in the table 1, it is showing the normality between the mean 52.96 and standard deviation 10.56. In addition, through the ratios of skewness and kurtosis the normality was checked.

As it can be seen in the Table 2 Alpha values for PET and Cultural Awareness were found 0.85, and 0.77 respectively which are acceptable indices for reliability. The internal consistency of the instruments was estimated. The internal consistency of the utilized instruments for the cultural awareness and PET were .768, .854 respectively.

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the speaking and writing scores by the two raters; the mean scores for writing R1 and R2

(M=12.72, M=12.48) and the standard deviations for both writings (SD= 3.61, SD= 3.33), the mean scores for speaking R1 and R2 (M=7.24, M=7.20) and the standard deviations for both speaking (SD=1.71, SD=1.70), researcher used the Pearson Correlation Coefficient as a parametric test.

As it can be seen from Table 4 below, the correlation coefficient ($r= 0.908$, $p= 0.0005 < 0.05$) turned out to be significant.

According to the table 5, in piloting test for homogenizing, selected 60 participated students, the average score rendered by the two raters was considered as the final writing and speaking scores of the participants.

As mentioned on the Table 6, the PET scores were selected as the homogenous students the range of 40 and 57.

After selecting homogenous students that shows on the table 7, they were divided into two experimental groups of control and experimental each 20 students.

As it is illustrated in table 8, the two groups had exactly the same mean, 50.65 for both groups.

As table 9 displays, the assumption of equal variance was met ($F= .0005$, $p=1 > .05$). Furthermore, the results were reported for the t-test data analysis with equal variances ($t=.0005$, $df= 38$, $p= 1 > .05$). it is showing that between the experimental group and control group there is no significance.

Table 10 shows that the mean for experimental group turned out to be 6.75 and that of the description control group was 6.70.

The standard deviations were 1.06 and 0.57 respectively. Moreover, the skewness ratios (-0.59 and 0.07, respectively) also showed that the distributions of speaking ability scores were normal in both groups.

According to Table 11, the assumption of equal variance was met ($F= 9.194$, $p=0.946 > 0.05$). The results of *t*-test on the

Table 1
Descriptive statistics of PET piloting

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness			Kurtosis		
				Statistic	Error	Std. Ratio	Statistic	Error	Std. Ratio
Piloting of PET	25	52.960	10.56519	-0.213	0.464	-0.46	-1.289	0.902	-1.43
Valid N (listwise)	25								

Table 2
Results of Cronbach's Alpha analysis of scales piloted on 25 students

	Number of Participants	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
PET Pilot	25	65	0.854
Cultural Awareness	25	44	0.768

Table 3
Descriptive statistics speaking/writing scores by the two raters

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness			Kurtosis		
				Statistic	Error	Std. Ratio	Statistic	Error	Std. Ratio
Writing R1	25	12.7200	3.61156	-0.232	0.464	-0.5	-1.201	0.902	-1.33
Writing R2	25	12.4800	3.33067	-0.253	0.464	-0.54	-1.156	0.902	-1.28
Speaking R1	25	7.2400	1.71464	-0.082	0.464	-0.18	-1.580	0.902	-1.75
Speaking R2	25	7.2000	1.70783	0.371	0.464	0.80	-0.637	0.902	-0.71
Valid N (listwise)	25								

Table 4
Inter-rater reliability of the two raters in speaking scores

		speakingR1	speakingR2
Speaking R1	Pearson Correlation	1	0.908**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	0.000
	N	25	25
Speaking R2	Pearson Correlation	0.908**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	-
	N	25	25

Table 5
Inter-rater reliability of the two raters in writing scores

		writingR1	writingR2
Writing R1	Pearson Correlation	1	0.968**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	25	25
Writing R2	Pearson Correlation	0.968**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	25	25

Table 6
Descriptive statistics of PET main administration

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratio	Kurtosis		Ratio
				Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
Main PET	60	48.5500	7.83609	-0.458	0.309	-1.48	-1.113	0.608	-1.83
Valid N (listwise)	60								

Table 7

Descriptive statistics of the scores of the selected 44 students on the main PET

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratio	Kurtosis		Ratio
				Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
PET Selected	44	50.0227	5.65886	-0.505	0.357	-1.41	-1.137	0.702	-1.62
Valid N (listwise)	44								

Table 8

Descriptive statistics of the PET scores for the two groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratio	Kurtosis		Ratio
				Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
Experimental	20	50.6500	5.58452	-0.746	0.512	-1.46	-0.743	0.992	-0.75
Control	20	50.6500	5.51815	-0.741	0.512	-1.45	-0.746	0.992	-0.75
Valid N (listwise)	20								

Table 9

Independent samples t-Test on PET scores between the scores for the two groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of means					
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
PET Homogeneity	0.00	1.000	0.000	38	1.000	0.0000	1.75552	
Equal variances assumed								
Equal variances not assumed			0.000	37.995	1.000	0.0000	1.75552	

homogeneity of PET test ($t=-.184$, $df= 38$, $p=.855>.05$) shows that between 2 groups there is no significance.

In the table 12, it could be seen the experimental and control participants

obtained different mean scores on the post-test. It is clear that both groups showed an increase in the speaking scores. The standard deviation was 1.94 and 1.08.

According to the data presented in the table

Table 10

Descriptive statistics of the speaking PET scores for the two groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis			
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Error Std.	Ratio	
Experi Speaking	20	6.7500	1.06992	-0.304	0.512	-0.59	-1.092	0.992	-1.10
Control Speaking	20	6.7000	.57124	.038	0.512	0.07	-0.395	0.992	-0.40
Valid N (listwise)	20								

Table 11

Independent samples t-Test on speaking PET scores between the scores for the two groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of means					
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
								Equal variances assumed
PET Homogeneity	9.194	0.946	-0.184	38	0.855	-0.0500	0.27121	
			-0.184	29.018	0.855	-0.0500	0.27121	

13, with a ($Z = -3.590, p = .0005 < .05$). as you can see on the table the null hypothesis could be rejected and in post-test scores there was a significant difference between speaking ability of the two groups.

As reported by Table 14, the normality of the data was confirmed (not beyond permitted range of -1.96 and + 1.96) (George & Mallery, 2010). As a further safe guard, the normality distribution through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was also verified.

The results in Table 15 are demonstrated. As table 15 reports, the second hypothesis aimed the effectiveness of developing

language learning materials on enhancing intercultural awareness among Iranian EFL learners. As it was stated in chapter three, in order to investigate the research question, statistical technique of ANCOVA was used. Since ANCOVA requires that certain assumptions are met before using it, in this section the prerequisite assumptions of ANCOVA are examined.

As table 16 illustrates, there is a statistically significant level in the pretest of cultural awareness which is 0.32 and the confidence interval of 0.05. Thus, the scores of cultural awareness shows on regression slopes there

Table 12

Descriptive statistics of speaking ability posttest

	N	Minimum	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratio	Kurtosis		Ratio
				Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
Experi Speaking P	20	8.00	1.94395	0.895	0.512	1.75	-0.268	0.992	-0.27
Control Speaking P	20	7.00	1.08942	1.031	0.512	2.01	1.090	0.992	1.09
Valid N (listwise)	20								

Table 13

Result of Mann Whitney U Test on speaking scores

Groups		N	Z	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Speaking Post Test Scores	Control	20	-3.590	14.03	280.50	70.500	0.000
	Experimental	20		26.98	539.50		
	Total	40					

Table 14

Descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratio	Kurtosis		Ratio
				Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
Pre Control	20	153.9500	13.46917	0.136	0.512	0.27	-1.037	0.992	-1.04
Post Control	20	162.1500	14.75154	0.085	0.512	0.17	-0.731	0.992	-0.74
Pre Experimental	20	154.8000	15.81006	0.032	0.512	0.06	-1.180	0.992	-1.19
Post Experimental	20	169.7500	16.07834	-0.833	0.512	-1.63	0.751	0.992	0.76
Valid N (listwise)	20								

Table 15

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality on the scores of cultural awareness scores of control and experimental participants

	Groups	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Cultural Awareness Pretest (covariate)	Control	0.092	20	0.200*
	Experimental	0.089	20	0.200*
Cultural Awareness Posttest (dependent variable)	Control	0.110	20	0.200*
	Experimental	0.101	20	0.200*

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

** This is a lower bound of the true significance.*

Table 16

Tests of between-subject effects to examine the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes for scores of cultural awareness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	6210.274 ^a	3	2070.091	21.831	0.000	0.645
Intercept	441.402	1	441.402	4.655	0.038	0.115
Grouping	140.504	1	140.504	1.482	0.231	0.040
Pretest	5628.505	1	5628.505	59.358	0.000	0.622
Grouping * Pretest	98.094	1	98.094	1.035	0.316	0.028
Error	3413.626	36	94.823			
Total	1111200.000	40				
Corrected Total	9623.900	39				

a. R Squared = .645 (Adjusted R Squared = .616)

Table 17

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.831	1	38	.101

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Pretest + Grouping

Table 18*Descriptive Statistics of the Posttest Scores of Control and Experimental Groups*

Grouping	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Control Group	162.1500	14.75154	20
Experimental Group	169.7500	16.07834	20
Total			40

Table 19*Results of ANCOVA on the Posttest Scores of Control/Experimental Groups*

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	6112.180 ^a	2	3056.090	32.199	0.000	0.635
Intercept	521.118	1	521.118	5.491	0.025	0.129
Pretest	5534.580	1	5534.580	58.313	0.000	0.612
Grouping	475.890	1	475.890	5.014	0.031	0.119
Error	3511.720	37	94.911			
Total	1111200.0	40				
Corrected Total	9623.90	39				

^a. *R Squared* = .635 (*Adjusted R Squared* = .615)

were not found in a significant interaction and assumption of homogeneity.

As represented in table 17 that in posttest scores (df1=1, df2=38, Sig.=101) the significant value is effectively the confidence interval of 0.05. However, the ANCOVA assumptions show the safely that it is related to the second research question of the study.

Table 18 clearly shows that learners in experimental group with mean score of 169.75 (SD=16.08) had higher mean score than learners in control group (M=162.15, SD=14.75).

Concerning Table 19, as it is clear in the row is that labeled as grouping the level of significance was $.03 > .05$ validating there is a significant difference between the posttest scores of the two groups. ($\eta^2 = .63$) which

also proves there was a significant relationship between covariate (pretest) and dependent variable of the present study (posttest). By looking at the data in Table 18, the control group possess less mean score than experimental group (169.75 >162.15) which means the effects of developing language learning materials on Iranian EFL learners' intercultural awareness with the participants in the experimental group outperforming the participants in the control group. Consequently, the researcher couldn't maintain the second null hypothesis

DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study furthermore advocate those obtained by Campbell (2011) who conducted a study

initiating cooperation of a local student with an international student in order to aid the latter to be exposed to a more suitable orthodoxy in the host country. The received outcomes exhibited that the participants not only perceived a modern culture but also understood the value of perceiving the contrast between cultures, the effect it has on communication, and furthermore helped them to become aware of their own culture and how that influences the way they communicate with other people (Campbell, 2011).

Moreover, according to Graves (2000), in order to minimize difficulties when selecting textbooks, teachers should use the textbook as a resource for students but not the only resource, use a textbook as a guide, be free to modify, evaluate, develop, change, eliminate, or add to the material in the

textbook, supplement the textbook with lots of outside readings.

Material is designed and developed for students to understand and know the lessons better; it should help and give them motivation and passion for learning; the units should have enough information, be interesting and it should be updated with learners' needs and wants. This research showed that the experimental and control participants obtained different mean scores on the post-test. It is clear that both groups showed an increase in the speaking scores.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings in this study indicated learners' speaking ability and the teacher's behavior on promoting learners' intercultural competence and speaking ability. This study is in harmony with Tomlinson, (2011) claims that materials can assist learners to feel peaceful in ample ways. Materials which are transparently trying to assist them to learn are

better than materials which are always testing them. Materials are expected to assist learners to feel comfortable with learning.

Therefore, teachers' selection and use of materials is important in teaching as it is closely related to learning. Materials play a significant role in providing the effective instruction to learners. Assigning appropriate methods and related learning materials in classroom can play an important role in learners' success. On other hand, as the results indicated are that indicated the learners developing material and intercultural competence allows them to engage in the learning process; results indicated that satisfying EFL learners' basic speaking needs within material development provides the learner's needs for learning different cultures by yielding an energizing and giving motivation, learners can get more fully passion and immersed in the learning process, predicting positive learning outcomes. Today's classrooms expect educators to instruct students enjoying diverse cultural backgrounds, language, competencies, and a couple of other properties (Gollnick & Chinn, 2002). To put it differently, a culturally sensitive pedagogical setting diminishes the students' estrangement as they endeavor to adopt to the diverse school settings (Heath, 1983; Ladson-Billings, 1994). Furthermore, culturally polarized instruction can be emancipating in that it assists students to perceive that no single. For this, educators should have genuine knowledge about various ethnic groups available to students. This liberty culminates in escalated accomplishment of numerous types, giving embarrassing boosted focus on pedagogical learning activities, such as transparent and perceptive rationale; more considerate, engaging, and compassionate interpersonal aptitude; greater comprehension of

interrelationships among each person, local, national, ethnic, universal, and human individualities; and approval of knowledge as

something to be unceasingly imparted, reviewed, revised, and transformed.

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Postmodern Historiography in Graham Swift's *Waterland*

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ABSTRACT

The present article attempts to elucidate that Tom Crick, the narrator of Graham Swift's *Waterland*, employs the techniques of postmodern historiography in his narrative. Postmodern historiography discredits the Grand Narrative of History and replaces it with histories. Hutcheon defines historiographic metafiction as a type of narrative which self-reflexively problematizes the correspondence between the real historical world and the referent. With a historical self-consciousness, *Waterland* paradoxically juxtaposes the necessity of stories and the awareness of their constructed nature. In this novel, the boundary between history and fiction is blurred. While it explicitly deals with the notion of history by offering several historical accounts, it paradoxically questions the authenticity of the accounts that are put forward. By not making distinction between history and fiction, the novel considers the existence of story necessary for the acquisition of an understanding of the world. The paradox lies in the fact that the novel admits that such understanding of the world is inevitably provisional.

Keywords: Waterland; postmodern historiography; historiographic metafiction

"But when the world is about to end there'll be no more reality, only stories. All that will be left to us will be stories. We'll sit down, in our shelter, tell stories, like poor Scheherazade, hoping it will never... [end]"
(Swift, 1992, p. 298).

Introduction

In the story of 1001 nights, Scheherazade's continuous chains of stories lead to the survival of not only herself but also the other maidens of the country. This aspect of the tales of 1001 nights can be taken as the gist of the postmodern critical discourse. It shows the way fiction can nourish the desire of

human beings to defer death. As a text is finished, there is representation of a death, and with its being prolonged, continuation of life is represented. Modern theorists are fascinated by Scheherazade's stories because of its representation of the desire of the human to prolong life. The present article attempts to elucidate that Tom Crick, the narrator of Graham Swift's *Waterland*, employs the techniques of postmodern historiography in his narrative. Postmodern historiography discredits the Grand Narrative of History and replaces it with histories. Hutcheon defines historiographic metafiction as a type of narrative which self-reflexively problematizes the correspondence between

the real historical world and the referent. With a historical self-consciousness, *Waterland* paradoxically juxtaposes the necessity of stories and the awareness of their constructed nature. In this novel, the boundary between history and fiction is blurred. While it explicitly deals with the notion of history by offering several historical accounts, it paradoxically questions the authenticity of the accounts that are put forward. By not making distinction between history and fiction, the novel considers the existence of story necessary for the acquisition of an understanding of the world. The paradox lies in the fact that the novel admits that such understanding of the world is inevitably provisional.

Waterland is a much-discussed novel. Kate Mitchel (2010) describes the novel as a narrative within which the “stereotypically Victorian image of faith in progress is undermined by a counter-narrative of doubt in progress and the desire for return” (p. 178). For Chelsea Kern (2013), in this novel, the reader’s “perception of the smooth integrity of historical truth” is disturbed when “the magical and unreal spaces” are inscribed into the “factual” ones (p. 2). This process causes *Waterland* to challenge “the dominating effects of space controlled by oppressive forces” (p. 2). Kern continues that the view of reality which is presented in *Waterland* has initially been a “spatial realm upon which humans have imposed linear temporality” and the novel attempts to restore such “spatial” conception of reality (p. 14). Taking advantage of Kristeva’s definition of “abjection” and Creed’s conception of “monstrous-femininity”, Dusty A. Brice (2015) calls several generations of women in the novel—including Sarah, Helen, and Mary—the Lawrentian women due to their “societal abjection” and horrific portrayal (p.

29). Melanie Ebdon (2003) analyzes *Waterland* in light of its inescapability and its necessity for establishing the subject’s identity. She states that the novel deviates from the “postmodern deconstruction of identity” by its re-establishment of subjectivity, re-configuration of realism, and re-consideration of the value of history (p. 15). So by return to realism, the novels like *Waterland* criticize postmodernity’s inefficiency (p. 15). In light of Hayden White’s theories of history, Eric L. Berlatsky (2003) considers Tom Crick as a postmodern historian who “blurs the distinctions between history and fiction” (p. 237). The researcher of the present article agrees with him in the novel’s both criticism of and adherence to narrative. However, his idea that *Waterland* maintains the possibility of acquiring the past is not feasible. This is not the “historical data” that the narrative attempts to convey in *Waterland* but a fictional construct that gives a sense of solace to both the teller and the listener (p. 248). Jonathan Mathew Butler (2001) probes the matter of referentiality in the historiographic metafictional novels. He is against deprivation of postmodern fiction of its “mimetic significance” (p. 5). For him, historiographic metafiction is the “mimetic fiction, successfully responding to the historical circumstances out of which it has emerged” (p. 9). In his view, “the same raw historical event” causes the appearance of multiple narratives (p. 9). He contends that instead of the “referent”, historiographic metafiction “self-consciously acknowledges its own existence as representation [...] of the referent by drawing attention to its inability to offer direct address to the ‘real’” (p. 27). He says that this type of fiction “neither privileges nor denies the referent, but instead points to its own contingent process of assigning meaning to a world which

indubitably exists but can only be *known* through the discourses we construct to represent it” (p. 27). In other words, historiographic metafiction does not deny “the empirical reality of historical events”; instead, it exposes “the *textualized* form in which knowledge of these events is [...] obtained” (p. 29). Butler states that Tom Crick is preoccupied with essentializing the referent—the “Here and Now” which is “transient and erratic”; in order to compensate such “instability”, Tom tells stories (p. 29). John Schad (2012) contends that in *Waterland* the grand narrative of history is already rejected by the French Revolution, Price’s refusal to surrender to Tom’s historical accounts, and Tom’s own departure from the syllabus. In Alison Lee’s view, *Waterland* reads history less in terms of its circularity than its discontinuity. Seenhwa Jeon studies *Waterland* as a narrative of Tom as a storyteller and a modern allegorist who vacillates “between memory and hope, between nostalgia and utopianism” (p. 5). He states that in this novel, story-telling functions “as a way to cope with the threat of the ‘end of history’” (p. 42). He argues that in his reconstruction of his own past, Tom also recovers the lives of the ones who are repressed in the official history (p. 42). Rufus Cook (2004) argues that *Waterland* problematizes the linear time as it posits that Tom’s entrapment within the symbolic order causes his constant regressions and repetitions which inevitably keep him from getting to “the and final version” of story (p. 133). Del Ivan Janik (1989) asserts that Swift’s novels highlight the relationship between history and the present time and paradoxically both privilege and warn against knowledge. For him *Waterland* is “a manifestation of man’s need to tell stories to keep reality under control” (p. 83). Ronald H.

McKinney (1997) finds employment and subversion of different genres of Victorian novel in *Waterland*: the gothic novel, the family saga, the business saga, the detective story, and the provincial novel” (p. 822). He defends the novel against the charge of pessimism because the novel is dominated by “the art of loving and the making of fictions” that are the quintessential elements in the historians’ histories (p. 832). Furthermore, he mentions that Swift “promotes an exciting life of radical curiosity, which continually challenges the status quo without giving in to the illusion of being able to make radical progress” (p. 832).

Postmodern Historiography

Academic discussions in the field of postmodern thought and philosophy have proved to be indistinguishable from the notion of historiography. Among the philosophers of history since the 1960s, there have been widespread theoretical discussions regarding the relationship between historiography and fiction. Besides, the strong influence of postmodern historiography upon the literature of this period of time is demonstrated through the prevalence of Historiographic metafiction. The present article, in part, probes to offer an overview towards the backgrounds of postmodern historiography, taking advantage of the theories of Hayden White. Initially, the article presents explanations about the significance of the decade of the 1960s; then, it covers several historiographic methods to get to the reasons of the emergence of postmodern historiography. Along with the arguments concerning the theories of Hayden White, the article briefly introduces the relevant theories of Friedrich Nietzsche, Michel Foucault, and Roland Barthes.

In Linda Hutcheon's view (1988), the formation of postmodernism officially took place in the 1960s (p. 93) because of the way that this decade challenged the "authority" and "historical consciousness" (pp. 201-202). Among the events that happened during the decade, one can mention the Vietnam War, the students' revolts in America and France, and the Civil Rights movements. In Iggers' view (1997), this decade made visible the consequences of World War II: the collapse of the empires and the recognition of history of non-Westerns (pp. 6-7). Furthermore, the process of decentering and marginalization of Christianity started to take shape in Europe (Brown, 2005, p. 153). As Brown (2005) puts it, the spirit of rigid Puritanism and the strict disciplines with which schools and society were governed throughout the late 1940s to the early 1960s caused the "compulsive liberation" of this time (pp. 145-146). This process was influential in the alteration of the major trends of historiography, too. In Jameson's words, the people of this decade started to "think more historically than their predecessors" (qtd. in Hutcheon, 1988, p. 93). Since "challenging and questioning" started to be taken as "positive values" (Hutcheon, 1988, p. 8), the so-called racially or ethnically different groups were gradually inscribed into history (Hutcheon, 1988, p. 61). In the realm of literature, there appeared the feminist and black-protest writings. Zammito (2009) contends that the historiography of women emerged because of the second-wave of feminism accompanied by the political and social turmoil of the decade (p. 69). While before the 1960s, historiography used to exclusively deal with the memories of the elite, in the 1960s, the subordinated parts of society were interviewed by the historians (Brown, 2005, p. 126). Following this decade, poststructuralism and historiography joined

together in their problematization of the concepts of origin and history (Elias, 2001, p. 46). Confronting the "moral History of Enlightenment Europe", with its "moral correctness, respectability, female sexual abstinence and male sexual hypocrisy" (Brown, 2005, p. 153), the postmodern fiction writers turned to history and located it "between science and myth, between pure empiricism and pure fantasy" since they were sick and tired of "a century of documented corruption, war, genocide, and other evils [which] have shown how such a pursuit of 'meaning' and 'order' can lead to hideous human actions and ingeniously repressive social institutions" (Elias, 2001, p. 47). Believing this, they wanted to "rediscover meaning, to make sense of the Void, in a way that potentially avoids the mistakes of the past" (Elias, 2001, pp. 47-48). Whereas it is generally agreed that postmodernism dates back to the 1960s, the changes in thought and lifestyle did not happen overnight. In continuation, there comes a brief investigation of the theoretical views concerning the emergence of postmodernism.

Lyotard introduces modernism as a scientific trend whose legitimization depends on grand narratives and postmodernism as a condition which re-examines the Enlightenment's attribution of "a unitary end" to both "history" and "subject" (qtd. in Elias, 2001, p. 162). While modernist historiography was presented as an academic, institutional, and professional discipline (Lorenz, 2001, p. 393), postmodern historiography challenges the possibility of accurate representation of historical reality in language. Nietzsche, Foucault, and White were the outstanding thinkers who problematized the possibility of objectivity in historiography.

In the 1870s, Nietzsche discredited the effectiveness of modern historiography (White, 1973, p. 139). According to White (1973), Nietzsche's skeptical and pessimistic views towards historiography are because of the fact that for Nietzsche, historical consciousness is deprived of "a transcendently 'realist' perspective on the world" (p. 41). White (1973) argues that Nietzsche took science and religion as the aesthetic products which helped man escape reality by taking refuge into dreams. Such aesthetic products were later on taken as scientific and religious truths (p. 332). Moreover, Nietzsche considers the historian's prejudice as the factor that determines what to be researched historically (Iggers, 1997, p. 8). He is in line with Burckhardt in his conception of the "truths" whose numbers equates the number of perspectives (White, 1973, p. 332).

As with Michel Foucault, the modernist historical analysis and the "linear historical causality" between incidents and epistemes are contested; he relates the search of history for the origin of the truth to the mythical thoughts of the Western culture (Munslow, 1997, pp. 120-121). In his archeological method, Foucault gets away from positivism and progressivism of traditional historiography (Elias, 2001, p. 109). In line with Nietzsche, Foucault attacks the empiricist's claim of possibility of recovering the past (Munslow, 1997, p. 59). His denial of objectivity of history is justified by his idea that historical accounts depend on the historian and his cultural context (Munslow, 1997, p. 123). Foucault's theories of history are deeply rooted in those of Vico who considered knowledge as a social construct and argued that in rewriting the past as a text, the historian will "impose the present as its context" (Munsow, 1997, p. 137). For

Foucault, language does not discover the reality of the past; instead, it creates historical meaning (Munslow, 1997, p. 123). According to Foucault, the function of history is the textual creation of knowledge, not the discovery of facts. For him, historical knowledge is highly discursive and cultural because the objective of history is to advocate or oppose power structures (Munslow, 1997, p. 174). Questioning the ability of a historian to represent the past accurately, Foucault points to the way that the historian is involved in the process of imaginative reconstruction of history to the extent that he becomes a part of that construct (Munslow, 1997, pp. 123-124). He compares the "stratified, shifting, and discontinuous" history to strata layers (Elias, 2001, p. 112). In his archeological model, he juxtaposes the mythic and the personal experiences to highlight the interaction between the past and the present (Elias, 2001, p. 183). So for Foucault, the historian examines the narratives that shape the past, not the realities of the past. Addressing this task of the historian, Foucault exposes the limitations of language in depicting the realities of the past.

Like the previously-mentioned thinkers, Hayden White also challenges objectivity in history. Taking history as a literary discipline, White deals with the narrative structures of historiography. He foregrounds the notions of "prefiguration" and "imposition" to identify history as a collection of narratives including tropes, plots, and ideological arguments. For White, the only way we can access the past is through literary texts as historical narratives upon which the historian imposes his own ordering and meaning. In *Metahistory*, White traces the historical works of the nineteenth century; furthermore, he exposes us to the prevalent problematization of historical knowledge in the twentieth century. White's

“Metahistory” means “precritically accepted paradigm of what a distinctively ‘historical’ explanation should be” (Ankersmit, 2009, p. 206). White assigns five stages for the analysis of historical accounts. First, a chronological order of happening is given to the events. Second, the chronologically-ordered events are turned into stories by being given beginning, middle, and end to acquire coherence. Third, the story is emplotted as romantic, comic, tragic, or satiric. Fourth, the historian adopts arguments of formism, mechanism, organicism, and contextualism. And fifth, the implications of the historical account are discerned based on the present ideology (1973, pp. 5-21). According to White, in reconstructing the past, historians offer narratives taking advantage of strategies of emplotment, formal argument, and ideological implication. In White’s view (1973), the ideological implications of the historian are revealed through its choice of the plot and the argument. Munslow states that White prefers to consider a historical text as a “prose discourse” instead of an objective text based on realities (p. 153). According to Jenkins (2005), White neither refutes the actual happenings of the past events nor claims that “*everything* is language or discourse”; however, for White, a number of “equally plausible narratives” may arise out of “the *same* historical traces” (2005, pp. 86-89).

Waterland

In *Waterland*, Tom Crick’s narrative oscillates between the past and the present. Along with such vacillation, Tom shows his hesitation over disrupting or privileging history. Paradoxically, he both values and devalues the position of narrative in understanding the past. Tom depicts history as a narrative construct. He admits that

narratives, whether histories or stories, are capable of giving meaning to the world and even, similar to the tale of Scheherazade, can guarantee the survival of man in the world. Tom highlights narrative as the only means of understanding the past; however, he exposes the provisional nature of historical narratives. He both emphasizes the necessity of stories and questions the possibility of acquisition of a comprehensive outlook towards the past. Similar to a postmodern historiographer, he makes no distinction between history and fiction and admits that history is a fictional construct. Through covering different epochs—the Ice Age, the Victorian Age, and the days of the demise of the empire, he implicitly mentions that private and world histories attribute meaning to the world.

Starting his argument with offering three definitions of “Historia”—as an inquiry, history, and any kind of narrative—from the very beginning Tom Crick shows his awareness of limitations of historical understanding. In his investigation of the past, Tom recounts the stories of his past and present time. In order to acquire the past, he uses his grandfather’s journal, his parents’ stories, and several speculations. However, he maintains that the endings are inconsistent and provisional. As an inquiry, his narrative covers three phases: the history of the Fenland from the seventeenth century to the end of World War I, the period of his maturity, and the present time in the 1980s. These three phases do not follow a chronological order. Just like history, “It goes in two directions at once. It goes backwards as it goes forwards. It loops. It takes detours” (p. 135). Giving the history of Fenland, Tom starts with making parallels between history and the silt of the river. He says that with the beginning of the silt, man started the process of “land reclamation” (p. 9). He maintains

that instead of “revolutions”, “turning points”, and “grand metamorphoses of history”, men must take “the process of human siltation” into consideration (p. 10). He recounts the rise of the Atkinsons. He says that before Vermuyden went to the Fens, an Atkinson ancestor thought of becoming a bailiff. He talks of the year 1785, when the Cricks were employed for the drainage of the land (p. 68). During the 1780s, when “foundations were being rocked in France”, Thomas Atkinson had bought the land along the margins of the River Leem and had offered “work” and “a future” to the region (p. 16). He describes the way in the seventeenth century, the Dutch changed the direction of the river by force. Having done so, they did not foresee the shrinking of peat and the subsequent sinking of the Fens tens of feet below sea-level which caused flooding and horrible damages some years later. He says that going through the records, he has understood that for a century and a half, his parental ancestors had helped “changing the map of England” by their engagement in the process of land-reclamation and in “strive [...] against water” (p. 13). He continues that perhaps they did it because they knew their own origin, “that they belonged to the old, prehistoric flood” (p. 13). Then he equals water with the Fens with respect to their “levelness” (p. 13). The sinking of the land below the water-level had caused the entrance of over seven hundred wind-pumps to the Fens in the eighteenth century. He further talks about the year 1799 when Thomas married an eighteen-year-old girl. His unmarried ancestor, Jacob Crick, who never moved further than two miles from the pumps and died in 1789, had been in charge of two of them. Then, it was in the year 1809 that he became the chairman of the Leem Drainage Commission. By 1818, Thomas became a

“monument” and was regarded as a “god” because he had “made the River Leem from a swamp”; he had “brought Norfolk beer to the Fens”; and he had “fed the hungry” (p. 75). It was in the year 1820 that Thomas Atkinson, out of jealousy and wrath, struck his wife, Sarah, and caused her to lose her wit forever (pp. 76-77). From that time on, for fifty four years, his wife could neither recognize the others nor talk (p. 77). Thomas Atkinson repeatedly asked “Why? Why?” (p. 79). In order to find an answer, he started to study the books related to human mind, not unlike his previous studies on the Fens and the drainage system (p. 80). However, he came to conclude that human mind “is an internal land which cannot be redeemed, cannot be reclaimed, once it is lost” (p. 80). Getting disappointed of science, he turned to religion. According to Tom, “History has stopped for him. He has entered the realms of superstition” (p. 80). When even God did not answer his question “Why?” he sent for the occultist who told him that he was being punished and that because his wife wished to be in that state, no magic could bring her out of it (p. 80).

In 1822 Thomas Atkinson hired Francis Crick, Jacob’s grand-nephew, to operate the first steam-pump. In this way, the Cricks became adapted to “technology” and to “ambition” and started to think that they could invest in land reclamation (p. 15). The Cricks worked for Atkinson and his descendants for about a century; however, they kept being pump-operators or lock-keepers. Crick says that they did not improve because they did not forget their “watery phlegm” and their “swampy origins” (p. 17). He says that while the Atkinsons were making “history” by their progressive view towards it, the Cricks, in spite of being “born in the middle of that flatness [flatness of the Fens], fixed in it, glued to it even by the mud

in which it abounds”, outwitted reality by “telling stories”, by spinning “yarns” (p. 17). In his view, the Fens “yield so readily to the imaginary—and the supernatural” (p. 18). Like other inhabitants of the “fairy-tale land”, the Cricks “believed in fairy-tales” (p. 18). In case they received the news of the world, “they listened and repeated what they heard with wide-eyed awe, as if such things were not the stuff of fact but the fabric of a wondrous tale” (p. 18). According to Tom, after the death of Thomas Atkinson in 1825, the town felt a need “to begin again, to wipe the slate, erase the past and look to [...] the future” (p. 82). The townspeople who still saw Sarah Atkinson sitting in the upper room, “surveying the town like a goddess”, started to tell stories (p. 83). They said that Sarah communicated with her two sons; that she gave her sons “zeal and their peculiar sense of mission”; that the sons’ success came through “this wronged Martyr”; and that Sarah, after the blow, was bestowed with “the gift to see and shape the future”, the gift that is “so desired and feared”, as Tom describes it (p. 83). Then gradually the townspeople came to make parallels between Sarah and St Gunnhilda (p. 84). The story went further to the point that they said that now and then, in a singular form of animation”, she used to shriek and reiterate these words: “‘Smoke’, ‘Fire’, ‘Burning!’” (p. 84). They claimed that her spasms became more frequent when the Atkinsons brought the first fire engine to the region (p. 85). He says that one of the servants claimed that the sons had taken Sarah to an institution; however, “for the sake of the townsfolk, they continued to preserve the legend [...] that their Guardian Angel still watched over them” (85). But Tom problematizes this view because of the servant’s dismissal due to her illegitimate pregnancy “thus having a motive to invent

malicious lies” (p. 85). George and Alfred Atkinson established the New Atkinson Brewery in 1849. Although the people regarded Sarah’s death in 1874 with either “loyal and poignant remembrance”, or “a merciful release”, or “anxiety and foreboding”, all of them wanted to know “one simple thing”: “Will all be reconciled, will all be resolved in good old story-book fashion—in a fairy-tale ending to make the heart melt?” (p. 96). They were “overjoyed” as they heard the news of the funeral: “Because there is nothing like a good ending to turn mourning into smiles, and stop the asking of a thousand questions” (p. 96). The heavy rain for two days after Sarah’s funeral caused “[t]he waters rise” which in turn caused a great damage to the region and its people (p. 99). After some time, there scattered rumors about the appearance of the young Sarah exactly after her burial. Tom asks: “Do not guests prove—even rumors, whispers, stories of ghosts—that the past clings, that we are always going back ...?” (p. 103). He further states: “The waters rise. They wash up rumors and strange reports of many kinds, but they also flow over them again and sweep them aside” (p. 103). He indicates that the Atkinsons were grateful for the destructions of the flood because they caused the attentions to be diverted to “practical matters” (p. 103). However, he says, years later, “when the floods have become a memory”, questions would be raised with regard to the truthfulness of Sarah’s burial in the grave. They would claim that Sarah “was not only incarcerated in Wethersfield Asylum but, being a woman of uncanny powers, also escaped from it—some days before her own funeral” and sank in the water of the Ouse (p. 104). According to Tom, after the flood, the quality of the Atkinson beer, and, consequently, the profits of the Atkinsons,

gradually declined since 1874. Moreover, after the death of Sarah, Mrs. Arthur Atkinson gave birth to a son—Tom’s grandfather—sooner than her expected time. Tom goes through speculations with regard to this premature birth: “Some hidden shock, at something seen, perhaps, in that upper room where Sarah, we are given to believe, breathed her last?” (p. 105). The flood caused the region to be like before and the Cricks restarted their work: drainage. He argues that the period after 1874 was not only the time of the decline of the profits of Atkinson beer, but it also was the “period of economic deterioration from which we have never recovered” (p. 157). Tom says that with the death of Ernest’s wife, people started to compare that time with the time of death of Sarah Atkinson; some of them “claimed they had seen Sarah Atkinson when Sarah Atkinson was dead”; they “began to speak again of a curse upon the Atkinsons” (p. 160). Ernest Atkinson, Tom’s grandfather, was afraid of the future; he prophesied a catastrophic future as the aftermath of war: “I warn you ... if you will not listen ... I foresee a ... if ... I foresee ...” (p. 162). But the people scorned him for having such an idea.

In the summer of 1911, Tom’s grandfather contributed to the celebration of the accession of George V by his “Special” free drink called “Coronation Ale” (p. 170). Drinking the ale, the townspeople found that it made their intoxication stages—“pleasure, satisfaction, well-being, elation, light-heartedness, hot-headedness, befuddlement, imbalance, incapacity”—much more rapid (171). Tom says that the events of that day cannot be recounted precisely “[p]artly because it was a day that Gildsey wished to forget” and partly because “many of those who might have acted as reliable witnesses are, at the time, hopelessly drunk” (p. 172). Ernest Atkinson

rejected the accusation of his responsibility for the incidents and drank a bottle of the ale “without the slightest visible effect” (p. 173). Then, while almost everyone in the town was drunk, the New Atkinson Brewery was on fire, and, therefore, no one could save it: “The crowd [...] watched as if this were not their town brewery being burnt to the ground but some elaborate spectacle expressly arranged for their delight and contemplation” (p. 174). There appeared a lot of speculations with regard to the fire: that it was the external manifestation of the internal fire of the drinkers; that it exhibited the drinkers’ preference of “destruction” over “rejoicing”; that it was accidentally started by the “drunken revelers” who had gone to the building for more ale; that it was started by the “town authorities” who wanted to destroy all the brew together; that it proved that there was a curse on the Atkinsons; and that it had intentionally been done by Ernest for insurance sums (pp. 175-176). Tom adds his own surmise: that Ernest wanted to be the “instrument” of the curse because he preferred an ending for the Atkinson Empire, knowing that there was no “future” for it (p. 176). However, the officials announced that it had been an “accident” (p. 177). Tom says that “with one exception”, from that time on, no one has ever seen or drunk any “Coronation Ale” (p. 176). Tom says that there was no “evidence” with regard to Ernest’s whereabouts at the time of fire: “no one, afterwards, could distinctly remember having seen him” (p. 177). However, some people claimed that they had seen “a woman who put them suddenly in mind of a preposterous old story”, Sarah Atkinson (pp. 177-178). A maid contended that she had identified her since both she had seen her portraits and “she’ heard all those silly old tales, and now she knew they were true” (p.

178). Tom asks that since no one has heard Ernest's story, how they can know if he "deserve[d] this villain's part" (p. 215). Furthermore, he asks whether the evidence for such interpretation is Ernest's prediction of the forthcoming chaos, or his opposition against "empire building", or his "action" to invoke the chaos by serving the ale and setting the fire to the brewery for the insurance money (p. 215). In Tom's words, the last hypotheses are rejected because drinking the ale, Ernest did not turn to a madman and it became clear that the fire had been set by the people and the insurance money was used for making a home for war victims (p. 216).

Tom says that for about four years Ernest and Helen lived in solitude and were not present in the public except once when Ernest was invited for a march-past. And it was at that time that the eyes of many soldiers are directed towards Helen and, as a result, the recruiting parade turns to be chaotic (pp. 217-218). Then he refers to different accounts of the day: his mother's fairy-tale—"My mother told it differently"—and the watching people's story (p. 218). He also points to the town dignitaries' assumption: "Something's gone wrong with our town" (p. 218). Moreover, there were few people who had kept their view that like her stirring up the flood and her driving the town crazy by getting herself into the ale, now Sarah has caused such confusion in the parade: "It's her. It's her work" (p. 219). Tom says that at that moment, his grandfather did not pay attention to any of these "variants of the same incident" since he was just deriding "these war-mongering proceedings" "without the need for either word or action" (p. 219). Tom speculates that it was on that day that Ernest fell in love with Helen (p. 219). Based on his grandfather's journal, Tom contends that

since that time, Ernest became "a worshipper of Beauty" (p. 219). Tom says: "This is no superstition. Not wild invention. I have my grandfather's own authority: a journal" (p. 219). He refers to the accounts of his grandfather in his journal—"You don't believe it? It's in that journal"—concerning Helen who cured the patients "not by her nursery arts, but by the sheer magic of her beautiful presence" (p. 224). In this way, Henry Crick also recovered miraculously by Helen through "stories": "She believes that they're a way of bearing what won't get away, a way of making sense of madness" (p. 225). When she discovered that "[l]ike frightened children, what they most want is to be told stories", she asked them not to forget their past because it can't be erased, but to turn it into a story: "What's real? All a story" (p. 225). Henry Crick turned to be a storyteller of stories of old Flanders, but his stories were "more embellished, more refined" than the ones he had heard (p. 225). Tom says that Henry did not tell the story of his encounter with Helen "till he's a dying man, and another woman is nursing him" (pp. 225-226). He further paraphrases his grandfather's words: in spite of all his attempts to warn people of the forthcoming chaos, now that it arrived, he could do no more than sticking to "some left-over fragment of paradise" (p. 219). He says that his grandfather was not after a Platonic Idea: "It's his flesh-and-blood daughter" (p. 220). In his view, the more the war gets appalling and losing its fairy-tale shape, the more beautiful Helen becomes and "the more despairing [...] and worshipping (of his daughter) grows Ernest (p. 220). Tom argues that for the "knights" of Gildsey, Helen Atkinson was the "beleaguered, inaccessible" damsel who was imprisoned in his father's tower (p. 214). The "indulgences" of the inhabitants of the region were "superstition,

tale-telling, despondency, the bottle” and “Beauty” (p. 214). He relates the influence of Helen’s “Beauty” on the Atkinson family and the town to that of Sarah (pp. 214-215). However, in his view, Helen did not suffer as Sarah did because, first, she possessed her “mind”, and second, she belonged to her father, not to Gildsey and its citizens (p. 215). The town, “for its own satisfaction”, tried to find an explanation for the relationship between the father and the daughter by inventing an “easy myth” that Ernest had imprisoned Helen at Kessling (p. 215). Tom adds that “in every myth there is a grain of truth” (p. 215).

he Cricks remained there for centuries until George and Henry Crick were summoned to war and they had to go to Flanders (p. 19). The condition of Flanders in 1917 was just like that of the Fens in the seventeenth century because the flood had made the land to “flat, rain-swept, [and] waterlogged” (p. 19). So, what the Cricks Brothers saw was no longer “some evil memory they have always had”, but the sinking world of Flanders (p. 19). Then, at the time George and Henry Crick were stuck in “the muddy madness” of war, Ernest comes to think that “only from out of this beauty will come a Savior of the World” (p. 220). But the father sought another stage, too: “he wanted a child, a very special sort of child” (p. 227). In order to redirect her father’s plan, she suggested that they turn their house to a hospital for war victims. But the consequence of this design “served only to remind them how evil lingers and how things of the past aren’t things of the past” (p. 227). They saw that even with the ending of the war, there came “the broken-minded soldiers” for whom “life had stopped, though they must go on living” (pp. 227-228). In spite of Helen’s expectation, the hospital caused the sorrowful father to wish for “the

Savior of the World” (p. 228). She agreed on the condition that she be free to marry another man. Henry and Helen told each other “stories” (p. 226). Helen told him the story of a father and a daughter who experienced together the stages of love: “adoration”, “desire”, cleaving”, and “union” (p. 227). Hearing this story, Henry understood that Helen was pregnant. Ernest committed suicide on the day he sent Helen a wooden chest within which there were a letter addressed to his “future son”, his journals, and a number of bottles of Coronation Ale. In his letter he had asked his son to save the “absurd and fantastic” world (p. 233). He had also asked that the bottles be used in “emergencies” (p. 234). A potato-head child was born.

George was killed at war and, for a long time, Henry Crick who thought “there is only reality, there are no stories left”, found it hard to distinguish between “the familiar-but-foreign fields of the Fens and the foreign-but-familiar mudscapes he has come from (p. 20). At that time Henry did not think “he will ever talk to his son about mother’s milk and hearts” (p. 20), but later on, he advises Tom that “whatever you learn about people, however bad they turn out, each one of them has a heart, and each one of them was once a tiny baby sucking his mother’s milk” (p. 1). However, he recovered and became Atkinson’s lock keeper. The townspeople who could not “forgive” Ernest, tried to “forget” his sinful deed, but the asylum that he had built for the war victims kept them from forgetting about him and Helen soon. So they wove up their reason with regard to Ernest’s motivation of building it: “a gesture of revenge?” (p. 221). However, not only did they forget about them “in a very short time”, they also forgot about the Atkinsons, Coronation Ale, and the war. The people

forgot about war but Ernest, Helen, and the patients of the asylum did not. When Henry Crick told the doctors that he remembered nothing, they decided that it was the proper time for him to go back home to “revive” some other nice memories since he has got rid of “those nasty memories” (pp. 222-223). But they have been wrong since very soon Henry was in a terrible mood again: “Because this flat, bare, washed-out Fenland, which ought to be the perfect home of oblivion, the perfect place for getting used to forgetting, has quite the opposite effect on our limping veteran” (p. 223). With reference to his father’s experience of oblivion, he asks: “Might it not be better [...] if we could acquire the gift of amnesia?” (p. 108). Then he continues that this gift would “release us from the trap of the question why into the prison of idiocy” (p. 108). Tom concludes that “it’s oblivion he’d like to forget, it’s that sense of the dizzy void he can’t get away from. He could do without this feeling of nothing” (p. 223).

Unlike Mary’s father who sent his daughter to St Gunnhilda School because he believed that his efforts must have results, Tom’s father sent him to Gildsey Grammar School because he wanted his son to “have a vision which he lacked”; so, he was careful that his son would not “soil his hands on sluice engines” (p. 47). Tom says that his father was pleased with Dick’s inability to read or write and even ordered him not to educate Dick (pp. 242-243). In spite of his being a “potato-head”, now and then Dick raised some questions; for example, she asked about the place his mother had gone. Dick cannot believe that his mother will never return. Tom describes Dick as a figure who “looks down from his lofty and lucid mindlessness, half in contempt and half in pity at a world blinded by its own glut of imagination” (p. 38). He also says that for Dick the removal of the

body of Freddie from the water is like removing silt from the river (p. 32). He relates Dick’s connection to nature to his position outside history. Tom thinks whether Dick “has forgotten—? That for him present eclipses past? That he possesses those amnesiac, those time-erasing qualities so craved by all guilty parties--? No before; no After” (p. 134). Mary asserted that she instructed Dick. Tom says: “It’s Mary’s story, pieced together and construed by me. So how can I be certain what really ...?” (pp. 248-249). Tom speculates that it was Mary—and not as she claimed, Dick—who was interested in establishing relationship with Dick: “perhaps the truth is not as Mary says, but the other way round” (p. 246). Then, as he gets to Mary’s pregnancy, he is suspicious again: “Because how did I know, hearing it all from Mary, just how far those lessons were going every Wednesday and Saturday ...?” (p. 259). He does not know what to do in case the baby is Dick’s (p. 262). Once Tom’s father wonders whether it is the proper time “to tell him everything, the whole story, all that his son will learn one day anyway” (p. 133). But he decides not to. Then, he recounts his and his father’s confrontation with the dead body of Freddie Parr. He parallels his father’s labor “to refute reality” by trying to revive Freddie with pumping and drainage; however, “whereas they reclaimed land, my father could not reclaim a life” (p. 32). So, in his view, his father’s labors were “against the law of nature” because “a dead thing does not live again” (p. 32). Tom thinks that in comparison with the number of people who are dying in the war, so much anxiety over a drowned boy is not rational. He anticipates that his father who “once watched the wide world drowning in Flanders yet lived to tell the tale” will one day tell the story of this drowned body “with a flick of cigarette ash and a shake of his

head” (p. 33). According to Tom we must be thankful that “the reality of things [...] only visits us for a brief while, but that brief while “seems endless” (p. 33). And what makes this scene endless is “a dark, oval bruise” on Freddie’s temple (p. 34). The pathologist examines the corpse and testifies that the drunk Freddie died by drowning (p. 35). Tom says that the sight of Freddie’s dead body was less frightening than the time that later on Mary told him that Dick killed Freddie (p. 35). Mary recounts the way Freddie is killed by Dick. Then he comes to guess the reality: “to know what’s real—that’s hard” (p. 58). He has found the bottle and through his guesswork, he tries to shape conclusions “which don’t quell fear” (p. 59). As Parr dies, Tom, in his own words, “watched; weighed evidence. Put facts together. Saw a new bruise on an old bruise. Fished a bottle [...]” (p. 263). As an “investigator into questions of cause and effect”, he is “scared” (pp. 263-264). However, in his view, “in spite of the evidence he has gathered”, Mary’s “notion of cause and effect proves less pliable than his” (p. 264). He says that at the time of Freddie’s death, the answer “Accidental Death” to the whys of his and Freddie’s fathers seemingly sounded “sweet and redeeming” to him (p. 131). But with Mary’s assertion that “it wasn’t an accident”, he comes to find himself in a “mess”, as if he has “the illusion that everything was all right” (p. 132). After putting the bottle in Dick’s room, he went back to his own room, locked the door, and tried to hear and interpret what Dick was doing, even to “interpret silence”, since, in his view, “a sound not meant to be heard is a much more tell-tale affair than plain silence” (p. 210). Then, finding the locked chest, he decides to find the “key” (p. 213).

Tom points to the aftermath of his and Mary’s “not always innocent” experiences

which may “affect the rest of your life” (p. 36). Tom is forced to quit teaching history due to his wife’s kidnapping a baby. Mary’s abortion of the child has caused her to lose the chance of having a child. In the year 1980, Mary, who used to have lost her belief in “miracles and fairy-tales” or “New Life and Salvation”, starts to read religious books and take walks alone (pp. 127-128). Some weeks after, Mary tells him that she will have a baby (p. 130). Finding the baby in his wife’s arm, he asks for explanation: “How? Why? Why?” and his wife answers: “God told me” (p. 268).

Tom tells the students about his exasperation when he remembers that Lewis, the headmaster, told him “We’re cutting back History”. He accepts his dismissal but he cannot stand that of history (p. 21). He criticizes Lewis’ exclusive conception of education “for and about the future” which causes history whose “prime function is to dwell on the past” to be merged with General Studies (p. 21). Lewis contends that he is asked to do so because the authorities demand that the courses have “practical relevance to today’s real world” and also because there is a decline in the number of the students who choose History (p. 22). Tom objects to the second reason due to the requests coming in recent weeks during which he has been telling stories—what the headmaster takes as “complete departure from the syllabus” (p. 22). Now he comes to offer a sketch of Lewis. In the mid-1960s, the time of “revolution of the young”, “the cold war”, “the Cuba crisis”, and “the intercontinental ballistic missile”, he became the headmaster of the school (p. 23).

He remembers his first acquaintance with history during his childhood period when he was afraid of the darkness, and his mother used to invent history in the shape of stories (p. 61). Later on, studying history at school, he still took history as a “myth”, until “the

Here and Now” informed him forcefully that he had become part of history and that “history was no invention but indeed existed” (p. 62). As a result, he started studying history, specifically the history of the Fens, and now after forty years he has recognized that “history is a yarn (p. 62). He says that throughout all those years, he wanted “History itself: The Grand Narrative, the filler of vacuums, the dispeller of fears of the dark” (p. 62). Whenever Tom’s conditions were “fraught with the here and now”, he used to take refuge in his “story-books” (p. 207). He mentions that at that time, he was able to differentiate between the two worlds—the “here and now” and the world of fiction—unlike today that he “put[s] the two together” (p. 207). Today he asks “where the stories end and reality begins”, but in his childhood he did not face such a question (p. 208). He says that during the time of invasion of Hitler, he escaped to “the fanciful fabric of Kingsley’s yarn, in which [...] history merges with fiction, fact gets blurred with fable” (p. 208).

In Tom’s view, “pity”, “curiosity”, and “fear” are the “tangled stuff” for making stories (p. 248). Price tells Tom that they have a club within which the students learn to express their fears. And Tom also views his own stories as the means of elimination of fear (p. 241). Being afraid of the horrible truth, Tom tells stories. The point of distinction between man and animal, in Tom’s view, is man’s “story-telling” ability (p. 62). The animal exclusively lives in the here and now. Tom starts his narrative with his father’s “fairy-tale advice” (p. 1) and the description of the fairy-tales that surround him—his parents’ stories and the cottage. Although the compulsory retirement has caused him to stop “unravel[ing] the mysteries of the past” as a history teacher (p. 5), he does not deny that Price’s

problematization of the significance of history made him tell stories—which the students have preferred over “the stranger-than-fiction prodigies of the French Revolution” (p. 6). In this way, he derides the traditional historiography in favor of stories and starts to incorporate his familial history into his history lessons. As a story-teller who needs telling stories “to unload those most unbelievable yet haunting of fairy-tales” and wishes for a complete narrative, Tom wishes to provide the children “to whom, throughout history, stories have been told [...] in order to quell restless thoughts” with “the complete and final version” of his life (pp. 7-8). Later on he says that by the ending of the world, we would be “like poor Scheherazade” whose survival depends on her continuation of telling stories” (p. 298).

Conclusion

When Price asks Tom “Why history?”, he says that the answer is there in the question since “this seeking of reasons itself inevitably [is] an historical process, since it must always work backwards from what came after to what came before” (p. 106). He continues that the question “why” appears at the time of dissatisfaction with the present. At this point “history” begins with changing the word “Why” to “If”: “If only we could have it back. A new beginning. If only we could return” (pp. 106-107). He says that “Historia” meaning “inquiry” causes us to “learn [...] from our mistakes so it will be better, in future” (p. 107). In Tom’s view, we need history because of “our pressing need to ask the question why” and because of our “sense of wrong” (p. 107). But the problem lies in the notion that the answer to the first “why” directs us to the following “whys”, up to the time that we get to the question that “when-

where-how do we stop asking why?" (p. 107). To put it another way, "when are we satisfied that we possess an Explanation (knowing it is not a complete explanation?" (pp. 107-108). He repeats his belief that no ending is expected of the question "why" because "history is that impossible thing: the attempt to give an account, with incomplete knowledge, of actions themselves undertaken with incomplete knowledge" (p. 108). He indicates that despite the end of the story of Freddie's death, his and Freddie's father could not stop asking "Whywhywhy" (p. 110). Then, he asks his students to continue asking "why": "Though it gets more difficult the more you ask it, though it gets more inexplicable, more painful, and the answer never seems to come any nearer, don't try to escape this question Why" (p. 130).

For Tom, reality is fabricated by history. He defines "History" as "the fabrication, the diversion, the reality-obscuring drama" (p. 40). He indicates that numberless historical protagonists "never knew the show was running" (p. 40). He further states that based on the theory of history, "there can be no success with impunity" by which he means that without a loss, progress cannot be made (p. 72). Tom presents two theories of reality. Concerning the "reality" of Mary's child theft, he says that Lewis does not utter anything: "No reasons, no explanations, no digging up what's past. He'd rather pretend it isn't real. Reality's so strange, so strange and unexpected" (p. 25). His second theory of reality is different than his first one: "Reality's not strange, not unexpected. Reality doesn't reside in the sudden hallucination of events. Reality is uneventfulness, vacancy, flatness. Reality is that nothing happens" (p. 40). In order to justify his theory, he refers to the occurrence of events in history just for the desire of

making things happen" (p. 40). For him, it is "folly" to "ignore" history because "what history teaches us is to avoid illusion and make-believe"; it makes us be "realistic" (p. 108). Mary's not acceptance to adopt a child is because she did not "resort to make-believe" because as a "realistic" woman, it was not a "real thing" to adopt a child (p. 127). So although history is incomplete, it turns us into realistic figures.

Tom Crick asserts that by history we do not learn how to get to "Salvation" or A New World"; it just teaches us "the patient art of making do" (p. 108); therefore, when the things went wrong for him and Mary, they "had to make do" (p. 126). As a consequence, during the time that as a history teacher, he "made a living [...] out of the past", Mary by learning "how to mark time" through working with old people, "made do [...] with nothing" (p. 126).

Waterland is a historiographic metafiction that by means of fictional strategies for historical explanations challenges the teleological and progressive views of history. In Tom's view, man's stories give order to the chaotic truth, but he poignantly admits that such illusive order is not permanent. Furthermore, it is necessary for man to tell stories because of the emptiness and strangeness of "the here and now". Stories offer a sense of solace to man. Throughout the novel, we are confronted with memories of the past and not with the empirical investigation of history. For Tom and the reader, the direction of memory and history is as changeable as the direction of the River Ouse. *Waterland* problematizes the claim of objectivity of modern historiography by means of employment of multiple narrative frames. Tom initially wanted to fill in the gap between him and the reality with books (p. 47), but in his last phase of reconstruction of

the past, instead of taking a scientific approach, he relied on his speculations. Tom is a postmodern historiographer who tries to detect Dick's (and mankind's) origin through narratives.

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Electronic portfolios: A review and Evaluation of an Alternative Method of Assessment

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ABSTRACT

Electronic portfolios are considered as invaluable means of teaching, learning and assessment. This paper aims at reviewing and evaluating the concept of electronic portfolios used in various educational settings. Electronic portfolios are used as the result of the development of portfolios. After providing different definitions of the term, advantages and disadvantages are discussed as well. Based on the review of the related literature, opinions of scholars and empirical studies, the researcher believes that it would be advisable for all teachers to start using e-portfolios in their own classes, adapting them to their educational context and enjoy the many advantages offered through them. E-portfolios not only support students' learning, but also encourage their self-assessment, use of self-regulation strategies and their critical thinking.

Keywords: electronic portfolio, alternative method of assessment, language teaching

Introduction

The impact of technology on the educational environment is widely accepted by scholars and authorities in various fields. Technology integration has turned to be one of the key features of the modern teaching approaches, and as a result, it has become one of the primary tools for helping students in coping with complex problems they may encounter in real-world situations. Electronic portfolios (e-portfolios) are among one of the alternative methods of teaching, learning and assessment used in different fields for educational purposes. Some of the teachers who used e-portfolios claim that these alternative methods of assessment can be seen as the most crucial educational technology development since the use of course

management systems (Lorenzo and Ittelson, 2005). Still, some teachers and scholars do not agree with them. This document provides a clear definition of portfolios and e-portfolios, then summarizes different views towards e-portfolios and advantages offered by electronic portfolios, as well as the obstacles that the users may encounter.

Portfolio Assessment

Genesee and Upshur (1996) stated that an electronic portfolio generally includes a purposeful collection of students' work, demonstrating students' efforts and progress to others in particular fields. Arter (1990, as cited in Nezakatgoo, 2005, p.78) provided us with a similar definition, considering

different essential factors, maintaining that students need to be engaged in the selection of both the content and the criteria for choosing the samples of their work, and simultaneously, portfolios act as evidence of student's self-reflection. Furthermore, portfolios can combine the basic beliefs of performance assessment with instructions used in the classroom, as well as integrating the process with the products (Hyland, 2002).

Portfolios were used to be a means of showing artists or business people's best work. The artists kept and presented those portfolios as displays of their most significant efforts to their clients (Cameron, 2001:237, as cited in Zhang, 2009). It was also possible to use portfolios in language learning classrooms to compensate for the inadequacies seen with the one-shot tests, which was used to measure students' proficiency. With one-shot examinations, the teacher had limited access to what the students had learned; on the other hand, portfolios mostly demonstrate the learners' progress over a specific period of time, and the learners can also put various samples of their writings in the collection. In addition, teachers can be provided with adequate information based on which they can make sound decisions (Zhang, 2009).

As opposed to summative evaluation procedures, writing portfolios are classified as a type of formative assessment. Ruskin-Mahyer (2000) believe that portfolios aid us in making a form of partnership that eventually change the roles of teachers and learners into collaborators who are co-creating meaning in a dialogic process (p. 138). As stated by Burch (2000), portfolios of writing are evidence of the process through which the writing is created and revised; and also they can be presented as representatives of a synthesis of both process and product (p.

150). Portfolios, when used as a formative process of evaluation, can also aid teachers in providing effective feedback for students and so can contribute to improving students' learning (Barrett and Carney, 2005).

Different documents that can be included in a portfolio can include essays, reports, audio or video recordings of assignments, diaries, exams, self-assessment, and peer-assessment (Brown, 2004).

Generally, portfolios are divided into three types based on Mandell and Michelson (1990, in Zhang, 2009) categorization:

- Showcase portfolios—Learner only demonstrates the best example of work relevant to each objective
- Cumulative portfolios—Learner demonstrates all the samples of their work Process
- Portfolio—Student sets pre/post-samples of their work

The portfolios can have various objectives: they may either be used for learning purposes in order to represent what has been learned, for accountability purposes to reveal what has been achieved or for marketing purposes to function as a showcase (Barrett & Carney, 2005). "Portfolios for learning" mostly are in contrast with the product-oriented portfolios above." Portfolios for accountability" serve as a summative product of what the students have achieved during the term. As a result, these process-oriented portfolios focus on the progress the students make during the learning process. It can aid both teachers and students in evaluating what has been learned to that point (Barrett & Carney, 2005). "Portfolios for marketing" are mostly used in finding jobs (Barrett & Carney, 2005).

Portfolios of writing can integrate a considerable number of writing samples, which were written at different times; they can be used as a means of "extensive revision" or as a tool for investigating learners' progress over time (Song & August, 2002).

Advantages and Drawbacks of Portfolio Assessment

Portfolio assessment has a considerable number of advantages (e.g., Brown, 2004; Genesee & Upshur, 1996; Song & August 2002). Burch (2000) states that portfolios provide students with an awareness of themselves as writers and also a feeling of ownership of their works. Another advantage of portfolios is related to the opportunity they provide to teachers in order to delay grading until later. However, several teachers still choose to evaluate and grade their students' portfolios because it has been claimed that learners understand degrees immediately, so teachers feel forced to let students know their accomplishments, and grades can also provide teachers with evidence of authority that is conventionally believed to be needed to handle the class (Nelson, 2000).

Brown (2004) maintains the followings 'potential benefits' of portfolios. Portfolios:

- Encourage motivation and responsibility
- Encourage students-teacher interaction
- Appreciate the uniqueness of each student,
- Provide an evaluation of multiple dimensions of learning. (p. 257)

In addition, portfolios have been suggested for those who learn English as a foreign or

second language because portfolios permit a measure of what students can do based on a broader set of samples, and because they replace the writing exams under the pressure of time, which for a long time was claimed to be discriminating against non-native writers (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000 cited in Song & August 2002, p.125).

Hyland (2002) has also proposed some "potential pros" of writing portfolios, including their capacity in integrating the objectives of a program with the goals of the curriculum and validity in creating a correspondence between those aims and classroom practices.

Several drawbacks have also been stated for portfolios in the literature. Among them, the feature of practicality has always been a matter of concern since portfolios generally take a long time of teachers to respond to their learners (Brown, 2004). The use of portfolios has caused some issues such as the "reading process" (portfolios involve various texts written by different learners, making the evaluation process complicated), the "scoring procedures" (questions about the suitability of holistic scoring of writing), and what can be comprehended from their use (Yancey, 2000, p.136). Brown & Hudson (1998 as cited in Song & August 2002) mentioned many disadvantages with the use of portfolios: the concerns related to the design and logistics of portfolios, method of interpreting the results, and issues of validity and reliability. What also baffled both teachers and researchers is related to issues such as validity, reliability, and practicality regarding time (Song & August 2002). Nelson (2000) also warned us that portfolios cannot be used successfully unless the goals and aims are clearly defined, and learners are guided alongside with systematic reviews. Also, the criteria based on which the portfolios are meant to be

assessed need to be clear for both all parties; for example, teachers and the learners should both agree on including all the entries, and the expected level of the final products must be agreed upon, and the depth and seriousness of revisions and the layout and design of the products must be clear (Smith, 2002, as cited in Zhang, 2009).

E-Portfolio

Computers started to play a significant role in the educational realm some time after the use of motion pictures and radios in education to act not only as a "revolutionary impact on instruction", but also as an aid, which has been used in foreign language teaching significantly (Harrington & Levy, 2001). Harrington and Levy (2001) claimed that the use of Computer-Assisted Language Learning in language learning context can cause some changes such as a different attitude towards teaching concerning the roles the teachers and the students can play in the classroom, "what instructors demand of students, both pedagogically and technologically, and expectations of teachers regarding both the professional development and professional support for instructional technology" (p.17). All of these features have to be considered when examining the effects of technology on education. The combination of CALL and the curriculum can also bring changes in learners' motivation, their attitudes regarding language learning, and the strategies they apply, which can aid evaluation (Harrington & Levy, 2001).

Through applying computer-based tools in any learning context, teachers can increase their students' technological competencies and these developments can be used in other fields and, eventually, in future work-related skills. The use of technology in language

instruction contributes to a set of learning skills that may be used in different aspects, and it behooves CALL practitioners to both measure and comprehend the impact institutionally. (Harrington & Levy, 2001, p. 267) Computers can be used as aiding tools in writing classes because they can create opportunities for collaborative instructions in form of a student-centered approach (Hyland, 2002). In the literature of writing, teachers have mostly commented on the students' writings on the margins of a space that had been provided to students to write their compositions on (Anson, 2000).

Anson (2000) believed that using computers in language classrooms can make teachers more interested in teaching because computers can offer students a screen on which they can revise texts. At the same time, "students could print out their writing and submit it ". Even though portfolios helped students to "practice the processes of writing," the product could still be available on a piece of paper. So the integration of computers did not alter the habits of the past significantly. However, Anson (2000) states that the use of computers in educational settings may create opportunities for change in teachers' methods of responding to the students' writing since electronic data supplanted "papers" and "written responses" (Anson, 2000).

Harrington & Levy (2001) assert that writing methods are going to move from "hard copy versions" to electronic versions which can also be known as e-portfolios. The National Learning Infrastructure Initiative (NLII, 2003 as cited in Barrett & Carney, 2005) a program using information technology to improve teaching and learning (Morrison & Barone, 2002) provided a definition of e-portfolios as a selection of actual evidence that is drawn from a vast

archive of what learners have learned over a specific period of time.

Furthermore, Jones, Gray, and Hartnell-Young (2010) mention that e-portfolios can be used for achieving different objectives, such as the application for occupations and also assessment for learning. Among all the various applications of e-portfolio, many scholars have concentrated on the potential of e-portfolios to improve students' ability in various areas (Cheng & Chau, 2009; Sung, Chang, Yu, & Chang, 2009).

Writing e-portfolios provides teachers with a general self-assessment of students' language proficiency (Godwin-Jones, 2008). E-portfolios are defined by Ali (2005) as a selection of students' samples in electronic formats which aids the process of sharing their function with a significant number of audiences that immediately motivates learners and ultimately results in teaching them the language more efficiently.

Advantages and Drawbacks of E-Portfolio

Portfolios can be saved in various forms such as DVDs, CD-ROMs, or WWW servers. E-portfolios are believed to be a form of Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC), that makes use of the computer merely as a means of helping people interact with each other through various modes. CMC's goal is to understand how different users can map their current patterns of behavior, in the new medium, onto communication (Herring, 1996 cited in Harrington & Levy, 2001). Levy (2006), believed that CMC-based CALL may contain a broad array of activities ranging from chatting and conferencing in both audio and video form, to sending e-mails. It can be both synchronous (as in Internet Relay Chat) and asynchronous (as in e-mails). In

synchronous communication students normally feel the pressures to process language simultaneously (Levy, 2006), which shows much of language is used in such contexts with the common use of some strategies for improving communication and filling the gaps, eventually resulting in an increase in students' fluency and a decrease surge in their accuracy and focus on form. (p.147)

Levy (2006) argued that the interaction time in any technology mode directly affects the language and learning which result from the use of that platform. Considering time pressure as a feature of synchronous CALL, a wider range of strategies emerge which result in more attention to meaning. Meanwhile, asynchronous communication including mostly e-mails and asynchronous conferencing (such as discussion lists) leads to more opportunities for learners to use the and process language at their own pace during a longer period of time, letting them reflect on their products and giving voice to more reticent students (Hyland, 2003).

An example of such asynchronous tools for communication can be seen in the use of electronic mails. One of the advantages of using e-mails is in their capability to decrease the pressure on learners to provide their audience with a continuous flow of language in a face-to-face context and to eliminate the problems related to heavy accents (Bloch, 2002).

Godwin-Jones (2008) mentions that one advantage of electronic portfolios is that learners are able to share the content easily with other interested parties. Barrett & Carney (2005) still claim that there are other advantages in keeping e-portfolios such as the fact that they can result in both high-stakes assessments as well as an in-depth learning experience (p.89).

On the other hand, some scholars are skeptical of ambiguous learning results and outcomes of the assessment. Sometimes, the selection of artifacts may not be representative of learning progress. The possibility of plagiarism increases due to the digital nature of electronic portfolios. Schools and universities also need hardware and software for the production and publication of e-portfolios; thus, they require the development of a specific set of skills and funding (Sewell et al., 2007).

Conclusion

Based on the review of related studies and theories on the use of e-portfolios, it can be inferred that although they are useful means of teaching and assessment, the idea of using portfolios is not popular with all teachers (Bryant, 2002). Various educational groups might realize different benefits offered by e-portfolios. As an example, it is believed that learners benefit from getting engaged in self-reflection in their learning process, and they are also able to present their achievements and accomplishments to their potential employers (Reese & Levy, 2009). Furthermore, various institutions and educational settings benefit from critical information that supports internal assessment (Reese & Levy, 2009). Nowadays, electronic portfolios are used as a method of teaching and assessment in countries such as European countries and the United Kingdom (European Institute for E-Learning, 2009), China (Chau, 2007), Canada (Abrami & Barrett, 2005), and the United States (Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2005). As Lorenzo and Ittelson (2005) state e-portfolios need to be integrated across campus systems as a primary approach for learners to document their skills. Finally, we believe that it would be advisable for all

teachers to start using e-portfolios in their own classes, adapting them to their educational context and enjoy the many advantages offered through them.

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On the Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Preference of Continuing Professional Development Strategies and Their Level of Burnout

بررسی رابطه بین سطح فرسودگی شغلی مدرسان زبان انگلیسی ایرانی و تمایل آنها نسبت به راهبرد های توسعه حرفه ای مستمر

حمیده فارونی، مونا طباطبایی، حمیدرضا کارگزاری

چکیده:

ارزیابی فرسودگی شغلی معلمان زبان انگلیسی، به دلیل اهمیت نقش معلمان در موفقیت دانش آموزان، در طول چند دهه گذشته به یکی از مسایل حایز اهمیت تبدیل شده است. به این منظور، پژوهش حاضر به بررسی رابطه بین تمایل مدرسان زبان انگلیسی ایرانی نسبت به راهبرد های توسعه حرفه ای مستمر و سطح فرسودگی شغلی آنها میپردازد. برای این هدف، دو پرسشنامه فرسودگی شغلی Maslach و توسعه حرفه ای مستمر به ۲۰۹ معلم زبان انگلیسی ایرانی که در موسسات تدریس میگردند، داده شد و داده ها با نرم افزار SPSS و AMOS مورد بررسی و تحلیل قرار گرفت. نتایج تحقیق نشان داد رابطه معکوس بین استراتژی های توسعه حرفه ای مستمر و سطح فرسودگی شغلی معلمان زبان انگلیسی وجود دارد. همچنین از چهار سازه ی توسعه حرفه ای مستمر، سازه ی "انعطاف پذیری" بیشترین رابطه منفی و سازه ی "به روز بودن" کمترین رابطه منفی را با سطح فرسودگی شغلی معلمان زبان انگلیسی دارند. نتایج نشان دادند که راهبرد های توسعه حرفه ای مستمر میتواند سطح فرسودگی شغلی معلمان زبان انگلیسی ایرانی را بطور معناداری کاهش دهد.

واژگان کلیدی: انعطاف پذیری، به روز بودن، تصمیم گیری، سطح فرسودگی شغلی، راهبرد های توسعه حرفه ای مستمر، معلمان زبان انگلیسی ایرانی، همکاری

Verbal and Non-Verbal Fluid Intelligence as Predictors of Vocabulary Knowledge

هوش سیال کلامی و غیر کلامی به عنوان پیش بینی کننده دانش واژگان

زهره نهایندی، مونا طباطبایی یزدی، آیناز سامیر

چکیده:

گسترش واژگان مهمترین و مفیدترین فعالیت در هر کلاس زبان به نظر می رسد، زیرا یادگیری کلمات یک زبان بدون شک بخش مهمی از تسلط گوینده آن زبان است. بنابراین، آموزش واژگان یک مؤلفه اساسی از تنظیم برنامه درسی مبتنی بر استانداردها است. با توجه به آن، هدف از این تحقیق این بود که آیا رابطه معناداری بین دانش واژگان زبان آموزان سطح متوسط ایرانی و هوش سیال کلامی و غیر کلامی آنها وجود دارد. در این مطالعه از ۲۰۱ دانش آموز سطح متوسط زبان انگلیسی خواسته شد که سه پرسشنامه را پر کنند. برای تجزیه و تحلیل داده ها از ضریب همبستگی Pearson، تجزیه و تحلیل Path و آزمون t-test استفاده شد. نتایج حاصل از مدل فرضیه پژوهش نشان داد که دانش واژگان توسط هوش سیال کلامی و غیر کلامی به طور قابل توجهی پیش بینی می شود و هوش سیال غیر کلامی در مقایسه با هوش سیال کلامی پیش بینی کننده قوی تر دانش واژگان است. علاوه بر این، نتایج نشان داد که بین سطح آگاهی واژگان دانش آموزان EFL دختر و پسر تفاوت معنی داری وجود دارد، در حالی که تفاوت معنی داری در هوش کلامی و غیر کلامی دانش آموزان از نظر جنسیت وجود ندارد.

واژگان کلیدی: دانش واژگان، زبان آموزان انگلیسی، هوش سیال کلامی، هوش سیال غیر کلامی

A Constructive Tool for Enhancing Learners' Self-Esteem: Peer-Scaffolded Assessment

ابزاری سازنده برای بهبود عزت نفس زبان آموزان: ارزشیابی یاریگر-همسالانه

سجاد فتیحی

چکیده:

این مطالعه به بررسی تأثیر اجرای ارزشیابی یاریگر-همسالانه بر عزت نفس زبان آموزان سطح متوسط ایرانی می پردازد. برای انجام این مطالعه، چهل نفر از زبان آموزان سطح متوسط از طریق برگزاری آزمون تعیین سطح آکسفورد از یک مرکز آموزش زبان انگلیسی در تهران انتخاب شدند. این زبان آموزان به طور تصادفی به یک گروه آزمایش (۲۰ نفر) و یک گروه شاهد (۲۰ نفر) تقسیم شدند. مقیاس عزت نفس یادگیری زبان خارجی برای اندازه گیری سطح عزت نفس زبان آموزان قبل از مرحله آموزش برای کلیه شرکت کنندگان اجرا شد. در مرحله آموزش، گروه آزمایشی در معرض تمرین یاریگر-همسالانه قرار گرفتند که در آن شرکت کنندگان رویه یاریگرانه و تکنیک‌هایی را برای همسالان خود برای انجام وظایف محوله و فعالیت‌های حل مسئله در نظر گرفتند در حالی که گروه شاهد در معرض رویه معمول قرار گرفت. مرحله آموزش بصورت یک جلسه در هفته به مدت هشت جلسه و حدوداً دو ماه به طول انجامید. برای اندازه گیری سطح عزت نفس زبان آموزان پس از مرحله آموزش، محققان مقیاس عزت نفس یادگیری زبان خارجی را برای همه شرکت کنندگان اجرا کردند. داده‌های جمع آوری شده با استفاده از نرم افزار آماری اس پی اس اس مورد تجزیه و تحلیل قرار گرفت. تجزیه و تحلیل داده‌ها نشان داد که قرار گرفتن دانش آموز در معرض ارزشیابی یاریگر-همسالانه می تواند سطح عزت نفس زبان آموزان را به میزان قابل توجهی بالا ببرد. یافته‌های این مطالعه می تواند به زبان آموزان، مربیان، سیاست گذاران و برنامه ریزان برنامه درسی کمک کند تا شرایط یادگیری بهتری را برای زبان آموزان فراهم کنند.

واژگان کلیدی: یاریگری همسالانه، ارزشیابی یاریگر-همسالانه، یاریگری، عزت نفس

Translation Transcending Cross-Linguistic, Intertextuality, and Beyond Equivalences: Figurative Mind

سیر ترجمه در تلاقی زبانی و بینامتنی، فرا سوی معادل گزینی: صور ذهنی

محسن عادل، مینا محمدی

چکیده:

تصویر ذهنی انعکاس یافته مخاطب هدف از ترجمه نهج البلاغه و فدک دریافتی فراتر از صرف تلاقی متن های ترجمه برای این مطالعه فراهم نموده است. هدف از این تحقیق دستیابی به چگونگی بازآفرینی تصویر ذهنی از پدیده، و کاوش ابزارهای به کار رفته درون متنی در این فرآیند می باشد. تجزیه و تحلیل چهار متن ترجمه شده شامل متن عربی به عنوان منبع، فارسی در جایگاه انتقال دهنده، و ترجمه متن انگلیسی به عنوان متن هدف انجام یافته است. نخست، نظرسنجی ها از ترجمه های عربی به فارسی، ایفاگر متن واسطه، توسط پاسخ محققان صاحب نظر مربوطه جهت نزدیکی به تصویر اولیه ذهنی انعکاس یافته در ترجمه ها، انجام شده است. پس از آن، ترجمه های انگلیسی در رویه های مشابه در حفظ معادل های متنی مورد تحلیل قرار گرفته که یافته های همگن را نشان می دهد. جداول، نمودارها و شکل ها بر اساس به کارگیری واحدهای بندهای متنی، حاکی از گرایش ضمنی همگنی در حفظ معادل متنی می باشند. با این حال، خلق تصویر ذهنی در دامنه های موقعیتی، فراتر رفتن از زمینه متنی را ضروری می نماید.

واژگان کلیدی: ترجمه، بینامتنی، تصویر ذهنی، معادل سازی، نهج البلاغه و فدک.

Promoting Intercultural Competence and Speaking Ability Through Developing Language Learning Materials

تقویت توانش بین فرهنگی و توان تکلم از طریق ارتقای مواد درسی زبان

سولماز اصالتی، حسین رحمن پناه

چکیده:

معمولاً کتابهای درسی، شامل اطلاعات، دستورالعملها، مواجهه و فعالیتهایی هستند که فراگیران در یک سطح خاص برای ارتقا مهارتهای ارتباطی خود در زبان مقصد نیاز دارند (تاملینسون، ۲۰۱۳). با این حال، بسیاری از کتابهای درسی در جهان تلاش می کنند مطالب، مباحث و متونی را شامل شوند که به زیان هیچ زبان آموزی در سراسر جهان نیست. به همین دلیل است که آنها معمولاً کسل کننده، سنگین و ملال آور هستند و از هیچ تلاش معناداری برای ارتقا صلاحیت بین فرهنگی در بین فراگیران محروم هستند. بنابراین، این مطالعه با هدف بررسی تأثیر توسعه مواد یادگیری زبان در افزایش توانایی بین فرهنگی و توانایی گفتاری زبان آموزان EFL انجام می شود. برای این منظور، ۴۰ زبان آموز همگن EFL، ۲۰ دانشجو به گروه های آزمایشی و ۲۰ دانش آموز دیگر به عنوان گروه کنترل انتخاب شدند. هر دو گروه دارای پرسشنامه صلاحیت بین فرهنگی و آزمون انگلیسی مقدماتی (PET) به عنوان پیش آزمون بررسی آگاهی فرهنگی و توانایی گفتاری بودند. در حالی که گروه آزمایش از چارچوب رویکرد متن محور پیشنهاد شده توسط، گروه کنترل، (Tomlinson ۲۰۱۳) در دستورالعمل های خود دستکاری نکردند. نتایج انتخاب شده تفاوت در کلاسهای تجربی و کلاسهای کنترل، در صلاحیت بین فرهنگی و توانایی گفتاری را نشان می دهد. در کل، یافته ها نشان داد که تهیه مطالب یادگیری زبان با رویکرد متن محور دانش آموزان را به داشتن اطلاعات در مورد فرهنگ های دیگر ترغیب می کند. علاوه بر این، به زبان آموزان کمک کرد تا مهارت های گفتاری خود را ارتقا دهند.

واژگان کلیدی: توانش بین فرهنگی، توانایی تکلم، ارتقای مواد درسی زبان

Postmodern Historiography in Graham Swift's Waterland

تاریخ نگاری پست مدرن در رمان واترلند اثر گراهام سویفت

فربیا نوربخش

چکیده:

مقاله حاضر نشان می دهد که تام کریک، راوی رمان واترلند اثر گراهام سویفت، از فنون تاریخ نگاری پست مدرن در روایت خود بهره می برد. تاریخ نگاری پست مدرن از اهمیت روایت عظیم تاریخ کاسته و جای آن را به چندین روایت خرد می دهد. بنا به تعریف لیندا هاچن از تاریخ نگاری فراداستانی، این نوع از روایت به صورت خود-بازتاب، تعامل بین دنیای واقعی تاریخی و موضوع مورد اشاره را به چالش می کشاند. با استفاده از یک خودآگاهی تاریخی، واترلند به نحوی متناقض ضرورت وجود داستان ها و آگاهی از ماهیت تصنعی آن ها را در کنار یکدیگر قرار می دهد. در این رمان، مرز میان تاریخ و داستان نامشخص به تصویر کشیده شده است. علیرغم اینکه داستان با استفاده از ارایه چندین روایت تاریخی به وضوح با مفهوم تاریخ سر و کار دارد، به صورتی متناقض صحت آن روایات را زیر سوال می برد. رمان واترلند بین تاریخ و داستان تفاوتی قایل نمی شود و وجود داستان را لازمه به دست آوردن فهمی از دنیا به شمار می آورد. تناقض در این امر نهفته است که رمان می پذیرد که چنین فهمی، به طوری اجتناب ناپذیر، موقتی است.

واژگان کلیدی: واترلند، گراهام سویفت، تاریخ نگاری پست مدرن

Electronic portfolios: A review and Evaluation of an Alternative Method of Assessment

کار پوشه های الکترونیک: بررسی و ارزیابی یک روش جایگزین ارزیابی

سمانه کرمی

چکیده:

کار پوشه های الکترونیک به عنوان وسیله ای بسیار ارزشمند برای آموزش ، یادگیری و ارزیابی در نظر گرفته می شوند. هدف این مقاله بررسی و ارزیابی مفهوم کار پوشه های الکترونیک مورد استفاده در محیط های مختلف آموزشی است. کار پوشه های الکترونیک به عنوان نتیجه توسعه کار پوشه استفاده می شوند. پس از ارائه تعاریف مختلف از این اصطلاح ، مزایا و معایب کار پوشه ها نیز مورد بحث قرار می گیرند. بر اساس بررسی پیشینه تحقیقات مرتبط ، عقاید صاحب نظران و مطالعات تجربی ، به تمامی مدرسین توصیه شود که از کار پوشه ها در کلاس های خود و با توجه به شرایط محیط آموزشی شان استفاده کنند و از مزایای فراوان آن برخوردار شوند. کار پوشه های الکترونیک نه تنها موجب بهبود یادگیری دانش آموزان و دانشجویان میشوند ، بلکه همچنین استفاده از تکنیک های خود-ارزیابی ، استفاده از استراتژی های خود-تنظیمی و تفکر انتقادی آنها را نیز افزایش میدهند.

واژگان کلیدی: کار پوشه الکترونیک، روش های جایگزین ارزیابی ، آموزش زبان

راهنمای اشتراک دوفصلنامه تحقیق در زبان انگلیسی

به منظور اشتراک سالانه و یا تک شماره نشریه لازم است پیش از پر کردن فرم مربوطه به نکات ذیل توجه فرمایید:

- بهای اشتراک سالانه نشریه -/۰۰۰/۲۵۰ تومان و بهای تک شماره -/۰۰۰/۱۵۲ تومان می باشد.
- اشتراک سالانه نشریه از جدیدترین شماره به بعد امکان پذیر خواهد بود و شماره های قدیمی نشریه را می بایست به قیمت تک فروشی درخواست نمایید.
- نشانی خود را به صورت کامل و خوانا با ذکر کد پستی بنویسید.
- وجه اشتراک را به شماره حساب ۲۱۰۴۳۶۶۹۵۶ بانک تجارت شعبه آبیک، در وجه مؤسسه آموزش عالی مولانا واریز کرده و کپی فیش واریزی را به همراه فرم اشتراک به آدرس نشریه پست نمایید.

آدرس دفتر نشریه: استان قزوین، شهرستان آبیک، ابتدای شهرک قدس، مؤسسه آموزش عالی مولانا، دفتر

نشریه تحقیق در زبان انگلیسی

تلفن: ۰۲۸-۳۲۸۹۵۲۲۰

پست الکترونیک: JELR@molana.ac.ir

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○ قبلاً مشترک بوده ام

نام و نام خانوادگی: -----

○ اشتراک کتابخانه

نام سازمان: -----

○ اشتراک شرکت، سازمان، مؤسسه

نام کتابخانه: -----

○ اشتراک شخصی

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شماره ----- سال ----- / خرید تک شماره های ----- ارسال می شود.

تاریخ و امضاء



نشریه تحقیق در زبان انگلیسی

صاحب امتیاز: مؤسسه آموزش عالی غیر انتفاعی مولانا

سر دبیر: پروفسور پروین قاسمی

مدیر مسئول: دکتر احمد محسنی

مدیر داخلی: الهام قنبری

هیئت تحریریه:

- **پروفسور پروین قاسمی:** بازنشسته با درجه استاد تمام از دانشگاه شیراز / عضو هیئت علمی مؤسسه آموزش عالی مولانا، آبیگ، قزوین، ایران
- **پروفسور فرزانه فرحزاد:** عضو هیئت علمی دانشگاه علامه طباطبایی، تهران، ایران
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- **دکتر عبدالله برادران:** استاد دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی واحد تهران مرکز، تهران، ایران
- **دکتر احمد محسنی:** استاد دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی / عضو هیئت علمی مؤسسه آموزش عالی مولانا، آبیگ، قزوین، ایران
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فاکس:

۰۲۸-۳۲۸۹۵۲۲۲

نشریه تحقیق در زبان انگلیسی به صاحب امتیازی مؤسسه آموزش عالی غیرانتفاعی غیر دولتی مولانا مجوز انتشار خود را به شماره ۸۶۴۸۱ در تاریخ ۱۲ خرداد ۱۳۹۹ از وزارت فرهنگ و ارشاد اسلامی دریافت کرده است.

آدرس: استان قزوین، شهرستان آبیگ، ابتدای شهرک قدس، مؤسسه آموزش عالی مولانا، دفتر نشریه

تحقیق در زبان انگلیسی

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