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رئیس کنفرانس

آقای دکتر عباس زراعت ، ریاست محترم دانشگاه کاشان

دبیر کنفرانس

آقای دکتر عباس معدن دار، رئیس انجمن آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی ایران

دبیر علمی کنفرانس

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آقاي دکتر حسن ملکي،استاد دانشگاه علامه طباطبائی

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خانم دکتر شیوا دولت آبادی، نایب رئیس انجمن روانشناسی ایران

آقای دکتر سعید فرح بخش،دانشیار دانشگاه لرستان

آقای دکتر ابراهیم خدائی، دانشیار دانشگاه تهران

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خانم دکتر زهرا گویا، استاد دانشگاه شهید بهشتی

آقای دکتر هادی مرجایی، استادیار موسسه پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزش عالی

آقای دکتر غلامرضا ذاکر صالحی، دانشیار موسسه پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزش عالی

آقای دکتر سیروس قنبری، دانشیار دانشگاه بو علی سینا همدان

خانم دکتر مژده وزیری، استادیار دانشگاه الزهرا

آقای دکتر رضا منیعی، استادیار موسسه پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزش عالی

کمیته داوران

آقای دکتر رحمت الله مرزوقی (استاد دانشگاه شیراز

آقای دکتر نعمت الله عزیزی (استاد دانشگاه کردستان

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آقای دکتر اسماعیل زارعی زوارکی (دانشیار دانشگاه علامه طباطبائی

آقای دکتر بختیار شعبانی ورکی (استاد دانشگاه فردوسی مشهد

دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی
دانشگاه کاشان ، ایران
International Conference on Comparative Education
kashan University, Iran

انجمن علمی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی ایران

■ آقای دکتر محمد حسینی پور (دانشیار دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی اهواز
■ خانم دکتر مهوش لطفی (استادیار وزارت علوم، تحقیقات و فناوری
■ آقای دکتر عباس حبیب زاده (استادیار دانشگاه قم
■ آقای دکتر علی ایمان زاده (استادیار دانشگاه تبریز(
■ آقای دکتر مسعود صادقی (استادیار دانشگاه لرستان
■ آقای دکتر مجید رعنائی (معاون شورای عالی آموزش و پرورش
■ دکتر بهمن یاسبلاغی(استادیار دانشگاه اراک
■ دکتر سیف الله فضل الهی (استادیار دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی قم
■ آقای دکتر حسین عباسی (استادیار دانشگاه فرهنگیان
■ آقای دکتر سروش آزادبخت (استادیار دانشگاه لرستان
■ خانم دکتر شهلا سرخابی (عضو معاونت راهبردی شورای عالی آموزش و پرورش
■ دکتر علی نوری (استادیار دانشگاه ملایر
■ خانم دکتر زهره اسمعیلی (استادیار دانشگاه پیام نور
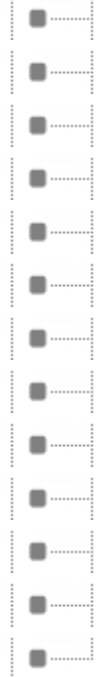
بیانیه پایانی دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی

بسم   الله   الرحمن   الرحیم

خداوند بزرگ را شاکریم که به ما توفیق داد تا **"دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی"** را در دو سطح مطلوب کمی وکیفی برگزار کنیم. در بدو امر از همکاری بیدریغ استادان، اندیشمندان و پژوهشگران ارجمند و بیش از ۲۰ سازمان علمی ، دانشگاهی و اجرائی که با پشتیبانی های گوناگون و کم‌نظیر خود به برگزاری هر چه بهتر این رخداد علمی یاری رساندند، قدردانی می نمائیم.

رشد صعودی توجه محققان به پژوهش های تطبیقی در سال های اخیر نشانگر آن است که برای اصلاح نظام تعلیم و تربیت ، نیازمند درک تحولات زمانه در هر دو سطح منطقه ای و جهانی هستیم. در سطح بین المللی ، جوامع پیشرفته در سیر شتاب گونه بهبود و اصلاح نظام آموزشی خود کما فی السابق وقفه ای ایجاد نکرده و درس های بسیاری می توان از آنان فرا گرفت. در سطح منطقه ای ، دنیای خاورمیانه ، دنیای اضداد است. ایران در مرکز این منطقه ، همسایگانی دارد که بر فاصله خود با او افزوده اند ، در

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حالی که همزمان بلایای روزگار مانع رشد تعداد دیگری از آنان شده است. هر دو گروه ، درس های مهمی برای مردم ایران و نظام آموزشی آن دارند. بررسی و تحلیل مقالات و سخنرانی های "**دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی**" در دانشگاه کاشان با حضور بیش از ۵۰ تن از استادان رشته های مختلف علوم انسانی و هم چنین پژوهشگران فرهیخته از سرتاسر کشور - که در طی دو روز به نقد و بررسی ابعاد متعدد نظام تعلیم و تربیت از منظر تطبیق و مقایسه نشسته اند - می تواند دربردارنده پیام های مهمی مبتنی بر انذار و تبشیر برای دست اندرکاران نظام آموزشی ، جامعه علوم تربیتی و انجمن های علمی آن باشد. انجمن آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی ایران در طی ۵ سال اخیر کوشیده است رسالت خود را برای آگاه سازی جامعه تعلیم وتربیت از سیر تحولات و تغییرات جهانی ومنطقه ای نظام های آموزشی تحقق بخشد. در این راستا ، پس از برگزاری جلسات هیات مدیره و نشست های با تعدادی از صاحب نظران ،اهداف دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی به شرح زیر تعیین گردید:

الف. ایجاد فرصت برای معرفی ، بسط دانش نظری ، تقویت دانش بومی و اشتراک گذاری تجارب و دیدگاه های صاحب نظران آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی در سطح ملی

ب. ایجاد فرصت برای برقراری ارتباط با مجامع دانشگاهی بین المللی از طریق دعوت از استادان خارجی و برگزاری کارگاه های تخصصی تطبیقی

ج. ایجاد فرصت برای نقد و ارزشیابی پژوهش های تطبیقی مطالعات آموزش و پرورش در ایران

د. بستر سازی مناسب برای بهره گیری و کاربست یافته های مطالعات تطبیقی برای سیاست گذاران و برنامه ریزان آموزشی در سطوح مختلف تحلیل (ملی ، استانی و آموزشگاهی)

برای نیل به اهداف فوق الاشاره در طول دو سال اخیر اقدامات زیر توسط انجمن آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی ایران صورت گرفته است:

الف. تشکیل دبیرخانه دائمی کنفرانس ، کمیته علمی و کمیته داوران و دریافت مجوز علمی از پایگاه استنادی جهان اسلام (ISC) برای مقالات کنفرانس

ب. ارتباط موثر با انجمن های علوم تربیتی کشور که به عنوان نمونه می توان به عقد تفاهم نامه همکاری با انجمن مطالعات برنامه درسی ایران ، انجمن فلسفه تعلیم وتربیت و انجمن روانشناسی ایران اشاره نمود.

ج. همکاری با سازمان ها ، دانشگاه ها و موسسات پژوهشی که می توان به همکاری های فیمابین با شورایعالی آموزش و پرورش ، موسسه پژوهش وبرنامه ریزی آموزش عالی ، سازمان پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزشی و دانشگاه های فرهنگیان ، کاشان ، شاهد و الزهرا برای برگزاری نشست های تخصصی اشاره نمود.

از منظر ساختاری اهداف و رسالت های دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی در ۱۴ محور علمی تعیین گردید . محصول این تلاشها دریافت بیش از ۲۱۰ مقاله به صورت چکیده و مقاله کامل ، ۱۷ مقاله به زبان انگلیسی و شرکت پژوهشگرانی از کشورهای ژاپن ، مالزی ، پاکستان ، امارات عربی متحده ، و فنلاند بوده است. هم چنین کمیته علمی کنفرانس مصوب نمود که انجمن مراسم " **بزرگداشت و یادبود مرحوم دکتر احمد آقازاده** " را در تهران و در طی یک سال آینده خواهد بود.

در پایان انجمن آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی ایران وظیفه خود می داند ضمن تشکر مجدد از همراهی و حمایت های علمی و حضور پرشکوه همه تطبیق گران آموزشی بویژه اعضای محترم کمیته علمی و داوران محترم ، از آقایان دکتر عباس زراعت ریاست محترم دانشگاه کاشان و معاونین محترم آقایان دکتر مجید منعم زاده ، دکتر عباس اقبالی و دکتر حسین ستار بخاطر قبول میزبانی کنفرانس تشکر و قدردانی نماید.

از همکاری بی شائبه جناب آقای دکتر مهدی نوید دبیرکل محترم شورایعالی آموزش وپرورش و معاونین محترم آقایان دکتر مجید رعنائی و دکتر احمد عابدینی و مدیر محترم پژوهش های راهبردی سرکار خانم دکتر شهلا سرخابی ، سرکار خانم دکتر نسرین نورشاهی ریاست محترم موسسه پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزش عالی و دکتر غلامرضا ذاکر صالحی دانشیار موسسه ؛ جناب آقای دکتر رضا محمدی رئیس مرکز تحقیقات ارزشیابی، اعتبارسنجی و تضمین کیفیت آموزش عالی سازمان سنجش آموزش کشور ، جناب آقای دکتر نصرت الله ضرغام رئیس محترم صندوق حمایت از پژوهشگران و فناوران کشور و جناب آقای دکتر محمد جواد دهقانی رئیس مرکز منطقه ای اطلاع رسانی علوم و فناوری تشکر و قدردانی می گردد.

هم چنین لازم است بویژه از پشتیبانی علمی و معنوی آقایان دکتر کورش فتحی واجارگاه معاونت محترم پژوهشی سازمان سمت و دکتر محمد آرمند عضو هیات علمی و دانشیار مرکز تحقیق و توسعه علوم انسانی ، سرکار خانم دکتر زهره متقی رئیس محترم انجمن آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی – شعبه استان اصفهان و همکاران ایشان و از جناب آقای دکتر مجید صفاری ریاست محترم مرکز آموزش وآزمون های بین المللی صفر یک اصفهان قدردانی گردد. علاوه بر این سپاس خود را تقدیم روسای محترم سازمان میراث فرهنگی ، فرهنگ و ارشاد اسلامی ، آموزش وپرورش و شهرداری کاشان و هم چنین شهرداری و آموزش وپرورش آران و بیدگل نموده وتوفیق و سلامتی روزافزون برای آقایان دکتر سید حسین سیادتیان ، دکتر ابراهیم نجمی و دکتر مجید خاری آرانی برای مساعدت های بیدریغ آرزومندیم.

در پایان اعضای هیات مدیره انجمن آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی ایران تشکر صمیمانه خود را نثار ریاست محترم دانشگده ادبیات و علوم انسانی جناب آقای دکتر سعید قماشی ، اعضای محترم گروه علوم تربیتی آقایان دکتر علی یزدخواستی ، دکتر محمد امینی ، دکتر علیرضا رحیمی ، دکتر احمد مدنی و سرکار خانم دکتر اشرف السادات اطهری و دانشجویان عزیز رشته علوم تربیتی و کلیه کارکنان دانشگاه کاشان می نمایند. بدون شک بدون همکاری های بی شائبه این عزیزان، برگزاری " دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی " هیچگاه میسور نمی گردید. سلامتی ، توفیق و شادکامی همه این بزرگواران را از درگاه خداوند متعال خواستاریم.

دکتر عباس معدن دار آرانی

دبیر کنفرانس و رئیس انجمن آموزش وپرورش تطبیقی ایران

Investment in Early Childhood Education: Iran's Experience

Dr. Lida Kaki (Ministry of Education)

&

Tandis Taghavi (PhD Student, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia)

&

 Mohammad Jafari Malek (PhD Student, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia)

As there is a rational relationship between children's life before coming to formal education system with participant at kindergartens and pre-primary centers, we need to look at the historical process of Early Childhood Education (ECE) in Iran. ECE in Iran dates back to the early years of the twentieth century, but it accelerated only recently (Mofidi, 1997). The first preschools were set up by Christian missionaries in Iran in 1919, which were mostly attended by children from the rich families. In 1924, recognizing the growing importance of ECE, the government prepared and ratified the bill to regulate their operations and conferred the first permit to operate a kindergarten in Tehran in 1931 (Madandar Arani & Kakia, 2011). The rise of the Islamic Revolution in 1979 led to many changes in the goals, management, and methods of establishment of many social institutions and organizations. ECE centers were no exception. Although before Revolution the establishment and administration of ECE centers were mainly under control of private sector, nowadays 14 institutions and organization are involved in ECE, each of which has its own rules and regulations .According to the latest bill of the Iran's parliament, determining the educational indicators, content of curricula and monitoring of ECE centers is responsibility of the Ministry of Education but the license of establishment issue by the State Welfare Organization of Iran. Along with demographic and political changes, we have seen a slight increase in the rate of enrollment over the past four decades, so that in the year 2015, coverage rate has risen from 38% to 64% in 2017. At present there are more than 48,000 teachers who working at ECE centers with different levels of educational qualifications and competencies. The budget allocated by the government to ECE centers in 2016 and 2017 were 50 and 55 billion Rials (USD 1,533,000 & 1,687,000) respectively. Using a comparative approach, the present paper investigates developments of ECE centers over the past four decades in terms of private and public investments. The first part of the article gives an overview of the historical evolution of centers before the revolution. The second part refers to investment's rule and regulations under administration of four Iran's presidents. The third section addresses the level of government and private investments. The paper ends with discussion and conclusion.

Keywords :Early Childhood Education, Comparative Approach, Investment, Iran

EFFECTS OF SEASONAL MIGRATION ON SCHOOL DROP-OUT
Migration in Tharparkar district, Sindh, Pakistan:
A Logistic Regression Analysis

Shameem Akhtar Mari[1]
Prof.Dr.Ghulam Ali Jariko[2]
Prof.Zareen Khan Rind[3]

ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to assess the effects of seasonal migration on child schooling especially in context of drop out in district Tharparkar, which has the highest drop-out rate among other districts of Sindh. The sample was selected from villages of district Tharparkar. Logit regression model was applied to analyse the collected data. Study results illustrated that, seasonal migration, beside other characteristics such as; family size, family having land, girl child, boy gild, child work, children never go to school, hospital distance, city distance, metaled road distance, children in primary school, children in middle school, children in high school has high impact on school dropout ratio. Therefore, to address the school dropout issue, government and policy makers must work on seasonal migration(s) in district Tharparkar and create economic resources and opportunities for these migratory families. Once families have enough resources at their villages they will have no reason to migrate or relocate unnecessarily. When families are at their own villages for whole year, it will insure children's presence at schools that will ultimately reduce the dropout ratio in schools.

Key word: ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

INTRODUCTION
Seasonal migration is a state in which the migrants leave their households for a short period of time such as; for few months or once or twice in a year (Dennis.G & Christoph.T, 2008). According to Konseiga, (2009) Seasonal migration is a significant methodology to manage with poverty for those who are not capable or ready to shift permanently or to great distances. Different surroundings and motives (political, social and economic, climate changes, and other push and pull factors) are behind this migration and these reasons coerce families to leave their birth places for a particular period of time. Migration impact on the lives of people differently somewhere positively and somewhere negatively, it is dependent on patterns, types and circumstances around migrates. If we analyse the impact of seasonal migration on families of migratory workers, it differs, region to region and area to area. In case of Mexico and Vietnam it

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[1] Assistant Professor, Mehran University, Jamshoro.
[2] Direcor, Abida Taherani Sindh Development Studies Centre, (ATSDSC), University of Sindh, Jamshoro.
[3] Assistant Professor, Abida Taherani Sindh Development Studies Centre, (ATSDSC), University of Sindh, Jamshoro.

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changed the lives of migrants positively but on other hand in India and Pakistan it effects adversely on seasonal migrants. Thousands of people leave their homes in Pakistan due to many reasons such as; security or military operations, because of development of projects and for economic reasons. Seasonal migration usually occurs in south east districts of Sindh which is known as Tharparkar. Hundreds of families leave their homes towards neighbouring districts twice in a year in search of work. Despite frequent migrations since centuries, misery seems everywhere in the respective district. Instead of bringing a tangible positive change seasonal migration kept away a large number of children from schools. Illiteracy shut the doors of jobs and economic opportunities for localities. Seasonal migration compels hundreds of children to leave schools every year.

(Table.1) shows that Tharparkar is among those sixth districts where drop-out ratio is in two digits.

TABLE: 1. HIGHEST DROP-OUT DISTRICTS OF SINDH (%)

S.No	District Name	Drop-out
1	Sujawal	29
2	Korangi Karachi	29
3	South Karachi	27
4	Thatta	23
5	Tharparkar	19

Source: Sindh Education and Literacy Department,(2016-17).

Despite a history of migration since centuries, hardly any research has been conducted on seasonal migrants. Due to lack of reliable data on seasonal migration, government is unable to deal with problems like; poverty, education, health and scarcity of water in Tharparkar. This study is an attempt to analyse the effects of seasonal migration on child schooling especially in regard of drop-out ratio and suggest valuable, doable actions to the government and policy makers to overcome these issues.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Konseiga (2007), Seasonal migration is a strategic way of dealing with poverty for those individuals who are either unable or willing to move permanently or for large distances. Dennis.G & Christoph.T, (2008) briefed, seasonal migration is migration in which migrants leave their homes for a few months. Sedentarism & W.V.D.Post (1987-79) said that " mobility of people, regardless organized or disorganised, are viewed as a risky and a challengeable to make a steady and sustainable everyday life, however, since centuries , the migration is a way of living, regardless from individuality, caste and creed.

World Bank, (2005) reported that generally, workers had migrated seasonally to adjoin areas in same country, fascinated by large export crops that might, offer wages at time of off-season or in destitute/disastrous days. Smith (1991) concluded, land quality declination is the main push motive behind seasonal migration.C.Ardington.et.al, (2009) provided evidences that seasonal migrants are poorest segments of life and even in many times they cannot travel because of poverty. Samita (2008), survey report revealed that three to four million migrate seasonally in

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only India. They leave homes for many reasons; for survival of families, better work opportunities compared to home districts/states, cling of improving status in families, support to siblings for education. According to Food & Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, 2009) revealed that the main factors behind the seasonal migration are; poverty, level of education, gender ,age dependency, occupation, family income, family size, assets (House ,residence, machinery, land, animals), government infrastructure facilities (school, markets, hospitals, roads, clean water), basic amenities (Food, cloth, shelter) and migration status. Murtaza.A. (2013) concluded that, elevating poverty is not possible without quality of education and for achieving the literacy ratio government should make polices in which development of poor households should be focused.

STUDY AREA

Tharparkar is among those six districts of Sindh where, school enrolment is low and school dropout ratio is high. Sindh education and literacy report (2016-17) reveals that, every year, 19 percent of enrolled children in Tharparkar, leave their schooling before completion of their basic primary education despite having sufficient number of schools and teachers. Illiteracy closes the doors of jobs and economic opportunities of these seasonal migrants. Tharparkar is a deserted district of Pakistan with limited living resources. Main livelihood sources are agriculture and livestock, and both are reliant on rain because, Tharparkar does not have any river. For survival, 15 to 20 percent of total population is forced to leave their villages in dry seasons in order to find work for earning as to fulfil basic family needs. Seasonal migration is common strategy to cope-up with poverty and survival. Families, migrate to adjoining agri-belt districts along their children for three to sixth months resulting children are unable to attend classes and continue their schooling. They are also unable to appear in exams because, exams are scheduled in those months when they are out of villages (Feb to May).

Research survey shows that, poverty, seasonal migration and drop-out are inter-linked to each other. People leave their villages, because of limited resources and it is poverty and limited resources which force families to migrate. Generally, families migrate for couple of months along their children so, seasonal migration effects child schooling and it is one of the main contributing factor of drop-out in Tharparkar district. For resolving the issue of drop-out, government has to ensure sustainable livelihood resources for families. Once families are self-reliant with sufficient resources, they don't need to migrate, resulting children remain in schools for whole year and drop-out ration will decreased.

ECONOMETRIC MODELING FRAMEWORK

The purpose of Study was to investigate the effects of seasonal migration on child schooling of migratory workers in regard of drop-out. For this, twenty one villages of five talukas of district Tharparkar were selected where, seasonal migration was common. On the basis of secondary data and field notes, numerous elements of seasonal migration and drop-out were identified which ultimately affect primary schooling and boosting dropout in district Tharparkar. Based on these elements, a questioner was developed in order to collect primary data. Once total 440 households were interviewed, it was analysed with the help of STATA 14 version. In this

research, descriptive aspects of the findings are presented in table 2 with; mean, Std.Dev, minimum and maximum numbers. In order to test our hypothesis, independent samples *t* test and Logit regression were applied as to investigate the impact of seasonal migration on school dropout.

Z: probability of drop-out in public school:

Z={ $0, = if children is drop - out$ and 1=if children is not drop-out}

The function of this study contains the household characteristics

$$Z=F \left| \begin{array}{l} a_0 + a_1 \, Seasonal \, Migration, + a_2 \, HH_{size,} + \, a_3 \, HH_{Land}, + a_4 \, Girl \, Child \, , \\ + a_5 \, Distance \, of \, metled \, road, \, , + a_6 \, Water \, Distanc, \\ + a_7 \, Hospital \, Distance, + a_8 \, City \, Distance, \, + a_9 \, Children \, in \, primary \, School, \\ + a_{10} \, Children \, in \, middle \, school \, and \, + \, a_{11} \, Children \, in \, high \, school \end{array} \right|$$

Where seasonal migration is a dummy variable which is equal to 0 if household is migrated and it is equal to 1 if the household is not migrated. hh_land is number of land in acres which household have, girl child and boy child shows number of children in sampled household. Water distance shows the kilometres; how far is water from household. Hospital, Mettled road and city distance indicates the distance of hospital, city and mettled road from household village in km. Children in Primary, middle and high school shows the number of children who are currently studying and are enrolled in Primary, middle and in high school.

Above given characteristics were selected as to see the effects of seasonal migration on child schooling of migratory families in regard of drop-out in Tharparkar district (see Table 1, Appendix).

Using Logistic regressions model, our intention is to test the below hypotheses;

Hypothesis "H": *Seasonal migration is a major obstacle in children's schooling significantly in drop out of children from schools in Tharparkar.*

Parameters: Socio-economic conditions such as; family size, family having land, girl child, boy gild, child work, children never go to school, hospital distance, city distance, metaled road ddistance, cchildren in primary school, cchildren in middle school, children in high school.

Analytical Tools: Tabulation, mean value of variables, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values, and logistic regression model.

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

Tharparkar is a desert region of Pakistan. Rainfall is only option to irrigate land for cash crops as well as for getting food for their livestock, which is their main source of survival. Statical data shows (Table: 2), the mean value of seasonal migration is 0.22 while average household size is 6.6 persons per household. Average land per family is 5acrs. Average city distance is respectively high with distance of 28.8Kms, following hospital distance which is 14.8Kms.Average metal road distance is 5.2Kms and drinking water source distance is 0.61. Average number of girl child is bit low than boys (girls=1.6, boys=2.09). Average slope of grade level is going down as grade is high (Primary=1.2, Middle=0.45 and high school is

0.07).Children never been school average is 2. Data analyses reveal that, child work trend is high in sampled villages and averagely 1.6 children from per household are involved in child labour.

TABLE 2 : PARAMETERS OF SEAONAL MIGRATION AND DISCRIPTIVE STATICS

Explanatory Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Family Size	6.645455	2.523101	3	15
Family having land	5.147727	3.329785	0	15
City distance	28.86136	16.10745	3	45
Water distance	0.618182	0.842161	0	3
Metaled road distance	5.259091	8.136431	0	32
Hospital distance	14.80682	11.46656	1	45
Boy Child	2.093182	1.325395	0	1
Girl child	1.634091	1.373429	0	8
Children in primary school	1.229545	0.917826	0	4
Children in middle school	0.456818	0.567092	0	1
Children in high school	0.070455	0.256203	0	1
Children never go school	2.002273	1.658139	0	7
Child work	1.6	0.842493	0	6

Survey data, 2016-17

Logistic Regression model is used in order to see relation , magnitude and significance among dependant variable (drop-out) and independent variables such as; seasonal migration, family size, family having land, girl child, boy gild, child work, children never go to school, hospital distance, city distance, metaled road distance, children in primary school, cchildren in middle school, children in high school.

All the coefficients are significant at 1% and 5% levels (Table: 3). Below table shows, all the coefficients have their proper signs, nevertheless, seasonal migration, children never been in school, children in primary, middle and high school level, girl child and boys child siblings have overall larger coefficients, signifying a comparatively high impact on child schooling of seasonally migrants in regard of dropout.

Model shows independent variables such as; seasonal Migration, family having land, child work, children never been in school, distance of city, distance of metaled road, children in primary school, children in middle school and children in high school have positive significant relation with dependent variable (drop-out) while family size, girl child, child boy, distance of water, distance of hospital are significant with negative relation to dependent variable.

Seasonal migration is highly significant at probability level of 0.01. Model is confirming that seasonal migration has positive relation with dropout. Due to seasonal migration, children are forced to leave their schooling. Every year, for harvesting of wheat crop, families leave their home district along their children in month of February and remain at migratory places till the end of April or mid of May. Annual Primary and middle school exams are held between (Feb to May)

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resulting children are unable to appear in exams which ultimately boosting high drop-out in Tharparkar district.

Table.3 shows, family having Land has direct positive relation with children drop-out. Families who have land they are likely to involve their children in agri-labour instead of sending them in school. Child work also has significant positive relation with drop-out. Children who are involve in child work they are most likely to leave schooling because, it is hard for feeble hands to not only work to support parents but also continue their schooling. Out of school children is also found highly significant at probability level of 0.000. Children are highly influenced by their circumstances so; out- school children also have impact on their drop-out. When they see their friends and neighboring children out of school they influenced by them and leave their schooling. Survey data reveals that, distance of city has positive relation with drop-out. Families who are living on far-flung areas or long distances of cities, they are unaware about importance of education. It is also noted that, either schools in far-flung areas are not functional or teachers are not ready to go far-flung areas and teach there. Due to this parents have only one option to involve them in child labour in order to support families. Distance of metaled road also has positive relation with drop-out. Many of villages do not have metaled road facility so it is hard for children to find transport for nearby schools. Travelling long distances on bar foots is either not easy for children or not safe, resulting there is high drop-out in schools.

Data shows (table.3), class grades have high significant positive relation with drop-out in public schools. Drop-out is also high with grades of classes. As grade is high, there is high drop-out. Out of total primary school children only one percent children reach at matriculation. From primary to matriculation completion ratio is only one percent in survey area. Analysing of survey data shows, family size has negative relation with school drop-out. Children of large family size are less likely to leave schooling due to high travel expenses and residence issue of migrate areas. Girl child has negative relation with school drop-out. As, gild children are not involved in child work so, they are less likely to leave schooling. Child boy also has negative relation with school drop-out because, when elder siblings are involved in child work and supporting family they prefer their younger siblings should remain in school and purse for further study. Distance of hospital also has negative relation with drop-out. Many times, when children miss their few lessons it is hard for them to cover that loss and face teacher. This loss and fear of punishment leads them to leave school. Data shows, hospitals are located on long distances in surveyed villages. In case of parent's illness, it is not easy for families to take children along themselves resulting children remain in schools and hardly have they missed their classes. It means only distance of hospital is not reason of drop-out. Distance of water has negative relation with drop-out. In Tharparkar fetching water is responsibility of women and children but when water is on long distance responsibility shifts to elder one. Due to long distance it is neither easy for child to travel long and nor travelling alone is safe for a child so, head of house take this responsibility on his own shoulders. As this responsibility diminishes chances of drop-out go lower.

TABLE 3: LOGISTIC BINARY REGRESSION MODEL RESULTS

Explanatory Variables	Coefficient	(St. Error)	Z	P>|z|

Seasonal Migration	6.65039	1.79542	3.7	0
Family Size	-0.58314	0.262611	-2.22	0.026
Family having Land	0.271263	0.113321	2.39	0.017
Girl child	-4.90066	0.761685	-6.43	0
Child Boy	-4.7048	0.79898	-5.89	0
Child work	2.614404	0.760012	3.44	0.001
Children never go school	6.038541	0.930451	6.49	0
Distance of water	-0.65215	0.369947	-1.76	0.078
Distance of hospital	-0.11021	0.034695	-3.18	0.001
Distance of city	0.073452	0.025265	2.91	0.004
Distance of metaled road	0.021098	0.006672	3.16	0.002
Children in primary school	4.783488	0.762479	6.27	0
Children in middle school	4.120024	0.685321	6.01	0
Children in high school	5.685675	1.258817	4.52	0
Model Fit Test				
Log likelihood	-47.793853			
Prob > chi 2	0.000			
Pseudo R2	0.8042			

Survey data, 2016-17

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Research shows that entirely explanatory variables such as; seasonal migration, family size, family having land, children both girls and boys, child work, out of school children, hospital distance, city distance, metaled road distance, children in primary school, children in middle school and children in high school are statistically significant at probability level of 0.01 with 95% confidence level. The overall R^2 is 0.8042, which shows that, eighty percent variation in dependent variable (DV) is accounted for the above-mentioned variables. Based on the findings, the study concluded that seasonal migration has negative impact on the education of seasonally migrant. Seasonal migration is not only making them absent from education during migratory months but ultimately made them to drop out. Seasonally Migrant children hardly attend school at work places. Instead of going school they are usually involved in labour work along their

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parents so when they come back home they almost forget whatever lessons they learnt before migration. Research confirmed that, seasonal migration has significant impact on child drop-out in Tharparkar. Mostly, at time of exams they are out of village schools so they couldn't appear in exams and remain in same classes for many years eventually they leave schooling and fall in child labour as support their families. To overcome this issue following serious steps are required by government side on emergency basis as to uplift the conditions of seasonal migrants. Once their economic conditions are better, they have no need to migrate towards agri-belt districts of Sindh.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- High-powered organization/Authority must be formed to carry out essential works in in Thar. This body should make food and fodder reserves. They also remove infrastructural shortage, to increase veterinary services and widen the size of people's economic activity.
- Government should plan new economic activities in small and far-flung villages of Tharparkar so that the people could find employment opportunities within their native or near to their native villages
- Government should work closely with village leaders and ensure attendance regularity of boys and girls. This can be only possible through awareness; benefits of education, sustained school feeding and cash with condition programs.
- Model campus schools with boarding and loading should be started. This will retain students when their parents are likely to migrate (There are shelter schools in India for seasonal migrants).
- Teachers of Tharparkar should be trained in new teaching methods and advance planning of covering syllables especially for seasonal migratory children in case they are out of schools for months due to seasonal migration.
- Provision of water, toilet and electricity should be ensured in each school. Many children left their schooling because of non-availability of water and toilets.
- Timetable of primary exams should be reviewed for Tharparkar district and made commensurate to the seasonal behavior of migrants (Seasonally migrants are out of homes from Feb-April every year).
- School-feeding program should be started by Government. The program will not only retain children in schools but also minimize malnutrition among children which is high in Tharparkar district.
- A university should be opened in Tharparkar district to promote higher education.

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Studying the Political – management Barriers of the Internationalization of Curriculum in Higher Education

محور انتخابی کنفرانس: بومی سازی و جهانی سازی

Mahshid Mehrjoo[4]*

Abstract

The goal of this study was to search for the role of barriers related to political Aspects of the internationalization of 6th State Azad Universities' Curriculum according to the faculties' views in 2013-2014. That was a survey and the research method was descriptive. The statistic population included 1474 full time members of faculties in these universities and 330 participants were selected based on multi stages cluster sampling. The tool used in this survey was a questionnaire which included 23 statements. The validity of questionnaire was emphasized and accepted by 10 experts in this field and the reliability of questionnaire was determined based on Chronbach's Alpha coefficient and the number was 0.93. For the analysis of data, a combination of descriptive and inferential techniques including one sample T test and independent T test was used. Findings indicated the structural barriers, cultural barriers, human resources barriers and political/management barriers were barriers in

[4] Master of comparative and international education and Curriculum development PhD student (Mahshidmehrjoo@yahoo.com)

the internationalization of 6th State Azad universities' curriculum according to the faculties' views.

Keywords: Internationalization of curriculum (IOC), Internationalization of higher education, 6th   state

1. INTRODUCTION

Information explosion, communication development, changes in government and political system of governance, has undergone a fundamental change of perspective the need and look at higher education (Kharrazi Azar, 2009). The revolution in communications and technology via creating of a related world has made important conditions in which the transfers speed can be accelerated, as Marginson (2007) and Crawford & Kirby (2008) have recognized the reinforcement of the technological aspect in internationalization of higher education as an effective factor. In such circumstances, higher education plays a basic and fundamental role in preparing individuals for their future in globalized and interconnected world (Ginkel, 2002). The increasing development of Information and communication technology and establishing teleconference calls between the continent and the nature of knowledge indicates that's out of the question to make a boundary for science and expertise and as a result, universities are inevitable international institutions   (Arefi, 2005). For the cultural development, development of higher education system as a custodian of education, research and technology with having different specialties and also training of expert human resources not only causes the development of the institutions under its control, but also will provoke personal growth and enrichment and education of human sources. The main objectives of the curriculum from this perspective can be considered as the following:

❖ Preparation of the university students to face the important and relevant global realities such as activities in the competitive environment at the international level.

❖ Increasing students' understanding of culture, religions, their own political system and other nations.

❖ Development of insight and a global or comprehensive perspective toward the international community and also equipping them with necessary skills in order to do conscious judgments with regard to issues in the contemporary world and their role in the world.

❖ Promoting world peace (Hanson & Meyerson, 1995).

The phenomenon of globalization and international cooperation has led universities and higher education institutes toward eliminating the distance between science and technology and strengthening academic, educational and cultural exchanges among nations. Globalization is a term with cultural, social and economic dimensions (Blossfeld & Hofmeister, 2008). Globalization theories are widely associated with the economic ,cultural and political categories (Olssen et al, 2004). According to Cheng's view (2002), there are several types of globalization in the new millennium which includes technological, economical, social and cultural globalization (Cheng, 2002). Potential effects of globalization will leave important consequences on the growth of those educational systems that have not been fully evaluated (Carnoy, 1999). Internationalizing the curriculum is one of the main goals of universities and a group of experts considers the curriculum as one of the main elements of internationalization of universities (Navarro, 2004). Globalization is called as the process of combining the international, intercultural or global aspects in objectives, functions or the teaching and training strategies of an institute (Knight, 2004). The majority of the respondents in Knight's (1995) study suggested that, "internationalization needs to occur at local academic and administrative units within a broad policy framework". Since successful internationalization of the curriculum requires a collaborative, interdisciplinary approach, one of the greatest challenges in internationalizing the curriculum is bringing together large numbers of faculty from diverse disciplines to collaborate towards this goal .The use of both formal and informal communication and information-sharing strategies amongst the stakeholders involved within the institutional internationalization process is crucial to its success (Jones & Andrews, 2002; Knight, 1994). In this era of fiscal restraint, the establishment of new international programs and curricula must compete with many other institutional demands for funding (Taylor, 2000; Knight, 1994). It appears that the priority institutions place on funding this important aspect of internationalization will determine its level and extent of development. Since the Islamic Azad University as an institution of higher education is no exception to this trend, and largely accepts the conditions of globalization and internationalization, through this research effort is to identify technological barriers of the internationalization of Azad University's curricula to meet the step in order to remove the requirements and possible damages. Based on the research problem, the following research questions summarized and the aim is to answer this main question:

Main Question: What are the technical barriers to internationalizing the curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

For this purposes, the following sub-questions have been determined:

Q1. What are the cultural barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Q2. What are the human resources barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Q3. What are the structural barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Q4. What are the political/management barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Q5. Is there any difference between male and female faculties' views in barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Globalization and Internationalization of Curriculum (IOC)

As a basic and fundamental variable in this study, internationalizing the curriculum will be considered as a function of the various perceptions by planners. Based on our perception of curriculum term, its internationalization will be different (Oliva, 2009). For a better understanding of IOC, it is essential to clarify relation of some concepts such as globalization and internationalization. Globalization is defined as complex a process which contains the global flow of people and goods, ideas and ideologies, messages and investments and technologies (Clifford, 2005). Giddens (1990) believes that globalization in a sense of development of international relations through diminishing the concept of geographic distances, leads to influence and to be influenced by events in local areas. The intensification of processes related to social relations and global complex changes has created an environment for educational systems at all levels in which students, masters and administrators from different countries with different economic, social and cultural fields are present (Mc Laren, 1995). The concept of globalization is not usually supposed the same as internationalization. A definition that one of the famous experts in the internationalization domain Knight (1997) suggested and represented was valid and effective. He has defined the internationalization as follows:

"The process of combining the international aspect of teaching functions, research and services of an institute of higher education is called internationalization". In 2004, Knight, revised his definition of globalization as following:

"Globalization is called as the process of combining the international, intercultural or global aspects in objectives, functions or the teaching and training strategies of an institute" (Knight, 2004). Development of universities in the world and different countries and the emergence of new technologies such as Information and Communication Technology (ICT) are the policies of educational systems and universities in developed countries to provide much more curriculum to the farthest parts of the world. The philosophy and mindset of these institutions and looking at all the people in the world as a global citizen is providing growth opportunities and personal and professional development of the students in the

global economy (Fathi Vagargah, 2007). The effect of variety of social, economical and cultural aspects in teaching-learning process in IOC was evident and among the reasons of doing is that universities in the worldwide use affecting it results in ways of thinking about curriculum, instruction, learning and assessment (Bond, 2003). Availability of facilities and sufficient and adequate elements are effective in achieving the main goals of IOC. Those countries which are more dynamic in the process of international higher education have the major benefits of international education in economical, cultural, political, and social aspects. Curricula in higher education must provide essential elements to meet the needs of students who are coming from other countries and their purpose is in the orientation of international education goals (Arefi, 2005). In addition to the revision of curriculum content, paying attention to teaching methods is also important. Creating opportunities for students to improve international views considers as a part of the internationalization process of curriculum in higher education (De Wit, 1999).

Marginson and Wende (2007) with declaring the importance of cultural and economical globalization which has provided a new era in higher education, has cited the effect of humanistic, cultural, scientific, technological and financial investments dimensions in higher education of the internationalization view. Zare (2008) in order to survey the barriers of internationalization of curriculum at Shahid Beheshti University has identified cultural, structural, financial, content-oriented, managerial - political, equipment-related, and teaching methods as IOC obstacles . Shahi et. al (2008) expressing that the organizational structure of Public Universities in Khuzestan Province including Shahid Chamran University, Agriculture and Natural Resources University of Ramin, Marine Sciences University of Khorramshahr and Dezful Jondishapour Engineering University is mechanical and is moving toward organic structure and reinforcing its communication infrastructures, states that open communications in this way guarantee the quality of teaching and academic research in the universities. So, based on these researchers' point of view, the study of organizational communications in the current structure of higher education is essential. This suggests the necessity of deeper insight into the structures of higher education institutions of the structural dimension. Williams & BC (2008) in their study search up that international students looks at the curriculum with a critical view and recognize the international students' needs likely failures and take action support, planning and implementation of internationalization programs for these students. Dibavagary (2009) via conceptualizing internationalizing the curriculum in higher education pointed out that developing knowledge, skills and international values in academic programs are required to enhance students' international literacy. She determined nine obstacles as the barriers to internationalizing the curriculum which are:

1. Lack of clear policies or strategies to facilitate the internationalization process 2. Absence of financial supports

3. Administrative problems 4. Existence of other priorities than the internationalization 5. Failure to recognize and verify the activities carried out abroad 6. Unavailable opportunities 7. Unavailability of reliable and comprehensive data 8. Inadequate understanding of the internationalization 9. Unavailability of qualified and trained staff to lead the internationalization process. Fuller (2009) in a research entitled "Internationalizing the curriculum at Columbia University of Technology" achieved some results by pointing out that internationalization is not only the content-related but should also consider cultural differences. Therefore, most professors had agreed about internationalizing the curriculum and via internationalization of curriculum and particularly structural strengthening, Knight's internationalization strategies in 2002 can be achieved. Internationalizing of curriculum is also very effective in increasing self-awareness, intercultural skills, critical thinking, open thinking, global awareness and communication

skills in multicultural environments. Saat (2009) through expressing this issue that globalization and democratization of education causes an international opinion, especially in industrialized countries, described the goals and individuals associated with this phenomenon and will focus on the key roles of the university presidents. He introduces the barriers of IOC as lack of competition, negative attitude to the internationalization, lack of motivation on the internationalization of higher education, lack of personal knowledge and expertise, and shortage of financial resources. Liu (2010) in his research which is about international developments in recent years refers to the dispose of several challenges:

1. There is the necessity of an open cooperation system for the exchange of experiences and resources at international level.

2. More universities need to strengthen international education.

3. International innovations must be used in faculties.

4. The culture of registering information becomes widespread to be used by researchers inside and outside the university. He knows the presence of network and technological environment in higher education as the orientation of this system toward internationalization. Kazanowska & Usher (2011) has noted internationalization advantages such as economical benefits, international knowledge and intercultural skills and expresses the students' interests in learning the foreign language, familiarity with other cultures, willingness to work outside of native culture, desire to study at universities in other countries, and familiarity with the international knowledge. Guadalupe Fabregas et al. (2012) in their research pointed to the design of successful international courses facing multiple challenges and limitations. The most important challenges and limitations that the universities are facing when designing short-term and long-term study abroad experiences were 1) the perception of the student about the difficulty and risks of traveling abroad, 2) the cost to participate in those experiences 3) the time restrain, and 4) the lack or limitedness of information about the courses that they can take abroad and transfer to their home university. The UPAEP short-term success program was based on the accurate addressing of the four main challenges, planning process, as well as the careful selection of the professors involved in the program. The students' evaluations especially, regarding to the security, length, cost and academic course transfer were positive. Shioshvili (2012) in a study indicated that Internationalization is a major trend in higher education and a worldwide phenomenon. The first attempt to respond to the internationalization of higher education was made by Georgia through establishing the International Black Sea University (IBSU) in 1995 in Tbilisi, capital of Georgia, by the "Council of Ministers of Georgia" aiming to improve the current educational, economic, social and cultural relationship between Georgia and Turkey. The types and intensity of reactions to a new cultural environment depend upon the nature and duration of the stressful condition and more importantly, the psychological makeup of an individual. With adaptation there is disorientation, ambiguity, and pain, but the thing is not to eliminate or avoid culture shock but rather to make it less stressful and more positive experience. Culture shock is most evidently the result of a normal process of adaptation and may be no more harmful than the psychological reactions we experience when adapting to such new environmental situations as entering college or moving to another city in our own culture. Khosravi Negad (2011, 2013, 2014) through studying the barriers to internationalizing the curriculum in Azad Universities of Khuzestan Province declared these barriers as cultural, teaching methods, content, humanistic, equipment ,structural, managerial-political, financial and technological ones.

4. RESEARCH METHOD

This study was a survey and the research method was descriptive. The statistical population was 1474 of full time faculty members in Azad Universities of the 6th states in 2013-2014. The sample used

to estimate was all full time faculties teaching in Islamic Azad university of Dezful including 1474 ones and 330 participants were selected through multi stages cluster sampling. The research tool was a researcher-made questionnaire containing 23 statements based on Five-degree Likert's scale. The tool's validity was confirmed by 10 experts' views and its reliability was determined with participating 30 faculty members of statistical population based on Chronbach's alpha and the coefficient was 0/93. For the analysis of data both descriptive and inferential statistics including one sample T test and independent T test was used.

5. FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

In this section of paper we present statistical analysis results of the research hypotheses.

Table 1. Number and Percentage of Full-Time Faculty Members by Sector and Rank in 2012-13

Sector / Rank	Public		Non-Public		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Professor	10	0.3	10	0.3	20	0.6
Associate Professor	5	1.5	3	0.9	8	2.4
Assistant Professor	25	7.6	25	7.6	50	15.2
Instructor	178	57	74	24.8	252	81.8
Total	218	66.4	112	33.6	330	100

5.1. The Results of Testing H1

H1. What are the cultural barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Four statements have been included in questionnaire to study the possible barriers of internationalization of Curriculum with respect to cultural strategies. The detailed data on 4 statements are as followed:

Table 2: The main cultural barriers of Internationalization of Curriculum in 6th state Azad universities according to the faculties' view

Statements	Mean	SD	T value	DF	Sig.
1. Lack of Cultural Fair celebrates community diversity, ethnic and cultural roots and international connections	3.07	1.1	11.63	329	0.001
2. Ignoring international ideas and innovations in higher education	3.93	1.05	16.04	329	0.001
3. Ineffectiveness of university curricula for development of students' international orientation and awareness	3.78	1.1	13.14	329	0.001
4. Lack of international events at university level in order to development of students competencies as global citizens	3.83	1.12	13.38	329	0.001
Total	3.81	0.83	17.75	329	0.001

Given the above table and with emphasis on the amount of T (17.75) which is significant at the 0/05 confidence level, it can be concluded and said by 0.95 of assurance that in terms of scientific group of Azad Universities in the 6th state, cultural barriers can be effective as one of the major barriers in internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state.

5.2. The Results of Testing H2

H2. What are the human resources barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Nine statements have been included in questionnaire to study the possible barriers of internationalization of Curriculum in with respect to human resources strategies. The detailed data on 9 statements are as followed:

Table 3: The main human resources barriers of Internationalization of Curriculum in 6th state Azad universities according to the faculties' view

Statements	Mean	SD	T value	DF	Sig.
1. Asking faculty members to teach courses regardless their expertise	3.56	1.13	9.03	329	0.001
2. Low proficiency of faculty members in foreign language	3.81	1.0	14.54	329	0.001
3. Inattention to research findings on IOC	3.91	1.	16.4	329	0.00

Statements			8		1
4. Low rate of return of government scholarship students to their home country upon the completion of their studies	3.91	1.03	16.05	329	0.001
5. Limited opportunities for faculty members exchanges and inviting foreign academics to teach in Iranian universities	3.88	1.04	15.25	329	0.001
6. Limited opportunities for students exchanges	3.53	1.28	7.53	329	0.001
7. Low rate of students participation in international collaborative projects	4.04	1.11	16.99	329	0.001
8. Low rate of students and academics memberships in international associations and societies	3.95	1.04	16.54	329	0.001
9. Limited sabbatical leave opportunities for faculty members	3.63	1.13	14.25	329	0.001
Total	3.80	0.83	17.57	329	0.001

Given the above table and with emphasis on the amount of T (17.57) which is significant at the 0/05 confidence level, it can be concluded and said by 0.95 of assurance that in terms of scientific group of Azad Universities in the 6th state, barriers to human resources can be effective as one of the major barriers in internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state.

5.3. The Results of Testing H3

H3. What are the structural barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

In this section of research, faculty members have been required to identify the main structural shortages. Four statements have been included in questionnaire to study the possible barriers of internationalization of Curriculum with respect to the structural ones. The detailed data on 4 statements are as followed:

Table 4: The main structural barriers of Internationalization of Curriculum in 6th state Azad universities according to the faculties' view

Statements	Mean	SD	T value	DF	Sig.
1. Making limitations by University research council through applying certain laws and regulations	3.75	1.09	12.51	329	0.001

2. Making limitations by University academic council through applying certain laws and regulations	3.71	1.09	11.77	329	0.001
3. Lack of encouraging Dean of faculty/college to internationalize the curriculum and unwillingness to do this project	3.82	1.12	13.22	329	0.001
4. Lack of education council's cooperation to internationalize curriculums because of research instructions	3.91	0.98	16.79	329	0.001
Total	3.97	0.87	16.52	329	0.001

Given the above table and with emphasis on the amount of T (16.52) which is significant at the 0/05 confidence level, it can be concluded and said by 0.95 of assurance that in terms of scientific group of Azad Universities in the 6th state, barriers to structure can be effective as one of the major barriers in internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state.

5.4. The Results of Testing H4

H4. What are the political/management barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Concerning this research question, eight specific questions have been developed and included in the questionnaire. The table 5 shows detailed data on the political/management barriers of IOC.

Table 5: The main political/management barriers of Internationalization of Curriculum in 6th state universities according to the faculties' view

Statements	Mean	SD	T value	DF	Sig.
1. Applying limitations by Supreme Council of Cultural Revolution (SCCR) because of having a local view and political/social laws in communicating with other countries	4.08	0.97	20.16	329	0.001
2. Applying limitations by Ministry of science, Research and Technology (MSRT) because of special instructions for communicating with other countries	3.96	0.97	7.93	329	0.001
3. Applying limitations by Supreme Council of Educational Planning (SCEP) because of special instructions for communicating with other countries	3.63	1.15	9.94	329	0.001
4. The lack of Political interactions and tensions of Iran	3.77	0.9	14.46	329	0.00

with other countries in the middle east region		6		1
5. Political interactions and tensions of Iran with other countries in the world	3.68	1.31	9.46	329	0.001
6. Visa Procedures/difficulties for Iranian students	3.53	1.21	7.99	329	0.001
Total	3.83	0.76	19.86	329	0.001

Given the above table and with emphasis on the amount of T (19.86) which is significant at the 0/05 confidence level, it can be concluded and said by 0.95 of assurance that in terms of scientific group of Azad Universities in the 6th state, barriers to political/management strategies can be effective as one of the major barriers in internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state.

5.5. The Results of Testing H5

H5. Is there any difference between male and female faculties' views in barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state?

Table 6: Barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state universities according to the male and female faculties' views

Barriers	Faculty Gender	Lewen test		N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	D.F	T value	Sig.
		F	Sig.							
Structural	Women	0.115	0.7	113	3.78	0.88	0.099	328	0.956	0.3
	Men			217	3.68	0.90				
Human resources	Women	0.128	0.7	113	3.51	0.65	0.023	328	0.314	0.7
	Men			217	3.49	0.63				
Cultural	Women	0.021	0.8	113	3.92	0.88	0.254	328	2.50	0.01
	Men			217	3.67	0.87				
Political/management	Women	1.24	0.2	113	3.74	1.09	0.095	328	0.832	0.4
	Men			217	3.65	0.93				

As shown in table 7, for cultural barriers, the significance level is less than 0.05. So it can be said that by 0.95 of certainty that there is difference between male and female faculties' views in cultural barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state, but for the other barriers as the significance level is more than 0.05, it can be said that by 0.95 of certainty that there is not any difference between male and female faculties' views in human resources, political/management and Structural barriers of the internationalizing curriculum of Azad Universities in the 6th state.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the perspective of faculty members, all the considered statements associated with culture, political/management, human resources and structural categories are blocks of internationalizing curricula of Azad Universities in Khuzestan Province. It can be related to the traditional methods of teaching, or mismatch of teaching methods with technology, and may be it originates from the lack of communication with other universities. Any attention to the latest scientific and research developments in the world, lack of proper and appropriate use of the information and communication technologies in education and teaching, lack of knowledge towards applying technology in teaching – learning process, lack of interaction through the network environment are another problems in Azad Universities. However, findings related to unfamiliarity of academics with software, which can be used in their teaching, lack of culture of working in web environment, and faculty and student disability in using ICT in teaching and learning refer to an important concept of "Global competency" of faculty members and students in Iran. In the same way some important facilitating factors such as providing training programs, keeping academics informed on new developments in IOC, improving faculty members and students knowledge, awareness and orientation on IOC, improving their beliefs and increasing their abilities to work in a multicultural environments and other factors imply on "IOC literacy" of academics and students in Iranian higher education community as a real and urgent need. That is to say the most important decision need to be taken for development of IOC in higher education of Iran is providing a basic set of IOC competencies that allow development of meaningful students and faculty members' development through training and development programs. However political and managerial factors remain as other important elements that need to be considered for further development of internationalization agent in Iran. Furthermore according to The Future Outlook of the Islamic Republic of Iran in the Horizon of the Next Two Decade, it has been said that " Iran is a developed country, with a first class economic, scientific and technological status in the region, with the Islamic and the revolutionary identification, inspiring in the world of Islam with the constructive and the effective interaction in international relationships. It has been emphasized that The Iranian society will have the following characteristics under the horizon of this outlook:

- Having constructive and effective interaction at the world based on glory, wisdom and expediency principles.
- Having advanced science, capable in producing knowledge and technology, relied on higher share of human resources and social asset in the national production
- Gaining the economic, scientific and technological first position in the region of the South West Asia (including Mid-Asia, Caucasia, the Middle East, and the neighboring countries). Putting emphasis on the software movement and science production, fast and constant economic

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progress, and comparative promotion income level per capita and achieving the full-fledged employment.

As it can be understood achieving the above mentioned purposes needs internationalization and global cooperation especially in higher education to be considered. For this reason, according to the new act of higher education about assigning curriculum decision making to major public university, recently the universities have been given more authority on internationalization of curriculum. Under such circumstances, with respect to the importance of IOC Literacy in promoting internationalization of campus and doing different duties of university faculty members, trying to remove most important indentified obstacles will be a real need for higher education community in Iran. Lack of long-term strategic goals has caused that these universities haven't had any program to attract students from the neighbor countries. While these universities have great ability and potential in some areas such as science, research, services and cultural and religious heterogeneity. According to the obtained results, task of planners, policy makers and custodians of the Islamic Azad University is finding solutions to overcome these barriers. Our modern society expects of Azad University that in addition to transferring knowledge and culture and training human resources, plays as a center for cultural innovation, scientific, social and technical innovation. Instead of inflexible and book centered programs, runs flexible, constructive and live ones. It must be the focus of dynamic more than before, and unlike the past, instead of sitting away from the scientific community and the isolation, blends with the community and applies the science and technology in the era of knowledge-economy to promote the country's needs and development goals.

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Pedagogical Content Knowledge: Iranian Teachers' Conception

in a Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning Context

Mohammad Pazhouhesh ★ [5]

Introduction

According to some estimates, more than 3 million students are presently studying in international schools across the globe and a growing interest to join them in such sites is expected in future (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). Two features mark the distinctions between international and national schools: 1) the curriculum model; 2) the medium of instruction. In an international school, teachers follow an international curriculum teaching expatriate students its contents in a second language. In such a context Content-Based Instruction (CBI) or content-and-language-integrated learning (CLIL) is practiced. Harmer (2012) regards CLIL a generic acronym for an approach by which an instructional content is studied through and with a second language and the second language is studied through and with the content (p. 226). Reportedly, the preference for such an instructional approach is on the rise worldwide and has led to what is called 'Englishization of education' (as put forward by Hultgren, 2014) under the influence of expansion of globalization and its impacts on local educational practices and policies (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018). Some applied linguists and researchers such as Brüning and Purrmann (2014) have also found CLIL "innovative, successful and helpful for the development of multilingualism and cultural awareness, deeper intercultural competence, and critical thinking" and hence compatible with the globalization process (p. 316).

Concerning teacher knowledge and expertise, teachers need to satisfy certain professional demands across a range of settings and situations to qualify as skillful teachers. The required qualifications are traditionally described in terms of a set of knowledge bases characterized as proof of teacher professionalization and expertise (see for instance Borko & Putnam, 1996; Grossman, 1990; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987) and Lee Shulman (1987) is credited as the originator for describing these professional features in terms of three knowledge types:

1) instructional designs and teaching strategies or *pedagogical knowledge* (PK),

2) subject-matter content or *content knowledge* (CK),

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[5] Assistant Professor
English Department
Farhangian University of Mashhad
mohdpazhou@gmail.com
Contact info.: +98 915 504 2780; Zipcode: 919 791 3111

3) formulating teaching contents comprehensibly or *pedagogical content knowledge* (PCK).

The post-Shulman era witnessed modifications of his original model, however. Pinning down the former qualifications and in search of a more comprehensive model, Kind (2015) adds the knowledge of assessment, curriculum, and students to PK, CK, and PCK as underlying aspects of teacher knowledge (p. 192). However, Carlsen (2002) sees teacher knowledge interdisciplinary and provides a view of PCK with five domains of "(a) knowledge about the general and specific educational contexts, (b) general pedagogic knowledge, (c) subject-matter knowledge, and (d) pedagogical content knowledge" (as cited in Gess-Newsome & Lederman, p. 135).

The inclusion of pedagogic context and the recognition of elusive nature of PCK in Fernandez's (2014) model of teacher knowledge make it serviceable to the purpose of this study, that is to explore PCK through the eyes of teachers in a second-language and international context of a school. The provision of specific and general pedagogic contexts make the boundaries of the knowledge domains less blurry and investigations of PCK beyond national into international educational contexts more feasible. More succinctly, the international, multicultural context as well as the English-medium instruction in an institution like an international school make such sites context-specific and hence the study of PCK context-dependent. To elaborate, according to Fernandez (2014), the specific context refers to the orientations to the classroom settings and background about the students while the general context encompasses knowledge about the states, nation, community, school and former students (p. 86). To inspect PCK role in a situation where the students, the curriculum, and the medium of instruction lead to an international and multicultural, not national and unicultural, context a study of challenges and conceptualizations of teachers is warranted since few studies have so far examined the functioning of PCK in such contexts.

Theoretical Background

Regarding teaching a highly demanding profession, Lee Shulman introduced the earliest model of teacher competence in 1987. Assuming a set of knowledge types fundamental and categorizing them into knowledge of subject-matter, pedagogical content, and curriculum, Shulman (1986) considered the combination of content and pedagogical knowledge (PCK) more important. Shulman defined PCK as representations of the subject-matter content in a comprehensible way through context-sensitive teaching strategies of exemplifications, illustrations, explanations, or demonstrations. PCK in National

Science Education Standards (National Research Council, 1996) is also defined as the teacher's integrated skills and knowledge of content, curriculum, pedagogy, and students to "tailor learning situations to the needs of individuals and groups" (as cited in Lee & Luft, 2008, p. 1345).

Shulman later refined his cognitive-oriented model by resolving to have three content-related knowledge of subject-matter content, PCK and curriculum, and awareness of four categories of general pedagogy, learners and their characteristics, educational contexts, and educational purposes as a more representative framework (Gess-Newsome, 1999; Van Driel, Verloop, & de Vos, 1998). Similarly, other educationalists broadened the concept by adding some social, affective, and contextual categories to the previous models. Overall, trying to identify the components of PCK and conceptualizing it as an integration or transformation of the components, educationalists have listed nine subcategory as either distinct bases or sub components of PCK (Gess-Newsome, 1999; Park & Oliver, 2008). They include knowledge of the following types:

- purposes and goals for teaching contents within a domain of science;
- students' understanding, their perceptions, learning difficulties, styles and needs;
- curriculum materials, their goals, objectives, core and peripheral concepts;
- instructional strategies and representations of subject-specific and topic-specific instructional approaches;
- media of commonplace and advanced web-based technologies;
- assessment methods, knowing what dimensions and aspects to assess;
- subject matter content, specific scientific contents for learning-teaching;
- context ranging from classroom, school, state, to country and a global location;
- pedagogy and methods of teaching and learning (for details see Carlsen, 2002; Gess-Newsome & Lederman, 2006; Grossman, 1990; Hashweh, 2005; Kind, 2015; Loughran, Milroy, Berry, Gunstone, & Mulhall, 2001; Van Driel et al., 1998).

Research Areas and Findings

Despite variations in PCK models, researchers have found a number of commonalities in their formulations. The general consensus on the nature of PCK as a construct is that it is:

- Experiential: Classroom experience facilitates and contextualizes its acquisition / development.
- Context-sensitive: Each pedagogic situation has its own idiosyncrasies, needs, and persons.
- Complex and multifaceted: It encompasses various knowledge, skills and categories.
- Developmental: It is realizable within a teaching context.
- Amorphic in nature: It is difficult to enact in practice and to capture through assessment.

- Bi-componential: It consists of declarative and procedural knowledge (Lederman & Gess-Newsome, 1992; Lee & Luft, 2008; Magnusson et al., 1999; Morine-Dershimer & Kent, 1999; Van Driel et al., 1998).

Much of PCK research has concerned itself with exploring the complex and elusive facets of the construct in theory and practice. More specifically, PCK literature indicates that the studies are mostly conducted in the following areas: a) teacher beliefs and their (mis)conceptions about the construct; b) conceptions of novice and experienced teachers about PCK; c) exploring the impacts of teaching experience on PCK development; d) perceptions of teachers of various disciplines on PCK; e) the effects of training interventions / workshops on PCK in pre-service and in-service teachers; and f) how to assess PCK more reliably (e.g., Clermont, Borko, & Krajcik, 1994; Cochran, DeRuiter, & King, 1993; Davis, 2004; Grossman, 1990; Loughran, 2012; Magnusson et al., 1999; Van Driel et al., 1998; Wilson et al., 1987). Research on the impact of training programs have generally shown changes in the participants' conceptions of teaching and learning science (Van Driel et al., 1998) and studies on the role of teaching experience have shown a significant distinction between experienced and novice teachers in their beliefs and knowledge about science, subject matter, teaching and learning, students and hence their teaching behavior (Brickhouse, 1990). Concerning teacher knowledge and enactment of that knowledge in practice, Biscoe (1991) and Johnson (1991) have seen discrepancies between what teachers express as their conceptions (teacher knowledge) and what they actually do in the classroom as teaching behaviors (as cited in Van Driel et al., 1998).

A Hypothetical Framework of PCK

Concerning his earlier PCK formulations, Shulman (2015) admits that the questions of sociocultural aspects and pedagogical context are not adequately addressed in them. In retrospect, the author continues to criticize that

> ... culture and context are huge envelopes within which we find many of the determinants of teaching and learning. PCK must be pedagogical content knowledge, but also pedagogical cultural knowledge, and pedagogical context knowledge. It is also about language, religion, and identity as features of the lived settings in which teaching, learning, and development occur. ... all teaching must be mindfully situated in the disciplinary, cultural, personal, and social settings in which it occurs. (p. 10)

Quite related to this complementary remark, this study in pursuit of beliefs about PCK was to explore knowledge bases for teaching by integrating culture, context, and language into its design within a multicultural, international, and English-medium context of an international school. To this end, Shulman's critique of his model and the post-Shulman's theoretical frameworks provided the ground to assume PCK as an umbrella construct which could be influenced by and characterized in terms of a number of other knowledge bases and categories.

The hypothetical differences of views of teachers in an international school are based on the premise that the context of a national school differs from that of an international school, where English-medium instruction and multiculturalism prevail. Such a CLIL context demands functional English proficiency benchmarks or the type of working construct and knowledge called English-for-Teaching knowledge by Freeman, Katz, Garcia Gomez, and Burns (2015) on part of the teacher. In other words, a content-specific teacher in such a context has to play a dual role of a specific subject teacher and an English language teacher simultaneously and be additionally equipped with two distinct sets of knowledge bases to enact a lesson. Arguing for contextualizing and situated learning, Richards (2008) maintains that PCK (teacher-learning in Richards' words) is more than translating theories into practice; rather, it is the process of "constructing new knowledge and theory through engaging in particular types of activities and processes in specific social contexts" (p. 164). Following Shulman's framework, Richards (1998) describes L2 knowledge bases in terms of theoretical learning bases; practical teaching skills; communicative and functional L2 proficiency; subject-matter knowledge; pedagogical reasoning and decision making; and contextual knowledge.

Purpose of the Study

Assuming a contextually and socioculturally different school may demand new sets of teacher knowledge and skills, the study intended to explore the perspectives of teachers in an international, CLIL context as through the following questions:

1. What are the teachers' conceptualizations of PCK in an English-medium, international, CLIL context?

3. What different instructional challenges do the teachers believe they experience in an international, CLIL educational context?

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4. What effects can the specific context, and the language medium have on teaching practices of the teachers?

5. What role does teacher's ESL/EFL proficiency play in PCK development in such a context?

Research Method

Being exploratory-qualitative in design, data-driven and interpretive in nature, the study called for a case-study method to investigate teachers' conceptualizations of PCK through observations and in-depth interviews. Within the context, the teachers were initially observed while *reflecting-in-action* and interviewed afterwards while *reflecting-on-action*, to use Schon's (1983) terminologies, so as to capture their perceptions of the knowledge types.

Participants

The participants consisted of 8 teachers with a minimum of one year English-medium teaching experience in an international secondary school in Mashhad, Iran. They were recruited through convenience sampling and their demographic information regarding age, gender academic degrees, teaching subject, and years of teaching experience is given in Table 1.

Table 1.

Demographic data for the study sample and participants

Participant	Gender	Degree	Age	Teaching subjects	Experience (L1 medium)
Ali Reza	Male	Master's	33	Math. Stats.	7
Hamed	Male	Bachelor's	34	Physics	8
Mahla	Female	Master's	27	Math. & Geometry	**4**

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Mansoreh	Female	Master's	35	Literature	8
Nadia	Female	Bachelor's	22	Art(music, paining)	3
Rihaneh	Female	Master's	31	Social sciences	5
Sara	Female	Master's	34	Computer	4
Zeinab	Female	Master's	36	Chemistry, biology	4

Data Collection

Over a period of four month, three instruments were used to collect data: classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and teachers' monthly progress reports. The observations were to contextualize the interview protocol in search of more concrete evidence of their performances. The installed video recording systems in classrooms allowed capturing the demo sessions more readily and making references to them before and during interviews. The next phase consisted of a series of semi-structured interviews whose contents were already aligned with the research questions and the observed lessons. The teachers decided to be interviewed either in Farsi or English. All interviewees selected Farsi and each interview lasted approximately 10-15 minutes. The last phase (a sort of triangulation) allowed to crosscheck the collected data against the progress reports of students. The reports were to ensure consistency of derived codes and possibility for calling upon the teachers for clarifying likely ambiguities.

Data Analysis

For data analysis, the transcripts of the recorded interviews were transferred into MAXQDA12, a professional, computer-assisted package for analysis of qualitative data. The data passed through open coding, axial coding, and selective coding and yielded six knowledge domains for PCK and a number of categories for each knowledge base, which are discussed in the Findings section.

Findings

After opening, clustering, and organizing the codes, the researcher found six knowledge domains as more recurrent themes in the data. In theory, the participants argued, the domains of knowledge may seem independent, however, they need to be seen closely related and even complementary of PCK in practice in different ways, a point reported by Lee and Luft (2008) as well. Classifying knowledge domains into two groups of general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), applicable to all teaching contexts, and specific pedagogical knowledge (SPK), dealing exclusively with an international context, by the participants was another finding. Of the six knowledge categories of content, pedagogy, and technology, context, culture, and language, the first three were subsumed under GPK while the remaining types were members of SPK. The teachers provided a contextualized view of PCK in which the construct could be influenced by all of these knowledge types and the teacher competence could be characterized and evaluated in terms these features. The emerging knowledge types are elucidated in the following paragraphs as they are accompanied by the teacher participants' direct comments.

❖ *Knowledge of content as know-what procedure is quite essential.*

The teachers attributed an important role to content knowledge, emphasizing though knowledge of other types are contributory to and influential in PCK development. Clearly, the teacher should know and understand the subject and topics they teach; however, they believed that their presentations through a second language make instruction more challenging and difficult, but more real-life. In addition to having content and topical knowledge, they thought, they have to brush up their instructional knowledge in advance by consulting supplementary materials if they wish to have more collaborative, group-based tasks than lecture presentations per se. One physics teacher puts the idea this way:

> I've had some training courses. Once, I was told of content-based instruction and its … challenges. I had then a kind of vague idea of the method, but now I really find myself in the picture, within that context. I can have a more realistic grasp of how it feels like to teach science in English. You know the content, the concept, the topic, but you have to think in a second language so as to communicate, to teach, to make the teaching point clear. This requires a sort of high command of the subject and the language, of course. It's a double burden for me. Lack of the teacher's guide surely makes it difficult to be fully conscious of the topics and the context you teach.

When asked to rank order the knowledge bases, they ranked content knowledge first and sometimes second, concerning its contributions to effective teaching. Making a distinction between

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disciplinary content knowledge and PCK, the teachers mostly maintained that having a full command over the content provides no guarantee for successful teaching, making references to other types of knowledge and skills. Moreover, they mentioned the need for more time and teaching practices to gain more teaching experience and develop professionally. The evolving nature of PCK and its synchronous development with teaching experience have been reported in a number of studies (see for example, Friedrichsen et al., 2009; Lee & Luft, 2008).

❖ *Pedagogical knowledge as know-how procedure manifests itself as teaching strategies.*

This aspect of PCK, in the words of the teachers, deals with the know-how of pedagogy, knowledge of teaching practices, strategies, and instructional designs. Nearly all teachers found knowledge of pedagogy in direct relation with knowing teaching objectives, lesson planning, managing the class, answering questions, and assessment. They urged that there should be special training and orientation for knowing the curriculum structure, the pedagogical idiosyncrasies of general and specific context, the theories of learning and their implications for application in their classroom.

> I think knowledge of pedagogy plays a great role. ... As a teacher of an international school, I should be then more skillful and knowledgeable than a national school teacher, because the students, the syllabus, and the overall context in here are all different, are more complex. ... I think the routine teaching methods may not... emm... work well here. One good way for me is to have workshops on and about the IB [International Baccalaureate] system, the Cambridge [IGCSE or International General Certificate of Secondary Education] program, to attend webinars, and have online communities of teachers for sharing views on tricky topics and issues.

❖ *Pedagogical technology knowledge helps to keep abreast of educational breakthroughs.*

The need for technological literacy was inescapable to all teachers. Regardless of the context, they took knowledge of educational technology a precondition for quality education. Such a view has also been advocated by Mishra and Koehler (2006) in the literature. They considered knowledge of both standard technologies (books, chalk/whiteboards), and advanced ones (the Internet, digital videos) influential, but independent from knowledge of pedagogy and content. Some teachers echoed the need for the school to be equipped with advanced technologies to qualify its name and being recognized as an international school. The knowledge type was believed to be instrumental for treating individual learning differences more efficiently. One teacher commented that

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Technology knowledge is really important in education today. We need to know it and keep it updated because it can influence my presentations, and yeah, I need to know both the content … and the technology for the topic and content. Some students here come from abroad and do expect us to use technology. Sometimes, I find some students more skillful than myself with such tools, you know. So I can't ignore it. I can make my practices more understandable, more motivating by the appropriate software. Students expect me to be up-to-date in teaching techniques, not traditional, and … technology helps me to change things and context for better learning.

Stressing the importance of teacher's knowledge of technology, Mishra and Koehler (2006) argue for three subcomponents of the knowledge, namely, technological content knowledge (TCK), technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK), and technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK). By TCK, they mean knowing the reciprocal relations of the content and technology and which technology serves the purpose more effectively. TPK, the authors continue, refers to the knowledge of available tools and skills of synchronizing pedagogical strategies with applications of certain technologies for more effective instruction. And the concept of TPCK to Mishra and Koehler (2006) goes beyond the knowledge of content, pedagogy, and technology into constructive ways of teaching content by a teacher who is theoretically and pragmatically proficient in application of pedagogical technologies, employment of pedagogical strategies, and mastery over a certain disciplinary pedagogical content.

❖ *Pedagogical context knowledge as a moderator specifies teaching-learning practices.*

Concerning the context, the teachers mostly contrasted the contexts of national and international schools. They liked the context in the international school because of smaller class sizes, friendlier social interactions with colleagues and students, extra-curricular programs, leniency in formalities, and its multilingual context. Most teachers felt happy of finding a place where they could engaged in real, authentic contacts in a second language. Teaching science in English seemed to be a motivation booster for professional development as they eagerly asked for special teaching trainings and workshops. However, they talked about contextual barriers as well, including heterogeneity of students in ESL proficiency, scarcity of technological resources, tenure and promotion issues. They sometimes saw the culture and context closely related, having an integrated view of the two components of PCK. Overall, the teachers' beliefs and knowledge of the context worked to the advantage of PCK development since the attitudes and beliefs were positive and a teacher's actions are guided by his/her convictions and conceptualizations about such pedagogical contextual elements. Here is what a teacher says:

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The context in here is different and knowing this can influence what and how to teach. The students come from different schools abroad, have studied different textbooks, and instructed differently, have their own learning preferences and conceptions. This background is necessary for success. It's a real challenge. In a national school, you don't find such gaps. The school, the classroom, the management, the syllabus, they are related and influence our teaching.

Another interviewer related the curriculum in use to the teaching context, asking for understanding its structure, horizontal and vertical coherence and alignment of it.

..., we should know about their present and previous curriculums while we have little knowledge about the things, the topics they are to study this year and the coming year sometimes. This has been my biggest challenge, I mean to know exactly the curriculum developer's purpose and the way the subjects and topics are structured and sequenced. We need orientation into the materials and resources.

Using the term general education context, Shulman (1987) gives a category heading of the knowledge bases in which knowledge of educational context ranges "from the workings of the group or classroom, governance, and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures" (p. 8).

❖ *Second language knowledge as a context-specific component is a necessarily evil.*

Knowledge of a second language like English seemed to be a double burden for the teacher within the context. They need to be linguistically knowledgeable as well. They however regarded ESL knowledge a necessary evil as that they found themselves sometimes inadequately fluent or comprehensible. Teachers divided over what type of proficiency is required of them in such a context: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) or Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), to use Cummins' terminologies for the conversational language for day-to-day communication versus the academic language to understand and discuss content in the classroom respectively (Cummins, 1979). To provide an example, one teacher argued that

Knowledge of the English language is perhaps the greatest challenge. We need to be proficient in conversational English first to communicate and teach through interactive activities. If not, we have to teach the book, not the concepts, not the content really. The academic language will be learned and practiced afterwards if necessary. So a teacher with a high proficiency level can be more successful than a teacher who gets a good score on GRE.

The pro-CALP participants believed the priority goes with the academic proficiency. One teacher puts his argument this way:

I think the knowledge of content is important and the content is formal, academic.

So you don't need to be conversationally fluent like native speakers. As far as your language is understandable, that's enough. The textbooks are full of technical words and I should know them all. If you are to hire teachers, it is much advisable to ask for a passing score on a GRE test in addition to a high achievement on a general proficiency test like IELTS.

❖ *Pedagogical culture knowledge, in its small c-culture sense, is the third most influential.*

Pedagogical culture knowledge was viewed a context-specific component inextricably linked to the environment of the school. Some teachers regarded culture a subcomponent of the context, not an independent domain of teacher knowledge. It seemed they had a capital C view of culture, a general knowledge of literature and the arts. To most teachers, knowledge of culture (in its small c-culture sense) as a conspicuous characteristic of an international educational site is a determining factor in teaching, learning, and PCK development. On one hand, they stressed the necessity to be aware of cultural diversity. They assumed developing intercultural understating important as well. A mutual cultural understanding of teachers and students was necessary for a constructive pedagogic context.

Yeah.... cultural differences. They are easily accepted. I mean, the students cope with such differences among themselves soon. But ... I should be ready for

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misunderstandings due to culture. They can be seen in the students' expectations of the teacher role in class, ways of teaching, managing classes, types and amount of homework. I remember, once I assigned an online search as homework. The next day, some parents called and asked for the assignments to be done in school, not at home. Or I can mention the issue of politeness , to what extent behaviors are to be interpreted as (im)polite. Sometimes, students think I'm too polite and perhaps lenient.

Discussion

The goal of this study was to examine PCK from the perspective of secondary teachers in an international CLIL school context. At least, four points meriting further discussions emerged as the results were analyzed. First, inspecting PCK in that context provided the chance to see once again multifaceted and complex nature of the construct, a point reported in earlier studies (Kind, 2009; Loughran, 2012; Van Driel et al., 1998). Doing the study revealed other embedded facets of PCK. The new aspect of this complexity moved away from Shulman's earlier model and showed the need to incorporate *knowledge of technology*, *knowledge of culture*, *knowledge of context*, and *knowledge of language* as additional pedagogical bases for teachers in an international, multicultural, English medium school context. While knowledge of educational technologies is a response to technological breakthroughs and the need to be technologically updated in all teaching-learning contexts, the knowledge of culture, contexts, and language are the domains more required in an international context. The knowledge of language and culture are in fact the responses to the Internationalization and Englishization of education (Freeman et al., 2015; Hayden & Thompson; Hultgren, 2014; Macaro et al., 2018; Spring, 2015).

Figure 1 shows the hypothetical relations and contributions of the knowledge bases to PCK. Furthermore, the model corresponds with and relies on a constructivist-interactionist perspective of teaching-learning, sharing some of its features with the model by Cochran et al. (1993). The model classifies knowledge bases roughly into two kinds of generic and context-specific. While the generic type comprises of knowledge types of technology, content, and pedagogy, the context-specific type deals with knowledge types of context, culture, and language. Furthermore, it seems reasonable to consider the generic type more representative of teacher knowledge in national education systems and the context-specific type more exclusive to international contexts. More specifically, the framework takes PCK as an umbrella construct whose development and realization is determined and affected by at least six areas of knowledge and skills.

Second, the results indicated that despite the complex and elusive nature of PCK (Fernandez, 2014), the provision of studying the construct within the sociocultural pedagogic context can increase the chance to articulate the knowledge bases and come up with a contextualized conception of PCK. Teachers could identify and implement the knowledge categories more readily in the specified environmental context. Concerning the integrative and transformative models of PCK (Gess-Newsome, 1999), teachers adopted a more integrative position since, unlike a transformative model, they did not conceptualize PCK as a separate, and independent knowledge type; rather, they regarded teacher knowledge as a whole embracing all the six types of knowledge.
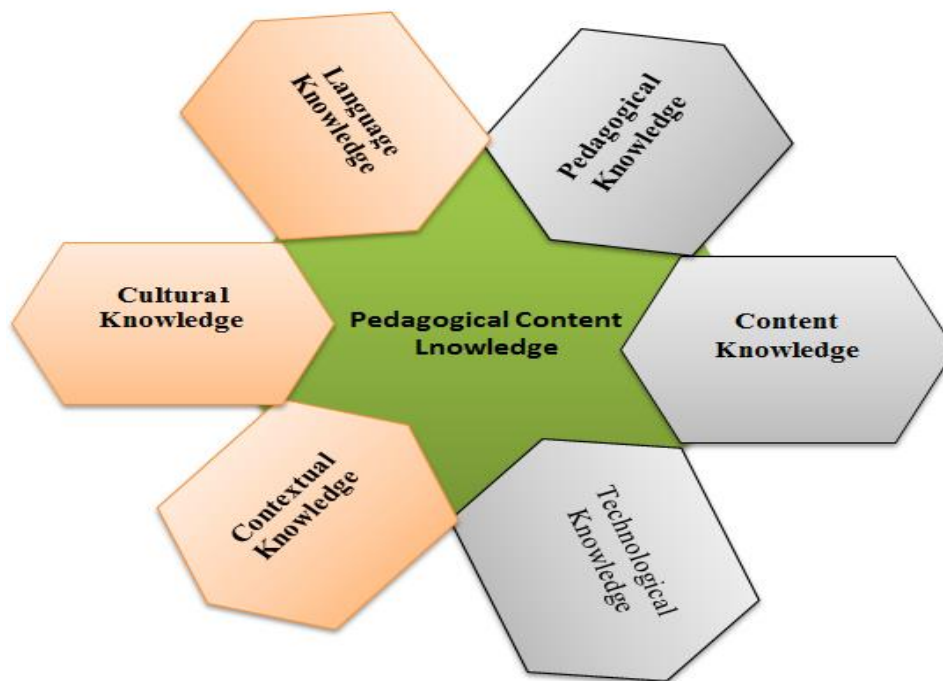

Figure 1. A hypothetical model of teacher knowledge bases

Third, the issue of language knowledge raised the question of the relationship between command of English and teaching competence, the impact of ESL proficiency on teaching (Elder, 2001; Richards, 2017). The basic question is what type of proficiency is required for effective teaching in such a

context: general English proficiency or a domain-specific, academic English proficiency. The type of proficiency for the learners is elaborated and dichotomized by Jim Cummins under the rubrics of BICS, (conversational proficiency) and CALP (academic proficiency). The need for rethinking teacher proficiency in the classroom has also been suggested more recently as Freeman et al. (2015) propose English-for-Teaching as the basic proficiency type and skills to conduct and present the lessons in a curriculum in a comprehensible manner to the students in English. The same authors further state that a teacher with general English proficiency is deprived of the specific language skills to accomplish the curricular objectives within the classroom context. The results of this study showed such a dichotomy of views about what types of proficiency a teacher is supposed to have for effective teaching within an international context. The role and issue of second language knowledge obviously needs further investigations.

Finally, the teachers assigned ranks of varying importance to the emerged knowledge categories; however, they mostly believed content knowledge played the greatest role and contributions to PCK development in line with the findings in previous research (Clermont et al., 1994; Friedrichsen et al., 2009; Gess-Newsome & Lederman, 2006). The language knowledge occupied the second rank in importance and a quit influential factor in the research context.

Implications

The study had some implications for ESL teachers, teacher-education programmers, and science teachers. Teachers in this study felt the joy of teaching in a context where the students were given task-based practices and language was used for exchanging information comprehensibly and communicatively. EFL teachers can also employ more task-based and communicative activities by moving away from mechanical and rote-learning practices and creating more real-life, interactive context. This context is encouraging and conductive to teachers' professional development and students' learning outcomes. Educators in teacher education programs may sharpen the pre-service teachers' learning focus by elucidating the importance of context, culture, and technology, and ESL proficiency and through assigning culture, language, and context awareness-raising activities. The hypothetical model in this study may be used as the framework for professional assessment and recruitment of teachers in an international school context.

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Wellbeing, learner variables, and coping strategies in MATEFL students' narratives

دومین کنفرانس بین المللی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی
دانشگاه کاشان ، ایران
International Conference on Comparative Education
kashan University, Iran

انجمن علمی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی ایران

Zainab Abolfazli

PhD in TEFL

Kosar University of Bojnord

z.abolfazli1986@gmail.com; z.abolfazli@kub.ac.ir

Abstract:

Taking a complex dynamic systems perspective and following an adapted theory of wellbeing, the present mixed-methods project looked into the wellbeing of Iranian postgraduate students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT). The participants included 29 male and 45 female 24–31 year-old students whose language learning histories were analysed for elements of wellbeing and coping strategies. In addition, the impact of learner variables of resiliency, language learning strategy use, multiple intelligences, and language learning aptitude on the participants' wellbeing was investigated. The elements of wellbeing in narratives written by students were found to be emotional responses, accomplishments, meaningful engagement, and relationships in a descending order. Hierarchical multiple regression showed resiliency, language learning strategy use, multiple intelligences, and aptitude (but not gender) affected wellbeing. While male students used accomplishments, meaningful engagement, emotional responses, and relationships as their coping, their female peers used emotional responses, accomplishment, meaningful engagement, and relationships.

Key words: *Coping strategy, language learning history, learner narrative, learner variables, ELT, wellbeing theory*

بهزیستی، متغیرهای یادگیری و راهکارهای مقابله در روایت های دانشجویان کارشناسی ارشد آموزش زبان انگلیسی

زینب ابوالفضلی

دکتری آموزش زبان انگلیسی

دانشگاه کوثر بجنورد

z.abolfazli1986@gmail.com;   z.abolfazli@kub.ac.ir

چکیده:

های پیچیده پویا، و به پیروی از نظریه با برخورداری از روندی جدید در تحقیق روانشناسی دریادگیری زبان از چشم انداز نظام سازش یافته آکسفورد (۲۰۱۴) ، پژوهش حاضر به بررسی بهزیستی دانشجویان کارشناسی ارشد آموزش زبان انگلیسی به عنوان های دولتی ایران پرداخت. مرحله اول به تحلیل وقایع یادگیری زبان ۲۹ دانشجوی پسر و ۴۵ دانشجوی زبان خارجی در دانشگاه های چندگانه و استعداد یادگیری زبان بر آوری، استفاده از راهکارهای یادگیری زبان، هوشدختر ۲۴ تا ۳۱ ساله و بررسی تاثیر تاب بهزیستی دانشجویان پرداخت. از دانشجویان خواسته شد وقایع یادگیری زبان خود را بر اساس راهنمای نگارش وقایع یادگیری زبان بنویسند. آنها همچنین در آزمون راهکارهای یادگیری زبان (آکسفورد، ۱۹۹۰) ، شکل سازش یافته آزمون مدرن استعداد یادگیری زبان (کارول و ساپون، ۱۹۸۳) ، آزمون هوش های چندگانه (مک کنزی، ۱۹۹۹) و آزمون تاب آوری شرکت نمودند. نتایج کیفی به ترتیب از بیشترین تا کمترین میزان عوامل های احساسی، دست آوردها، مجذوبیت معنادار و روابط،نشان داد واکنش آوری، استفاده از راهکارهای دادند. رگرسیون سلسله مراتبی نشان داد تاببهزیستی در وقایع دانشجویان را تشکیل می هایی میان های چندگانه و استعداد و نه جنسیت، بیشترین تا کمترین تاثیرگذاری را بر بهزیستی دارند. تفاوتیادگیری، هوش های منفی مشاهده شد چرا که مردها بیشتر از دست آوردها و ای آنها در موقعیتدختر ها و پسرها از لحاظ راهکارهای مقابله مجذوبیت معنادار و زن ها بیشتر از واکنش های احساسی و دست آوردها استفاده می نمودند. بیشترین موقعیت های دشوار برای دانشجویان پسر مربوط به سیستم آموزشی و مسائل احساسی بودند و برای دانشجویان دختر این مشکلات بیشتر در زمینه مسائل احساسی و دست آوردها بودند.

واژه های کلیدی: راهکارهای مقابله، تاریخچه یادگیری زبان، روایت های دانشجویان، متغیرهای یادگیری، آموزش زبان انگلیسی، نظریه بهزیستی

Evaluating the MATEFL programme in Iran following the wellbeing theory

Zainab Abolfazli

PhD in TEFL

Kosar University of Bojnord

z.abolfazli1986@gmail.com; z.abolfazli@kub.ac.ir

Abstract

With regard to the importance of student wellbeing in their academic success and life, this paper tried to examine the MA TELF programme in Iran in light of the wellbeing theory. To this end, following a descriptive study design, 101 participants including 34 professors and 67 students were recruited through convenient sampling procedure from 28 state universities in Iran. The age ranges were 24 to 31 and 40 to 51 for students and professors, respectively. They presented their ideas in

terms of the Values-In-Action (VIA) Institute on Character's (2014) 6 virtues, namely, wisdom and knowledge; courage, humanity, fairness, temperance, and transcendence. Quantitative and qualitative analyses revealed differences between male and female students' and professors' attitudes towards and the strategies for the current and the recommended programme. In particular, they revealed males were more inclined towards hardiness while females paid more attention to emotional issues. However, the current programme was proven to be ineffective in light of the wellbeing theory.

Key words: Character strengths, ELT, Master of Arts programme, Porgramme evaluation, Professors, Students, Wellbeing theory

ارزیابی برنامه کارشناسی ارشد آموزش زبان انگلیسی در ایران بر اساس نظریه بهزیستی

زینب ابوالفضلی

دکتری آموزش زبان انگلیسی

دانشگاه کوثر بجنورد

z.abolfazli1986@gmail.com; z.abolfazli@kub.ac.ir

چکیده

نظر به اهمیت بهزیستی دانشجویان در موفقیت تحصیلی و زندگی آنها، در این پژوهش تلاش شد تا برنامه کارشناسی ارشد آموزش زبان انگلیسی در ایران از چشم‌انداز نظریه بهزیستی، بررسی شود. از این‌رو، طی یک پژوهش توصیفی تعداد ۱۰۱ شرکت‌کننده شامل ۳۴ استاد و ۶۷ دانشجوی مقطع کارشناسی ارشد در رشته آموزش زبان انگلیسی به روش نمونه گیری در دسترس از ۲۸ دانشگاه سراسری ایران همکاری کردند. ابزار گردآوری اطلاعات، پرسشنامه‌ای محقق‌ساخته بود. آزمون شامل شش عنصر بهزیستی (خرد، شجاعت، انسانیت، عدالت، میانه نشان داد که میان t روی، و تعالی) بود. آزمون شامل شش عنصر بهزیستی (خرد، شجاعت، انسانیت، عدالت، میانه دانشجویان پسر و دختر در برنامه کنونی، میان استادان زن و مرد در برنامه پیشنهادی و نیز میان دانشجویان و استادان در هایی وجود دارد. از دیدگاه دانشجویان و استادان، اهمیت هر شش عنصر بهزیستی در برنامه کنونی و پیشنهادی تفاوت برنامه باید بیش از آن میزانی باشد که هم اکنون دیده می‌شود. استادان و دانشجویان راهکارها و پیشنهادهایی را برای افزایش بهزیستی دانشجویان ارائه کردند.

Reasons for Choosing Online Graduate Program of TEFL: Voices from Teacher Educators and Online Students

Adib Ahmadi Mahjoub and Mahboubeh Taghizadeh

Iran University of Science and Technology

Abstract

The purposes of this study were to investigate teacher educators' and online students' perceptions of the goals and motivation for choosing online graduate program of TEFL and to determine their viewpoints about the advantages of being an online student. The participants of the study consisted of 114 Iranian online graduate students of TEFL and five instructors at the e-learning campus of Iran University of Science and Technology. The instruments were two open-ended questions answered by the graduate students as well as a semi-structured interview conducted with the online instructors. The results of the study revealed that job promotion, enhancing knowledge about TEFL, continuing education at PhD level, easier graduation, having more job opportunities, improving listening and writing skills, and immigration were the goals reported for choosing online program of TEFL. With regard to the advantages of being an online student, the results showed that save of time and expenses, having work and education at the same time, no need for physical presence, archived files of online classes, and better time management were the most frequent advantages reported by online instructors and students.

Keywords: online students, teacher educators, graduate program of TEFL, online education

1. Introduction

Online education stemmed from distance education, referring to the separation of students from teachers and using some kind of technology in teaching as a support for content delivery (Simonson, Schlosser, & Orellana, 2011). Online learning is defined as an educational training program, which is delivered and run through the Internet and computer-based media technologies (Sangrà, Vlachopoulos, Cabrera, & Bravo, 2011). It is also a mode of education, which is delivered through an online complex interface, such as LMS encompassing various types of technology, including database, social media, network, and web technologies in itself, which facilitate the process of learning, group work, evaluation, and other numerous sorts of learning activity (Garrison, 2011; Moore & Kearsley, 1996). The newly entered students of

online courses may feel anxious about the standards of online education, and this feeling may hinder their learning ability and decrease their satisfaction with the program (Rogers, 2001).

The number of students who enroll in online education is growing very fast due to some reasons, such as easy access of students to the educational resources, ability of learners to work on their own, enhancing the interaction of instructors and students, the flexibility of time, and having the chance to work and study simultaneously (Pallof & Pratt, 2007). While several students choose this type of education for their convenience, instructors and researchers are concerned about the learning experience and the satisfaction of online students (Allen & Seaman, 2004; Moore, 2011). With the help of technologies and distance education, institutions also became able to save expenses and time and accordingly, instructors became able to update their courses easily (Hopey & Ginsburg, 1996; Kilian, 1997; Owston, 1997). In addition, the real-time interaction of students and instructors on various occasions and places is the other advantage of online education (Parker, 2015).

According to Levenberg and Caspi (2010), online learning has several advantages, including the flexibility of time, making the class schedule as precise as needed. Furthermore, online learning is a perfect learning environment, which provides the students with the opportunity to study anywhere, anytime, download educational resources, and be in contact with their instructors and peers (Edwards, 2018). According to Burbules and Callister (2000), Internet has provided the students with an opportunity to be in contact with their peers and become involved with the lessons and co-construct the knowledge with each other from different places in the world. This worldwide interaction with people around the world makes students familiar with different cultures and makes them ready for the global market (Pape, 2006, Patton, 2008).

Providing the students with enough time to focus on lessons, understanding the relationship between the concepts and theme, and receiving more precise feedback for assessment are the other advantages of online education (Levenberg & Caspi, 2010). The self-paced learning environment can be considered as one of the most important advantages of online education, allowing the students to set a precise study plan and do their study at their own pace without being pressurized (Moore, Dickson-Deane, & Galyen, 2011). With the help of online learning, students have the chance to make use of a learning style, suiting them the best rather than using a highly-structured pedagogical ideology, which is set by policymakers in traditional classes. In other words, online learning provides the chance of individualized learning for students (Edwards, 2018).

According to Moore, Dickson-Deane, and Galyen (2011), unlike traditional classes, online education provides students with a balanced amount of social interaction and autonomous study. In other words, online education is a choice for those students preferring independent learning. Online learning is a kind of education, which realizes the ideal concept of self-directed learning, indicating the ability of students to control the cognitive aspects of their learning (Moore, Dickson-Deane, & Galyen, 2011). It can be concluded that the goal of online education was independent learning that encourages the students to interact with their peers for both interactive

and independent instructional purposes (Moore et al., 2011). In addition, online learning can result in more self-regulated students who can control and select the content they want to learn (Olojo, Adewumi, & Ajisola, 2012). The objectives of this study were thus to determine the online students' and instructors' perceptions of the reasons for the kinds of people who choose online course, their reasons for choosing this course, and the advantages of being an online student.

2. Method

The participants of this study included 114 Iranian online graduate students of TEFL at the Iran University of Science and Technology. They were 98 female and 16 male students whose age range were 26 to 60 years. All participants were native speakers of Persian and were studying Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the MA level. Participants of this study were selected from the online enrollees of 2016 to 2018. In addition, five instructors of IUST teaching online graduate courses of TEFL at the e-learning campus of the IUST were the other participants of this study.

The instruments were two open-ended questions to be answered by the online graduate students as well as two interview questions to be answered by the online instructors, which were developed by the researchers based on an extensive review of the literature. The study was conducted at the end of the second semester of 2018 at the IUST. The data were collected from 114 participants who were studying TEFL at the MA level. The questions prepared for this research were reviewed and then some slight modifications were made to assure the suitability of the questions, considering the e-learning campus of IUST. Afterwards, the questions were administered through an online survey tool (i.e., see googleforms.com). Prior to the administration of the questionnaires, the researchers asked the students about their willingness to participate in this survey and provided them with the required information. Then, the survey link was sent to the students through email and WhatsApp. The email and messages which were sent to the students consisted of an informed consent statement which familiarized the students with the goal of the study. The consent statement also consisted of the researchers' name and contact details to allow the students to contact the researchers in case of having any questions or concerns about the survey. To increase the response rate of the students, the survey was available for a month in an online survey and follow-up emails and messages were sent to the students as a reminder.

Descriptive statistics were run to determine the frequency and percentage of the most frequent responses of students to the two open-ended questions. In addition, content analysis was carried out on the online instructors' responses to the interview questions, exploring a greater insight into the perceptions of those who choose the online course and their reasons for the advantages of being online students.

3. Results

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انجمن علمی آموزش و پرورش تطبیقی ایران

Professors' and Online Students' Perceptions of the Reasons for Choosing Online Course

An open-ended question, '*Who chooses online classes to continue education? What are your goals and motivations for getting a master's degree in online classes?*' was administered to the online students to highlight the goals and motivation for enrollment in the online program. The responses of the students are hierarchically presented as follows: employed people (f=57, %=93.44), those who do not have enough time to attend F2F classes (f=30, %=49.18), those who live in other cities (f=20, %=32.78), married people (f=18, %=29.50), people who have received low score on university entrance exam (f=14, %=22.95), people who have personal problems (f=8, %=13.11), elderly people (f=6, %=9.83), and disabled people (f=2, %=3.27).

The responses of the students about the motivation and goal of online students are hierarchically presented as follows: job promotion (f=30, %=49.18), increasing their knowledge (f=25, %=40.98), continuing their education at Ph.D. level (f=15, %=24.59), easy graduation (f=13, %=21.31), save of time and expenses (f=11, %=18.03), work and education at the same time (f=10, %=16.39), learning English (f=8, %=13.11), personal interest (f=4, %=6.55), having more job opportunities (f=4, %=6.55), improvement of listening and writing skills (f=3, %=4.91), immigration (f=2, %=3.27), to not be free at home (f=2, %=3.27), and by force (f=1, %=1.63).

The responses of the students are hierarchically presented as follows:

- The people who are employed and do not have the opportunity to participate in F2F classes and the people who prefer to use technology for learning. The motivation and goals of these students are continuing their education without waste of time participating in group activities and teamwork that deepens learning, improving the writing and listening skills, focusing on learning without attending the classes, and becoming ready to continue their education at PhD level.
- People who live in other cities, the people who are employed, those who have been away from education for a long time, and the people who need to listen many times to the classes to reach an understanding. Their motivation is to continue their education without being physically present in classes and having the opportunity to access the classes any time anywhere. My own purpose is to improve my knowledge and have a job promotion.
- The people who could not achieve the required score to enroll in F2F classes, the people who are employed or busy and do not have the opportunity to attend F2F classes, those who may not be able to attend F2F classes due to living or working in other cities, the people who may have psychological problems or lack self-confidence preferring online learning, and those who are interested in theory-based classes and are not interested in taking the thesis.
- The people who are responsible to earn for a living and are employed and cannot leave their work and want to continue their education along with having their social and economic activities. The motivation of most student in this course is job promotion and raise in their salary.
- Busy people, people who are in remote cities, people who have several family problems, those who look for job promotion and want to get a degree easily. My purpose and motivation are increasing knowledge, learning to work with new technology using them in my own classes, and having the chance of job promotion.

- People who want to study in the top universities of Tehran but live in other cities, people who are employed and married, and busy people. Their purpose is to save time and have an easy education without being in traffic.
- Probably most of the people who enroll in this course are busy with their work. In addition, the people who like to study in top universities but could not get the required score to enroll in F2F classes choose this course. My most important goal is to improve my knowledge in the field of language teaching.

The professors' responses to the question *'Who chooses the online program of TEFL for continuing education? What are the goals and motivation of the students for choosing this program?'* are provided below.

Instructor 1

Usually older people choose this program, but some changes are taking place that I think in near future people with similar characteristics to F2F students will enroll in these courses, but currently the people who are busy and their goals for personal life and work are defined, do not have the time to attend F2F classes, and do not get the minimum score required to enroll in F2F classes choose online classes. Mostly they are looking for getting a degree, job promotion or retirement with a higher salary, and few of them are really want to continue their education.

Instructor 2

The people who have difficulty attending classes and are busy with their job. In Iran, mostly the people who are in need of a quick and unproblematic degree attend these classes and the purpose and the motivation for most of them is getting a degree for job promotion and retirement with a higher pension.

Instructor 3

Employed people, the people who do not have time for attending F2F classes, married people with limited time, older people, and people who do not receive the required score to participate in F2F classes. Continuing education, keeping up with the jones for a higher degree, job promotion, retirement with higher-level can be their goals.

Instructor 4

Usually, the students in the online program are employees, are older than face to face students, have a full-time job, and do not have enough time to attend face to face classes. Their goals and motivations are instrumental, and they decide to continue their education with other purposes, including a job promotion and retirement with a higher degree. There are also some students who are interested in studying.

Instructor 5

Most of the people who enroll in this program are busy with work and do not achieve the required score to enroll in F2F classes and compared to Azad University and Payame Noor, they prefer to enroll in a reputable state university. The other part of the students are those who are busy with personal problems and do not have enough time to attend F2F classrooms. F2F students are looking for an increase in their knowledge and continuing their education, while online students are looking for a degree and job promotion. There are also a number of online students who are interested in education and regardless of the reason why they have chosen this program, they intend to increase their knowledge and continue their education. In addition, some people may enter the program to get a degree and keep up with Joneses.

Advantages of Being an Online Student

An open-ended question, '*What are the advantages of being an online student?*' was administered to the online students to highlight the advantages of being an online student. The responses of the students are hierarchically presented as follows: save of time and expenses (f=46, %=75.40), having work and education at the same time (f=29, %=47.54), no need for physical presence (f=26, %=42.62), archived files of classes (f=25, %=40.98), easy access to classes (f=18, %=29.50), access to classes from other cities (f=12, %=19.67), optional presence in class (f=10, %=16.39), better time management (f=10, %=16.39), optimum use of the existing facilities (f=7, %=11.47), no stress due to late arrival (f=7, %=11.47), good professors (f=7, %=11.47), being away from air pollution of the city (f=6, %=9.83), becoming autonomous learners (f=6, %=9.83), getting thesis is not obligatory (f=5, %=18.19), appropriate for learners with psychological problems (f=3, %=4.91), and less and easier class content (f=1, %=1.63). Some of the students' responses are presented below.

- The person who enrolls in online classes can easily access the classes with the Internet, laptop or even a cell phone, and the employed and people with special conditions do not need to physically attend the classes, which is a very important point. The online classes provide an opportunity for employed people to increase the level of knowledge without missing their work, even those people who are at home and cannot attend F2F classes would have the chance of increasing their knowledge.
- I can continue my education and work at the same time, which is the most important advantage of this course. I can also listen to the archived files of the classes as much as I want, and there would be no interference with my work. The students can plan for their time and if the professors would agree that the attendance in class is optional, it would be very helpful for students. In F2F classes, you would miss the content of a session if you cannot attend the class but in online courses, the classes are recorded and you can download the classes and listen to them as if you are present in the class and the professor is teaching for you.
- The online students can make efficient use of their time, especially the employed ones who have to work and study at the same time. The online students can access and attend the classes without being worried about the time and place. They also have the opportunity to make use of the archived classes and repeat them many times. In addition, since the online students have to be autonomous and self-regulated, their self-confidence would be increased and they would become

more motivated. Online students are more self-reliant on learning the class content and their listening and writing skills would be improved as a result of these classes. Also, since their only input is the class files and the professors' voice, they would learn how to focus on them and get the best result of that.

- Online students do not need to physically attend the classes; therefore, the students of other cities can also enroll in these classes. People who are employed and have problems with working and studying at the same time or the housewives who are responsible for their kids can also use these classes. The access to the recorded files of the classes can be considered as the other advantages of this course. In addition, this course is an opportunity for the people who could not get the required score to enroll in F2F classes in the university entrance exam. Finally, the people who want to easily get a degree from a valid university can make use of these classes.

- The online program is very suitable for employed people as well as those housewives who are interested in continuing education but do not have enough time to attend F2F classes due to family problems. It is also appropriate for the students of other cities who are willing to get their degree from a well-known university in the capital of Iran, but it is not possible for them to travel to attend F2F classes. In addition, the people who could not get the required score to enroll in F2F classes can use these classes rather than waiting one year to take the university entrance exam again and by this way, they can make the best use of their time.

- The online students do not pay for their transportation, everybody can enroll in these classes regardless of where they live, the online courses do not have any interference with the job and personal work of students because they are held after working hours and they can access the classes easily and from any place. The archived files of classes can be also considered as the other advantage of these classes.

The professors' response to the question *'What are the advantages of being an online student?'* are provided below.

Instructor 1

It allows lifelong learning to happen, and older people can continue their study and manage their lives and jobs. This type of education can respond to different learning styles. Nowadays, we need to learn and relearn so it is possible even for elderly people to continue their education and learn new things. It also allows personalization of learning happens. We can allow students to choose between courses that they need to pass according to their own needs. The archived files of classes are also another advantage of this program, as students can listen to them and reach the understanding that they want.

Instructor 2

For those who want to easily get a degree, these classes are appropriate, have facial validity, but no internal consistency. It seems that there is any time any place learning, but the quality is low. With regard to the educational benefit, these classes are low to moderate. logistic advantage, save of time, recording the classes that will be available later on, and learning at your own pace are the advantages of this program.

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Instructor 3

Online students do not need to go to university, they can save time, they can make use of archived classes, systematic education by providing the book and summary, and taking thesis is optional for them.

Instructor 4

The online students can manage their time, can easily access their classes at any time and any place, can make use of the archived classes, and have the opportunity to study and work simultaneously.

Instructor 5

The opportunity to continue education will be provided for more people. A few years ago when there was no online education, the people who were busy with their work did not intend to continue education, but now the online program has allowed people to continue their education by using the laptop and Internet and without any physical attendance to the classes. In addition, in the online program, there are no time constraints, and even if the students do not have the time to attend the classes, they can make use of archived files of classes.

4. Conclusion

The objectives of this study were thus to determine the online students' and instructors' viewpoints about the reasons and the advantages of online education for the graduate students of TEFL. The result of the study showed that most of the online students believed that employed people and people with lack of time to attend F2F classes enroll in online graduate program. In addition, living in other cities, being married, getting low score in university entrance exam, not being qualified to enroll in face to face classes, and having personal problems were the other reasons for choosing online education. The motivation of the online students are different and while some of the students are looking for a degree, job promotion, and retirement with a higher salary, the others tend to take online courses to increase their knowledge and continue their education at Ph.D. level.

The online instructors believed that the people who enroll in online program are elderly people, married people who are busy with work and personal problems, those not having enough time to attend face to face classes, those not getting the required score to enroll in face to face classes, and those looking for an easy type of education tend to take online courses. They argued that the motivation of the students is mostly instrumental; that is, they want to get a degree to have a job promotion or to become retired with a higher salary. It is also worth noting that a few number of these students are really interested in continuing their education and want to increase their knowledge about teaching English language.

Most of the online students stated some advantages, such as the possibility of working and studying simultaneously, which is a great advantage for those married students having a full-time job and lack of time to attend face to face classes. The other advantages that the students mentioned were the opportunity of saving time, having more time for work, using the archived files of the classes, access the class content from anywhere and at any time, and no need for physical attendance. In addition, saving expenses, appropriate class schedule, convenient form of education, and no need to commute in traffic and polluted air of Tehran were among the other reasons for the satisfaction of the students.

The online instructors believed that online education allows lifelong learning to happen, and older people can continue their study and manage their lives and jobs. This type of education can respond to different learning styles. In addition, it allows personalization of learning happens. Online education can also allow students to choose between courses that they need to pass according to their own needs. Further, the archived files of classes are another advantage of this program, as students can listen to them and reach the understanding that they want. Learning at desired pace is considered among the other advantages of this program. Moreover, online students do not need to go to university, can save time, can receive systematic education by having the required books and summary, can easily access their classes at any time and any place.

The results of this study can shed light on the reasons for choosing online courses and can help the online instructors and policymakers to become aware of the reasons which are of importance for online students and to design the program in the way that can respond to the students' demands and increase the quality of the online program. In addition, the results of this study can help the online students to set realistic expectations for online program and have more intrinsic motivation about it. More research is needed with regard to online education and the factors contributing to the satisfaction of online students. Likewise, the actions, policies, and factors that contribute to the success of online students and the limitations of online courses and the actions that compensate for these limitations need to be studied. In addition, future researchers can investigate the differences between online and face to face students. Moreover, further study can be conducted on the type of evaluation in the online course and its differences with F2F classes.

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The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Self-Concept and Educational Achievement of Tehran Students

Zahra Shams[6] [*] , Graduate Master of Psychology, Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch

Abstract
This study conducted with the aim of investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept as well as educational achievement of Tehran students. Descriptive correlational research used as a research design. Selected samples, after receiving information about research goals and giving their consent to participation, collaborated with the researcher. First, using multi-stage cluster sampling, districts 1, 4, and 17 were selected among 22 districts of Tehran randomly. Then, two high schools (one girls' high school and one boy's high school) were chosen from each of districts. 200 students were recruited. Emotional intelligence and Tennessee self-concept questionnaires were completed by participants and then analysis of data carried out using correlation matrix and Multiple Regression. The results showed that self-concept and educational achievement have a significant relationship with emotional intelligence. Also, emotional intelligence could predict self-concept and educational achievement.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, self-concept, educational achievement

1. Introduction

In today's complicated world, everybody needs education. Today, school activities and learning make a great part of human life (Garg and Rastogi, 2009). Among the most important concerns of education professionals, teachers and parents are educational achievement and prevention of *academic* failure (Poonteng, 2003). Academic failure is the opposite side of educational achievement which has a profound effect on the person's destiny, and also imposes a high costs on family and society. In our country, too, it is currently one of the most important problems of the educational system that makes wasting of tens of billions of national budgets each year, and the potential powers and sources of society which is actually human resource, remain fruitless (Tamanaifar, SedighiArfai & Salami MohammadAbadi, 2011). Therefore, the education of students is aiming at their educational achievement (Ciarrochi, Dean, & Anderson, 2002).

Educational achievement refers to the person's educated or acquired ability in academic subjects which is measured through standardized tests or teacher-made tests (Jalil Abkenar and Ashouri, 2016). Study on the factors

[*1] ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE: Zahra Shams , Graduate Master of Psychology, Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch

E-mail address: Z_shams14@yahoo.com/ Tel.: +98- 912 258 6389

affecting educational achievement is complicated because it is a multidimensional factor, and is subtly connected to the student's physical, social, cognitive and emotional achievement (Mahboubi, Yazdanparast, and Talebi, 2014). Many scholars (Berger & Milem, 1999; Johnsin, 1997; Mayer & Salovey, 1997), therefore, argue that Intelligence Quotient (IQ) alone, at its best, explains relatively small amount of variance of educational and life achievement. Actually, main part of successes depend on other factors and in many cases, destinies of people rely on the skills that constitute emotional intelligence (Aghajani, Narimani and Asiaei, 2008). Emotional intelligence consists of capacity for perception, expression, understanding, applying and management of emotions in oneself and the others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Following Mayer and Salovey, Gardner with his influential model naming multiple intelligence played a main role in developing emotional intelligence theory. According to this theory, two types of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences were suggested. Finally, Daniel Goleman stated this concept in the best-selling book of the year called *Emotional Intelligence* (Goleman, 1995). Emotional intelligence is a set of non-cognitive abilities and skills that improve person's ability to cope with stresses and environmental requirements (Bar-On 1997). However, it's obvious that considering emotional skills without take into account cognitive dimensions such as self-concept does not seem to make sense. Self-concept involves our attitudes, emotions and knowledge about the ability, skill, and acceptability of social acceptance. It contains the whole cognitive, perceptual, emotional, and evaluation procedures. For long time, sociologists and educators have considered the relationship between positive self-concept and educational performance as an important link and equal to evaluation of academic performance. Self-concept is based on previous judgments and perceptions, others' feedbacks, and important person in man's life. One's conception and perception of his ability to learn is one of the accepted types of educational behavior and performance in terms of educational achievement (Aghajani et al., 2008). In most studies, emotional intelligence has a positive correlation with educational achievement (Parker et al., 2004). In this regard, Parker, Hogan, Eastabrook, Oke, & Wood (2006) stated that continuing education is meaningfully associated with high levels of students' emotional and social qualifications. Bar-on (2006) in his study on a group of students found that emotional intelligence was significantly (r = 0.63) associated with their final grades. Studies of Brackett and Salovey (2004), Gumora and Arsenion (2003) also show the relationship between emotional intelligence and educational achievement. Parker et al. (2006), also concluded from their study on 667 high school students in Canada that the correlation between emotional intelligence and educational achievement equals to 0.41, and emotional intelligence significantly predicts educational achievement. Today, most studies try to examine the effectiveness of emotional intelligence and self-concept and its components in various aspects of life, such as social communication and education. It is worth noting that research in this regard has achieved contradictory results. On the other hand, the latest and recent evolution in understanding the relationship between reasoning and emotion is related to emotional intelligence. If educators focus on emotional intelligence and self-concept and establishing an interaction between them and their synchronous progression, they will significantly improve educational performance of students (Petrides et al., 2006). Therefore, the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept and educational achievement seems necessary, and most studies on emotional intelligence which indicate the ability of this factor to predict students' educational achievement emphasizes the significance and necessity of the present study. However, there are few results with regard to self-concept and emotional intelligence and their impact on educational achievement. Therefore, this study was carried out with aim of investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept and educational achievement in Tehran's students.

2. Method

Descriptive correlational research used as a research design. Selected samples, after receiving information about research goals and giving their consent to participation, collaborated with the researcher. First, using multi-stage cluster sampling, districts 1, 4, and 17 were selected among 22 districts of Tehran randomly. Then, two high schools (one girls' high school and one boy's high school) were chosen from each of districts. 200 students were recruited. Emotional intelligence and Tennessee self-concept questionnaires were completed by participants and then the data were analyzed. To measure educational achievement, students' average grade was used in this

study. Because of its more stability and validity than other criteria and showing educational achievement more accurately, the average score of different courses is the most commonly used criterion to determine educational achievement. Data analysis carried out using spss22 software.

2-1 Trait Meta-mood scale

This scale designed by Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai (1995) consists of 48-items rated on a 5-point, Likert-type scale. It has three subscales: attention to feelings (attention) including 21-items measures the level of awareness of one's own mood; clarity in discrimination of feelings including 15-items, measures the ability to discriminate feelings; mood change (mood repair) consisting of 12-items which includes the ability to hold pleasing moods and change the unpleasant moods (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2004). Salovey et al., have reported Cronbach's alpha as an indicator of the reliability for each component of attention, clarity in discrimination of feelings, and mood repair 880, 86/0 and 82/0, respectively. In Iran, too, Qorbani et al (2002) obtained Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each of the components of attention, clarity in discrimination of feelings and mood repair 0.62, 0.72 and 0.65, respectively.

2-2 Tennessee self- concept test

The questionnaire consists of 84 statements about the physical, emotional, social, family, and ethical traits of a person rated on a 5-point, Likert-type scale. Subjects select among options ranging from true to completely false, each with a score of 1 to 5. Mahmoudi (1998) in his research *The Study of the Relationship between General Self-concept and Academic Performance of Primary and Secondary Students* calculated the reliability of it by Bisection method and the Cronbach's alpha formula 0.74 and 0.79 respectively.

3. Findings

The components of descriptive index and correlation matrix of scores of emotional intelligence, self-concept and academic achievement in the participants are presented in Table 1. Also in Table 2, the results of multivariate regression have been reported to predict self-concept and academic achievement based on emotional intelligence.

Table 1 Correlation matrix of emotional intelligence with self-concept and academic achievement

variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Emotional intelligence	1										
attention	0.42**	1									
discrimination	0.34**	0.31**	1								
Mood repair	0.33**	0.46**	0.39**	1							
Self-concept	0.32**	0.40**	0.49**	0.48**	1						
Physical Self-concept	0.54**	0.50**	0.42**	0.48**	0.45**	1					
Emotional Self-concept	0.38**	0.35**	0.43**	0.49**	0.51**	0.64**	1				
Moral Self-concept	0.44**	0.47**	0.39**	0.41**	0.48**	0.50**	0.53**	1			
Social Self-concept	0.39**	0.40**	0.43**	0.48**	0.47**	0.40**	0.50**	0.52**	1		
Family Self-concept	0.40**	0.41**	0.40**	0.44**	0.49**	0.48**	0.49**	0.50**	0.55**	1	
Educational Achievement	0.64**	0.59**	0.53**	0.42**	0.48**	0.49**	0.47**	0.49**	0.43**	0.44**	1
Average	44.65**	10.89**	21.10**	17.75**	152.59**	25.97**	25.30**	26.21**	24.87**	27.04**	16.60**
Standard deviation	13.61**	3.16**	4.52**	8.99**	24.14**	5.61**	5.54**	5.54**	5.76**	5.15**	4.35**

*.P< 0.05   **.P< 0.01

The results of Table 1 show that there is a significant relationship between self-concept and emotional intelligence. Also a significant relationship between self-concept and attention, discrimination and mood repair subscales was obtained. Moreover, the results showed that physical, emotional, moral, social and family self-concept has a

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significant relationship with emotional intelligence. Academic achievement has a significant relationship with emotional intelligence and self-concept and its subscales too.

Table 2 Summary of multiple regression coefficients to predict self-concept and educational achievement based on emotional intelligence

Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable	R	R^2	F	Beta	T	Sig
Emotional Intelligence					0.40	5.53	0.001
Attention					0.23	4.58	0.001
Discrimination	Self-concept	0.24	0.05	8.31	0.13	2.63	0.009
Mood Repair					0.16	2.78	0.004
Emotional Intelligence					0.43	14.13	0.001
Attention					0.47	17.87	0.001
Discrimination	Educational Achievement	0.86	0.74	387.20	0.59	22.21	0.001
Mood Repair					0.33	7.19	0.001

The results of Table 2 show that the total score of emotional intelligence with beta coefficient (P = 0.001, B = 0.40) could predict self-concept. Also, the subscales of attention with beta coefficient (B= -0.23, P = 0.001), the mood discrimination with beta coefficient (B= 0.13, P = 0.009), and mood repair with beta coefficient (B= 0.16, P = 0.004) were able to predict the self-concept. The total score of emotional intelligence with beta coefficient (B = 0.43, B = 0.001) predicted academic achievement. Also, the subscales of attention with beta coefficient (B= 0.47, P = 0.001), mood discrimination with beta coefficient (B= 0.59, P = 0.001) and mood repair with beta coefficient (B= 0.33, P = 0.001) were able to predict educational achievement.

4- Discussion and Conclusion

In the present research, the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept and educational achievement of teenaged students in Tehran was studied. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement with emotional intelligence. Also, emotional intelligence could predict self-concept and educational achievement. The findings of this study are consistent with the results of studies carried out by Jalil Abkenar and Ashouri (2015), Parker et al. (2004), Gumora and Arsenion (2003), Petrides et al. (2006). It can be explained by the fact that students with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to obtain knowledge and get information easier and more quickly, they love school and spend more time there. Since learning in school is an acquired event and requires knowledge, understanding, putting into practice, analysis, combination and evaluation which in turn involves having a high level of emotional intellectual so that the student can use the cognitive strategies such as (review, develop, and organize) and meta-cognition (including planning, monitoring and self-regulation) desirably, there is a high probability that higher emotional intelligence will increase the level of educational achievement. In addition, since emotional intelligence can play an effective role in providing a desirable environment for learning and communication so that students can freely express their needs and expectations to gain support from others, their educational achievement won't be unexpected. On the other hand, emotional intelligence is manifested in communication and deals with capabilities, competencies and abilities that direct individual communication with oneself and others, and ultimately leads to a sense of self-concept and an increase in educational motivation. As a result, students with higher emotional intelligence are likely to achieve more academic achievement (Jalil- Abkenar and Ashori, 2016). In explaining the other part of the findings, one can say that when students achieve a lasting sense of positive self-concept, they, relying on their own abilities, embark on self-regulating learning activities and through organizing, planning and self-assessing learning processes, improve their academic performance. Positive self-concept of people encourages them to use self-regulation and autonomous manners. The importance of understanding and perceiving ability is due to its predictive role to other motivational elements. When a student feels that she/he is capable of

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completing assignments successfully, she/he becomes more involved in it and, because of sense of ability, she/he endeavors to learning with more confidence. Finally, it can be said that learners who are self-regulating in the process of learning, know their values prior to others and believe in their abilities, compare themselves less with others, but judge on their learning by referring to their abilities and criteria. In other words, they have internal performance standards, so inferiority complex is less in them and they attaint more positive self-concept (Talebzadeh Novarbian et al., 2011). As already mentioned, high emotional intelligence predicts positive academic and social outcomes as well as positive self-concept in students, so using the results from such studies in educational programs in proper way can lead to significant and positive changes in the educational level of university and school. It can also be said that considering the influential role of teaching on the development of social and emotional skills of students, and the importance of learning these skills to improve their ability to adapt more effectively to self and environment, as well as the crucial importance of youth and its lasting effects on the formation of young person's personality, the need for attention and training in emotional literacy and emotional intelligence skills in the form of training classes in youth is revealed.

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The Relationship between Personality Traits and Situational Anxiety about Marriage in Young People at the Age of Marriage

Zahra Shams[7] [*], Graduate Master of Psychology, Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch

Abstract

This study was carried out with the aim of investigating the relationship between personality traits and situational anxiety about marriage in young people at the age of marriage. Correlational- descriptive research design used for this study. 50 young adults between 19 and 35 years residing in Tehran, after receiving information about research goals and giving their consent to participation, completed the NEO Five-Factor Inventory and situational anxiety questionnaire. Multiple correlation and multiple regression matrices used for analyzing the obtained data. The results indicated a positive correlation between situational anxiety and neuroticism (N), and a significant negative relationship between situational anxiety and extraversion (E), openness (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C). Thus, the personality traits (OCEAN) were able to predict situational anxiety in young people at the age of marriage.

Keywords: personality traits, situational anxiety, marriage

1. Introduction

Most of the mental, physical and emotional needs of human are met through healthy marriage, and usually those who have successful marriage are more purposeful, cheerful, and healthier than single ones or those who have failed in their own marriages. Marriage, as a primal and natural right of humankind, contains certain rules following them brings about satisfaction (Rostami, Saadati and Navvabinejad, 2016). Inability to cope with anxiety and phobia of marriage may progress to getting paranoid about it. Some young people concentrate on joint life problems, or probable divorce and subsequent pain and suffering than love and intimacy. Therefore, the anxiety before marriage is quite natural and any young person depending on the conditions of his/her life may experience it before marriage. But sometimes this anxiety may be so intensive that lead to conflict and problem between couples. Usually, a couple who experiences anxiety is very vulnerable. Therefore, if she/he isn't understood by her/his partner, it is likely that the conflicts result in misunderstanding and hurt. However, sometimes arguments appear so unsolvable and crucial that may lead to break up (Abdokht, 2005). Because the pre-wedding period has its own particular problems and stresses, coping with pre-marriage anxiety becomes difficult. Anxiety can have different physical and emotional symptoms including difficulty in sleeping, concentrating and eating. The anxious person usually breaths quickly and his heart rate goes high. He/she also may feel dizzy and nauseous. She/he may become upset for no reason and feel emotionally and socially rejected by others. This problem may get worse during the pre-marriage period when emotional effects can separate couples. Some studies have also examined the role of personality traits in the intimate relationships and marriage, and their importance to and role in many areas such as mate selection, marital satisfaction and permanence of marriage has been confirmed (Jabraili, Zadeh Mohammadi, Heidari and Habibi, 2014). Furthermore, for many years there have been controversies over the

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, Graduate Master of Psychology, Islamic Azad University [*٧] ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE: Zahra Shams

Central Tehran Branch

E-mail address: Z_shams14@yahoo.com/ Tel.: +98- 912 258 6389

meaning of personality, and scholars have suggested several definitions. Although there is no single definition, in general, personality is relatively permanent patterns of characteristics, features or trends that make the behavior of individual endure to some extent. More specifically, personality consists of features or tendencies that result in individual differences in behavior, behavioral stability during treatment, and behavioral continuity in different situations (Costa & McCrae, 1990). McCrae and Costa (1985) characterized personality as consisting of five main elements neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness while considering each of them as a product of six features. In recent decades, the role of personality traits in interpersonal situations, specially emotional and intimate relationships of couples, has been considered. Research has shown that personality traits are the most important factors affecting establishing and keeping intimate relationships, and are important to mate selection (Barelds, 2005). Studies have also shown that individuals tend to choose someone similar to themselves as mates (Botwin, Buss and Shackelford, 1997). In addition, characteristics like shyness and social anxiety may interfere with intimate relationships, while features such as agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness are preferred potentially in a mate (Jebraeily et al., 2014). Kemmelmeier, Danilson, and Batten (2005) in their research emphasized that everyone has equipped with a psychological structures and special features for socializing and confronting with different persons and situations that affect interpersonal relationships in different situations. Therefore, this study has of great importance for several reasons: several studies confirmed the effect of personality traits on romantic and intimate relationships and consequently on selection of a mate and marriage; the importance of investigating mate selection as a foundation of family establishment; the importance of the criteria of this selection to probable success or failure of marriage according to personality traits (Rostami et al, 2016); and lack of a study on relationship between personality traits and situational anxiety about marriage in young people. The main aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between these variables and to answer whether there is a relationship between personality traits and situational anxiety about marriage in young people.

2. Method

The statistical method of this study is descriptive and correlational. Samples were selected after receiving information about research goals and giving their consent to collaborate with the researcher. First, 50 participants were recruited among young adults between 19 and 35 years residing in Tehran. Then, NEO personality characteristics and situational anxiety questionnaires were completed by participants. Data analysis was performed using *SPSS* Statistics *V22*.0. In order to specify the relationship between personality characteristics and situational anxiety in young adults at the age of marriage, Pearson correlation coefficient and multiple regressions were used.

2-1 Neo Five Factor Questionnaire: This questionnaire was developed by Costa and McCrae in 1991. According to this model, personality consists of five main dimensions, neuroticism (N), extroversion (E), openness (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C), based on a well-known personality pattern called the Five Factor Model, each factor consisting of 12 items, altogether were 60 items. The responses were measured by Likert scale (totally disagreeing, disagreeing, indifferent, agreeing, and totally agreeing). The NEO Personality Inventory used by McCrae and Costa (1983) for 208 American students in a three-month period, with coefficients ranging from 0.83 to 0.75. Costa and McCrae (1998) reported in the test guide extensive information about convergent and divergent validity of NEO. In MMPI, with regard to personality scales, the correlation of obsessive-compulsive scale to anxiety subscale of NEO scale, boundary scale to aggression subscale, avoiding scale to shyness subscale, and the schizoid scale to collectivism were 0.51, 0.70, 0.58, and 0.66 respectively. In Zabihi and Ramedani's research (2016) Cronbach's alpha for neuroticism, extroversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness subscales were calculated 0.99, 0.82, of 0.70, 0.72, and 0.71 respectively.

2-2 Situational Anxiety Questionnaire

Spielberger Standard Anxiety Inventory, developed by him in 1973, contains 23 multiple-choice questions that are scored in Likert type and rating from 1 to 6. Some questions, depending on their content, are scored reversely. The

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validity of the Persian version of the Spielberger Inventory has measured using the norm group and criterion group and comparing the average scores of them (Bech, Gormsen, Loldrup, and Lunde, 2009). The reliability was also calculated using the Cronbach's alpha formula as 0.9 (Aliabadi, 2010).

3. Findings

The mean and standard deviation of the participants' age was 3.32 ± 2.22. The minimum and maximum ages of the samples were 22 and 39 years respectively. The descriptive index and correlation matrix factors of personality traits and situational anxiety scores of participants are presented in Table 1. Also in Table 2, multivariate regression results have been reported to predict situational anxiety according to personality traits.

Table 1 Correlation matrix of personality traits and situational anxiety correlations.

Variable	Average	Standard deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6
Neuroticism (N)	17.82	4.28	1					
Extraversion (E)	18.16	3.47	0.76**	1				
Openness (O)	17.50	3.62	0.54**	0.80**				
Agreeableness (A)	16.74	3.17	0.74**	0.90**	0.73**			
Conscientiousness (C)	17.03	3.43	0.67**	0.90**	0.64**	0.77**	1	
Situational Anxiety	57.73	9.43	0.70**	0.89**	0.64**	0.74**	0.76**	1

*. $P < 0.05$ **. $P < 0.01$

The results of table 1 show that the highest 18/16 (3/47) and the lowest 16/74 (3.17) averages are related to extraversion (E) and agreeableness (A) respectively. Also, there is a positive relationship between situational anxiety and neuroticism (N), and a significant negative relationship between situational anxiety and extraversion (E), openness (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C).

Table 2 Summary of multiple regression coefficients to predict situational anxiety according to personality traits

Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable	R	R^2	F	Sig	B	Beta	T	Sig
Constant Value	Situational Anxiety					52.29	-	6.96	0.000
Neuroticism (N)						1.15	0.28	3.19	0.002
Extraversion (E)									
Openness (O)		0.30	0.09	2.07	0.01	-0.67	-0.20	-02.22	0.02
Agreeableness (A)						-0.84	-0.19	-2.05	0.04
Conscientiousness (c)						-1.11	-0.19	-2.43	0.01

The results of table 2 show that R^2 value in personality traits is equal to 0.30 which indicates that 30% of changes in the situational anxiety index depend on predictor variables (personality traits) in the dependent participants. Also, considering the value of beta coefficients for neuroticism (N) with (B= 0.25, P = 0.02), extraversion (E) (B= 0.28, P = 0.002), openness (O) (B= -0.20, P = 0.02), agreeableness (A) (B= -0.19, P = 0.04), and conscientiousness (C) (B= =0.19, P= 0.01) the variables are able to predict situational anxiety

4- Discussion and Conclusion

The historical experience of countries and societies in the contemporary era indicates an increase in the median age for marriage. This increase among women has been much more than men. Iran, like other regions of the world, has witnessed the same increase and modern marriages have taken place at later in life (Rostami et al., 2016). Considering the importance of marriage and family establishment for individuals lives and increasing the

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population of eligibleyoung men and women for marriage in the country, study on changes in the age of marriage and its impact on the mental health of young people and thus recognizing the effective causes of it both scholarly and functionally is of great importance in economic and social planning, and even in national and local psychology. Therefore, in the present study, personality traits and situational anxiety with regard to the men and women at the age of marriage in Tehran has been investigated.

The results of this study showed a positive relationship between situational anxiety and neuroticism (N), and a significant negative relationship between situational anxiety and extraversion (E), openness (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C). Also, considering beta coefficients of neuroticism (N) (B=0.28, P = 0.002), extraversion (E) (B= 0.25, P = 0.02), openness (O) (B = - 0.20, P = 0.02), agreeableness (A) (B= -0.19, P = 0.04) and conscientiousness (C) (B= =0.19 / 0-, P = 0.01), these variables are capable to predict situational anxiety, being supported the effect of them on the anxiety and mate and marriage by various studies. Hence, neuroticism is related to individuals' trend to experience anxiety, tension, pity seeking, hostility, impulsivity, depression and low self-esteem. Findings of various studies have shown that people with high neuroticism exhibit more negative behaviors and emotions in problem-solving situations in comparison with those who have low neuroticism. These scholars believe that such features are likely to increase divorce and separation. The results of Bogeller and Shilling's research on the role of personality traits in dealing with life's tensions showed that there is a correlation between neuroticism with interpersonal conflicts and general hurts. Also, openness is related to the person's trend to forgiveness, kindness, generosity, empathy, sympathy, altruism and gain trust. Many scholars believe that openness is an intrapersonal process that has an important impact on the quality of interpersonal relationships (Jabraeli et al., 2014).

In addition, conscientiousness is related to the person's trend to orderliness, efficacy, reliability and self-reliance, self-regulation, progressiveness, reasonableness and calmness. The likeness theory in mate selection states that individuals choose someone as a mate who has similar characteristics to their owns. If it were true, the conscientious person should prefer someone with the same characteristic as his/her spouse. In general, it can be said that to be entered to the academic and business fields has challenged men and women's ability to keep work-family balance (Milliken, Martins & Morgan, 1998). Although it has contributed to a more dynamic environment and society, it has caused to experience conflicts between work, education and family in a broad level, and delaying marriage timeline increases doubts and anxieties over marriage (Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman & Garden, 2005). Hence, getting a good and positive marriage requires the knowledge of self, of personality traits and of current status, and standing of the person. Lack of knowledge about self and personality traits is one of the factors that can lead to situational anxiety about marriage. As in some cases, despite suitable occasion and person with the right qualities and mood and personality for marriage, because of lack of knowledge they make wrong decision or show indecision. This indecisiveness, uncertainty, and inability to choice and ultimately loneliness and singleness may decrease the mental health of young people. Many philosophical, religious, and psychological views emphasize the importance of identifying the personality traits to protect and promote the individual's psychological well-being at the time of marriage and future mate selection (Rostami et al., 2016).

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Ups & Downs of Literacy Movement in Iran: An experience for Africa

By

Lida Kakia[8] & Amir Mohammad Hossaini[9]

Abstract

After victory of Islamic Revolution in 1979, Iran's population was 27 million, of which 14.5 million (52%) were illiterate. To appreciate this progress, UNESCO's Literacy Prize was awarded to the Literacy Movement Organization of Iran (LMOI) on September 1999. At present and after four decades of Iran's experiences, still the illiteracy rate is around 15%. In fact one of the country's goals that must be achieved by the end of the Sixth Development Plan (2015 - 2020) is eradication of illiteracy among the age group 10 to 49 years. But nowadays it seems to achieve this goal is not easy because with drop

[8] PhD in Comparative Education, Sofia University , Bulgaria , Email:lida.kakia@gmail.com

[9] Student in Psychology , Islamic Azad University, Tehran Medical Branch

out of 80 thousand students the future of literacy do not look very bright .If current trends continue, eradicate of illiteracy by the end of Fifth Development Plan will be failure. Because of this, officials at LMOI are not very optimistic about the future of literacy in the country. From one side, illiterate people are reluctant to literacy and it has become difficult to attract them to attend literacy programs (especially old, women and rural people). On the other side, illiterate people born after the revolution due to life circumstances (such as cultural and economic problems) do not need to be literate. There are thousands of work's children which even would be difficult to find them. In addition, the literacy campaign is grappling with several problems such as lack of desire for literacy; lack of governmental & non- governmental organizations cooperation and lack of financial support.

Keywords: Literacy Movement, Iran, Africa, Non- governmental Organizations

Critical Theory and Moral Theory in Education

Henry Giroux and Nel Noddings

The philosophy of education and comparison

Parvaneh Aghasafari*,Ramazan Barkhordari, Mojtaba Heidari

Abstract:

This paper makes two contributions .First explaining about two theories; critical and the **moral theory** known as " the ethics of care". Second , theorists and great educators who are pioneers and best known in these theories are introduced. Henry Giroux is an American and Canadian scholar and **cultural critic**. One of the founding theorists of **critical pedagogy** in the United States and Nel Noddings who developed the idea of care as a feminine ethic, and applied it to the practice of moral education. Critical Theory has a narrow and a broad meaning in philosophy and in the history of the social sciences. In both the broad and the narrow senses, however, a critical theory provides the descriptive and normative bases for social inquiry aimed at decreasing domination and increasing freedom in all their forms. Critical pedagogy poses a variety of important counterlogics to the positivistic, a historical, and depoliticized analysis employed by both liberal and conservative critics of schooling--an analysis all too readily visible in the training programs in the colleges of education .It Fundamentally concerned with the centrality of politics and power in our understanding of how schools work, critical theorists have produced work centering on the political economy of schooling, the state and education, the representation of texts, and the construction of student subjectivity.In the ethics of care implies that there is moral significance in the fundamental elements of relationships and dependencies in human life.Primarily, I determine concepts . After determining concepts, I would consider their claims and themes . However, this topic is a collection of main resources and textbooks in critical and moral theory in the context of education. I hope I would be successful to represent, develop and understand this subject and explain it properly.

Key Words: Educator, Critical theory, Ethics of care, Henry Giroux, Nel Noddings

1.*PhD Student of Philosophy of Education ,International Campus Kharazmi University ,Tehran ,Iran .E-mail: parvaneha8255@gmail.com

2. **Assistant Professor of Kharazmi University ,Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Department of Foundations of Education Tehran, Iran. Ramazanbarkhordari@gmail.com**

3. Associate Professor of Farhangian University, Arak ,Iran

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I.Introduction:

Critical Theory has a narrow and a broad meaning in philosophy and in the history of the social sciences. In both the broad and the narrow senses, however, a critical theory provides the descriptive and normative bases for social inquiry aimed at decreasing domination and increasing freedom in all their forms. few educators--including educational technologists--appear to concern themselves directly with critical theory (McLaren, 1994a). Henry Giroux (born September 18, 1943) is an American and Canadian scholar and **cultural critic**. One of the founding theorists of **critical pedagogy** in the United States, he is best known for his pioneering work in public **pedagogy**, **cultural studies**, **youth studies**, **higher education**, **media studies**, and **critical theory**. The **moral theory** known as " the ethics of care" implies that there is moral significance in the fundamental elements of relationships and dependencies in human life. Normatively, care ethics seeks to maintain relationships by contextualizing and promoting the well-being of care-givers and care-receivers in a network of social relations. Nell Noddings published *Caring*, in which she developed the idea of care as a feminine ethic, and applied it to the practice of moral education. Starting from the presumption that women "enter the practical domain of moral action…through a different door", she ascribed to feminine ethics a preference for face-to face moral deliberation that occurs in real time, and appreciation of the uniqueness of each caring relationship.

II. Review of literature and Theories :

Felix Weil's father Herman made his fortune exporting grain from Argentina to Europe. In 1923 Felix convinced him to spend some of it financing an institute devoted to the study of society in the light of the Marxist tradition. At this point, Felix could not have foreseen that in the 1960s the University of Frankfurt, to which the institute was attached, would receive the epithet "Karl Marx University". The initial idea of an independently founded institute was conceived to provide for studies on the labor movement and the origins of anti-Semitism, which at the time were being ignored in German intellectual and academic life

Not long after its inception, the Institute for Social Research was formally recognized by the Ministry of Education as an entity attached to Frankfurt University. The first official appointed director was Carl Grünberg (1923-9), a Marxist legal and political professor at the University of Vienna. His contribution to the Institute was the creation of an historical archive mainly oriented to the study of the labor movement (also known as the *Grünberg Archiv*).

In 1930, Max Horkheimer succeeded Grünberg. While continuing the Marxist inspiration, Horkheimer interpreted the Institute's mission to be more directed towards an interdisciplinary integration of the social sciences. Additionally, the *Grünberg Archiv* ceased to publish, and instead a different official organ was launched which was to have a much greater impact: the *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung*. While never officially supporting any party, the Institute entertained intensive research exchanges with the Soviet Union.

It was under Horkheimer's leadership that members of the Institute were able to address a wide variety of economic, social, political and aesthetic topics, ranging from empirical analysis to philosophical theorization. Different interpretations of Marxism and its historical applications explain some of the hardest confrontations on economic themes within the Institute, such as the case of Pollock's criticism of Grossman's standard view on the pauperization of capitalism. This particular confrontation led Grossman to leave the Institute. Pollock's critical reinterpretation of Marx also received support from intellectuals who greatly contributed to the later development of the School: for instance, Leo Lowenthal, Theodor Wiesengrund-Adorno and Erich Fromm. In particular, with Fromm's development of a psychoanalytic trend at the Institute and with an influential philosophical contribution by Hokheimer, it became clear how under his directorship the Institute faced a drastic turning point characterizing all its future endeavors. In the following, I shall briefly introduce some of the main research patterns introduced by Fromm and Horkheimer respectively.

From the beginning, psychoanalysis in the Frankfurt School was conceived in terms of a reinterpretation of [Freud](#) and Marx. Its consideration in the School was clearly due to Horkheimer, who encouraged his researchers to direct their attention to the subject. It was Fromm, nevertheless, who best produced an advancement of the discipline; his central aim was to provide, through a synthesis of Marxism and psychoanalysis, "the missing link between ideological superstructure and socio-economic base" (Jay 1966, p. 92). There was a radical shift in the conjunction of the School's interests and psychoanalysis with the coeval entrance of Adorno and   Fromm's departure in the late 1930s. Nevertheless, the School retained psychoanalysis, and in particular Freud's instinct theory, as an area of interest. This can be seen in Adorno's later paper "Social Science and Sociological Tendencies in Psychoanalysis" (1946), as well as Marcuse's book *Eros and Civilization* (1955). The School's interest in psychoanalysis was characterized by the total abandonment of Marxism as well as by a progressive interest into the relation of psychoanalysis with social change and the maintenance of Fromm's insight into the psychic (or even psychotic) role of the family. This interest became crucial in empirical studies in 1940, which culminated in Adorno's co-authored work *The Authoritarian Personality* (1950). The goal of this work was to explore, on the basis of submission of a questionnaire, a "new anthropological type" - the authoritarian personality (Adorno et al. 1950, quoted in Jay 1996, p. 239). Such a character was found to have specific traits, such as, among others: compliance with conventional values, non-critical thinking, an absence of introspectiveness.

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As pointed out by Jay: "Perhaps some of the confusion about this question was a product of terminological ambiguity. As a number of commentators have pointed out, there is an important distinction that should be drawn between *authoritarianism* and *totalitarianism* [emphasis added]. Wilhelminian and Nazi Germany, for example, were fundamentally dissimilar in their patterns of obedience. What *The Authoritarian Personality* was really studying was the character type of a totalitarian rather than an authoritarian society. Thus, it should have been no surprise to learn that this new syndrome was fostered by a familial crisis in which traditional paternal authority was under fire" (Jay 1996, p. 247).)

Horkheimer's leadership provided a very distinct methodological direction and philosophical grounding to the Institute's research interests. Against the so-called *Lebensphilosophie* (philosophy of life), he criticized the fetishism of subjectivity and the lack of consideration for the materialist conditions of life. Furthermore, arguing against Cartesian and Kantian philosophy, he attempted to rejoin all dichotomies - like those between consciousness and being, theory and practice, fact and value - through the use of dialectical mediation. Differently from Hegelism or Marxism though, dialectics for Horkheimer amounted to neither a metaphysical principle nor a historical praxis; it was not intended as a methodological instrument. On the contrary, Horkheimer's dialectics functioned as the battleground for overcoming categorical fixities and oppositions. From this descended Horkheimer's criticism of orthodox Marxism which dichotomized the opposition between productive structures and ideological superstructure, or positivism's naïve separation of social facts from their social interpretation.

In 1933, due to the Nazi takeover, the Institute temporarily transferred first to Geneva and then in 1935 to New York and Columbia University. Two years later Horkheimer published the ideological manifesto of the School in his "Traditional and Critical Theory" ([1937] 1976), where some of the already anticipated topics were addressed, such as the practical and critical turn of theory. In 1938 Adorno joined the Institute after spending time at Merton College, Oxford as an "advanced student." He was invited by Horkheimer to join the Princeton Radio Research Project together with Lazarsfeld. Gradually, Adorno assumed a preponderant intellectual role in the School, culminating in the co-publication, with Horkheimer, of one of the milestones of Critical Theory: *Dialectic of Enlightenment* in 1947. During this time, while Germany was under Nazi seizure, the Institute remained the only free voice publishing in German. The backlash of this choice, though, was a prolonged isolation from American academic life and intellectual debate, a situation which Adorno appealed against iconoclastically as "a message in the bottle" for the lack of a public target.   According to Wiggershaus: "The Institute disorientation in the late 1930s made the balancing acts it had always had to perform, for example in relation to its academic environment, even more difficult. The seminars were virtually discussion groups for the Institute's associates, and American students only rarely took part in them" (1995, p. 251).

Interestingly, one of the School's major topics of study was Nazism. This led to two different approaches in the School. One was guided by Neumann, Gurland and Kirchheimer and addressed mainly legal and political issues on the basis of economic substructures. The other, guided by Horkheimer, focused on psychological irrationalism as a source of obedience and domination (see Jay 1996, p. 166).

In 1941, Horkheimer moved to Pacific Palisades, near Los Angeles. He built himself a bungalow near other German intellectuals, among whom were Bertold Brecht and Thomas Mann, and those working for the film industry or aiming at doing so (Wiggershaus 1995, p. 292). Other fellows like Marcuse, Pollock and Adorno followed shortly, whereas some remained in New York. Only Benjamin refused to leave Europe and, while attempting to cross the border between France and Spain at Port Bou, committed suicide in 1940. Some months later Arendt also crossed the border there, passing on to Adorno Benjamin's last writing, "Theses on the Philosophy of History".

The internal division of the School between its bases in New York and California, was accompanied by a progressive distinction of research programs led respectively by Pollock on anti-Semitism from the east coast, culminating in a four-volume work titled *Studies in Anti-Semitism* as well as an international conference in 1944; and a trend of studies on dialectics from the west coast led by Horkheimer and Adorno.   Even during these years the latter engaged in the study of anti-semitic tendencies as several publications showed, such as *The Authoritarian Personality* or *Studies in Prejudice*. After this period, only few devoted supporters of the School remained there: Horkheimer himself, Pollock, Adorno, Lowenthal, and Weil. In 1946, however, the Institute was officially invited to rejoin Frankfurt University.

Returning to West Germany, Horkheimer presented his inaugural speech for the reopening of the institute on 14 November 1951, and one week later inaugurated the academic year as a new rector of Frankfurt University. Nevertheless what was once a lively intellectual community became a small team of a few but very busy people, with Horkheimer involved in the administration of the university and Adorno occupied with different projects and teachings. In addition, due to the maintenance of US citizenship, Adorno had to go back to California, where he earned his living from qualitative analysis research. From his side, Horkheimer attempted to attract back his former assistant Marcuse when the opportunity arose for a successor to Gadamer's chair in Frankfurt, but neither this initiative nor further occasions were successful. Marcuse remained in the United States and was offered a full position by Brandeis University. Adorno returned to Germany in August 1953 and was soon involved again in empirical research combining quantitative and qualitative methods in the analysis of industrial relations for the Mannesmann Company. Then in 1955, he took over Horkheimer's position as director of the Institute for Social Research, and on 1 July 1957 he was appointed full professor in philosophy and sociology. Adorno's most innovative contribution was thought to be in the field of music theory and aesthetics, where some of his significant works included *Philosophy of Modern Music* (1949) and later "Vers une Musique Informelle". In 1956 Horkheimer retired just as several

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important publications emerged, such as Marcuse's *Eros and Civilization* and the essay collection *Sociologica*. These events gave character to the precise research phase reached by the "Frankfurt School" and "Critical Theory".

The sixties – which saw famous student protests across Europe – also saw the publication of Adorno's fundamental work, *Negative Dialectics* (1966). While far from being conceived either in terms of materialism or of metaphysics, this maintained important connections with an "open and non systemic" notion of dialectics. Marcuse had just published *One-Dimensional Man* (1964), introducing the notion of "educational dictatorship", which implied that for the sake of liberation there was a need for the advancement of material conditions for the realization of a higher notion of "the good". While Marcuse quite ostensibly sponsored the student upheavals, Adorno maintained a much more moderate and critical profile.

In 1956, Habermas joined the Institute as Adorno's assistant, and was soon involved in an empirical and cooperative study under the title of *Students and Politics*. The text, though, was rejected by Horkheimer and did not come out, as it should have, in the series *Frankfurt Contributions to Sociology*, but only later in 1961 in the series *Sociological Texts*, by the publisher Luchterhand (see Wiggershaus 1995, p. 555). Horkheimer's aversion towards Habermas was even more evident when he was refused supervision on his *habilitation*. In the event, Habermas undertook his *habilitation*, on the topic of the bourgeois' public sphere, under the supervision of Abendroth at Marburg. As a result of his previous studies, in 1962 Habermas published *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere*, and in the same year, just before his *habilitation* and thanks to Gadamer, he was appointed as professor at Heidelberg. Besides his academic achievements, as an activist the young Habermas contributed towards a critical self-awareness of the socialist student groups around the country (the so-called SDS, *Sozialistischer Deutscher Studentenbund*). It was in this context that Habermas had to deal with the extremism of Rudi Dutschke, the students' radical leader who criticized him for defending a non-effective emancipatory view. Discussion of the notion of "emancipation" has been at the center of the Frankfurt School's political contention and of its philosophical debates. For the sake of clarification, it must be said that the German word "Befreiung", covers a much wider semantic spectrum than "emancipation;" its most recurrent use in German philosophical works is that of "liberation", which implies either a transformative or even a revolutionary action. Due to the plasticity of "Befreiung", Critical Theory scholars engaged into a far reaching process of conceptual and political clarification; accordingly, it was principally against Dutschke's positions that Habermas, during a public assembly, labeled such positions with the epitome "left-wing fascism". How representative this expression is of Habermas' views on students' protests has often been a matter of contention, even though this reaction cannot be taken to encompass the complexity of the Habermasian position respect to the students' liberation movement.

After his nomination in 1971 as a director of the *Max Planck Institut for Research into the Conditions of Life in the Scientific-Technical World* at Starnberg, Habermas left Frankfurt,

returning there in 1981 after the completion of one of his masterpieces, *The Theory of Communicative Action*. This decade was crucial for the definition of the School's research objectives as well as most of the fundamental research achievements of the so-called "second generation" of Frankfurt scholars. In his two-volume work *The Theory of Communicative Action* (1984b [1981]), Habermas provided a model of social complexities and action coordination based upon the original interpretation of classical social theorists as well as contemporary philosophy of language such as Searle's *Speech Acts* theory. Within this work, it also became evident how the large amount of empirical work conducted by Habermas' research team on topics concerning pathologies of society, moral development and so on, was elevated to a functionalistic model of society oriented to an emancipatory purpose. This normative force can be detected from within language itself, in what Habermas defined as the "unavoidable pragmatic presuppositions of mutual understanding". Social action, therefore, whose coordination function relies on the same pragmatic presuppositions, gets connected to a justification for the validity of claims.

Habermas describes discourse theory as characterized by three types of validity-claims raised by communicative acts: it is only when the conditions of truth, rightness and sincerity are raised by speech-acts that social coordination is obtained. In contrast to the closeness of the German intellectual world characterizing most of the first generation of Frankfurt scholars, Habermas contributed greatly to bridge the continental and analytical traditions, integrating prospects belonging to American Pragmatism, Anthropology and Semiotics with Marxism and Critical Social Theory.

Just one year before Habermas' retirement in 1994, the directorship of the *Institut für Sozialforschung* was assumed by Honneth. This inaugurated a new phase of Critical Theory, both in terms of generation (the third generation) and in terms of philosophical research as Honneth revived the Hegelian notion of recognition (*Anerkennung*) in social and political enquiry. Honneth began his collaboration with Habermas in 1984, when he was hired as assistant professor. After a period of academic appointments in Berlin and Konstanz, in 1996 he took Habermas' chair in Frankfurt.

Honneth's central tenet, the struggle for recognition, represents a *leitmotiv* finding wide discussion in *The Struggle for Recognition: The Moral Grammar of Social Conflicts* ([1986]), certainly one of Honneth's greatest texts. This work is a mature expansion of what was partially addressed in his dissertation, a work published under the title of *Critique of Power: Stages of Reflection of a Critical Social Theory* (1991 [1985]). One of the core themes addressed by Honneth is that, contrary to what Critical Theory had emphasized so far, more attention should be paid to the notion of conflict in society and among societal groups. Such conflict represents the internal movement of historical advancement and human emancipation, falling therefore within the core theme of critical social theory. The so-called "struggle for recognition" is what best characterizes the fight for emancipation by social groups, and this fight represents a

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subjective negative experience of domination – a form of domination attached to misrecognitions. To come to terms with such negations of subjective forms of self-realization means to be able to transform social reality. Normatively, though, acts of social struggle activated by forms of misrecognition point to the role that recognition plays as a crucial criterion for grounding intersubjectivity.

Honneth inaugurated a new research phase in Critical Theory. Indeed, his communitarian turn of social theory has been paralleled by the work of some of his fellow scholars. Brunkhorst, for instance, in his *Solidarity: From Civic Friendship to a Global Legal Community* (2005 [2002]), canvasses a line of thought springing from the French Revolution of 1789 to contemporary times, which has been still insufficiently explored so far: the notion of fraternity. By the use of historical conceptual reconstruction and normative speculation, Brunkhorst presents the pathologies of the contemporary globalized world and the function that "solidarity" would play.

The confrontation with American debate initiated systematically by the work of Habermas has become then normal practice during the third generation of critical social theorists. Additionally since Habermas, the third generation has engaged in dialogue with French post-modern philosophers like Derrida, Baudrillard, Lyotard, and so forth, which according to Foucault are legitimate interpreters of some central instances of the Frankfurt School.(….iep.utm.edu/frankfur)

The phrase 'care ethics' has its roots in feminist theory and was originally coined by psychologist Carol Gilligan. The phrase was created after a study that was conducted on how little girls look at ethics. Gilligan found that in relation to boys, the moral development of girls tended to come from compassion instead of being justice-based. From the study, Gilligan proposed that ethics should be focused on relationships instead of emphasizing autonomy and rules. Her theory focused more on our connections with each other and situations being context dependent.

Another woman, philosopher Nel Noddings, further contributed to the theory in the 1980s. Noddings decided to focus the approach more on our intimate relationships. She felt that it was necessary to differentiate between natural caring or 'wanting to care' and 'ethical caring' or 'needing to care.'

For example, let's say your aunt tells you that she's just lost her job. You give her a hug in an act of affection. This is an example of natural caring. Now let's say that an acquaintance tells you she just had a messy break-up with her boyfriend. You don't know her very well. However, you believe that 'showing you care' is the best response, so you give her a hug. This is an example of ethical caring.(study.com/academy)

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III.Discussion and results :

1.Critical Theory and Education:

Critical Theory has a narrow and a broad meaning in philosophy and in the history of the social sciences. "Critical Theory" in the narrow sense designates several generations of German philosophers and social theorists in the Western European Marxist tradition known as the Frankfurt School. According to these theorists, a "critical" theory may be distinguished from a "traditional" theory according to a specific practical purpose: a theory is critical to the extent that it seeks human "emancipation from slavery", acts as a "liberating … influence", and works "to create a world which satisfies the needs and powers" of human beings (Horkheimer 1972, 246). Because such theories aim to explain and transform *all* the circumstances that enslave human beings, many "critical theories" in the broader sense have been developed. They have emerged in connection with the many social movements that identify varied dimensions of the domination of human beings in modern societies. In both the broad and the narrow senses, however, a critical theory provides the descriptive and normative bases for social inquiry aimed at decreasing domination and increasing freedom in all their forms.

Though relatively few educators--including educational technologists--appear to concern themselves directly with critical theory (McLaren, 1994a), a number of influential educators are pursuing the theory in one or more of its current manifestations. Henry Giroux and Peter McLaren are among the best known of today's critical theorists, and we find critical theorists working across a spectrum of intellectual frames: postmodernism (Peters, 1995); critical pedagogy (Kanpol, 1994); power (Apple, 1993; Cherryholmes, 1988); teaching (Beyer, 1986; Gibson, 1986; Henricksen & Morgan, 1990; Simon, 1992; Weiler & Mitchell, 1992); curriculum (Apple, 1990; Giroux, Penna & Pinar, 1981; Beyer & Apple, 1988; Pinar, 1988; Castenell & Pinar, 1993); feminist pedagogies (Ellsworth, 1989a; Lather, 1991; Luke & Gore, 1992); teacher education (Sprague, 1992); mass media/communications studies (Hardt, 1993); vocational-technical studies (Davis, 1991); research summaries about critical theory (Ewert, 1991); and research using methods of the critical sciences (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Grumet, 1992).

At least two publications attend in depth to Habermasian critical theory in education. Ewert (1991) has written a comprehensive analysis of the relationships of Habermasian critical theory to education, and in A Critical Theory of Education, Young (1990) tries to present a rather complete picture of Habermas's critical theory and its relations to education. Young says that critical theorists believe that extreme rationalization has

lent itself to the further development of an alienated culture of manipulation. In the science of education, this led to a view of pedagogy as manipulation, while curriculum was divided into

value-free subjects and value-based subjects where values were located decisionistically. The older view of pedagogy as a moral/ethical and practical art was abandoned (p. 20).

Young (1990) further points out that Habermas and other critical theorists believe that:

We are on the threshold of a learning level characterised by the personal maturity of the decentered ego and by open, reflexive communication which fosters democratic participation and responsibility for all. We fall short of this because of the one-sided development of our rational capacity for understanding (p. 23).

Another seminal thinker who is responsible for several notions of critical theory in education is Paulo Freire. Freire's work, especially Pedagogy of the Oppressed (Freire, 1969), has been very influential in critical-education circles:

Freire's project of democratic dialogue is attuned to the concrete operations of power (in and out of the classroom) and grounded in the painful yet empowering process of conscientization. This process embraces a critical demystifying moment in which structures of domination are laid bare and political engagement is imperative. This unique fusion of social theory, moral outrage, and political praxis constitutes a kind of pedagogical politics of conversation in which objects of history constitute themselves as active subjects of history* ready to make a fundamental difference in the quality of the lives they individually and collectively live. Freire's genius is to explicate ... and exemplify ... the dynamics of this process of how ordinary people can and do make history in how they think, feel, act, and love (West, 1993, p. xiii).

2.Critical Theory Changes

Of course, critical theories of education are changing. Bennett and LeCompte (1990) and Wexler (1988) have good reports of the histories of these changes. In Critical Theory and Educational Practice, Giroux (I 983a) looks at the work of earlier critical theorists and says they "did not develop a comprehensive theoretical approach for dealing with the patterns of conflict and contradictions that existed in various cultural spheres" (p. 33). He says they did not understand domination, American society, the working class, or the contradictory ways people view the world.

By 1991, Aronowitz and Giroux (1991) claim that Habermas sees postmodernism as "a threat to the foundations of democratic public life" (p. 61) and that, like its modernist predecessors, "Critical theory, left and right, bemoans 'the eclipse of reason,' the 'closing of the American mind,' the 'culture of narcissism'" (p. 136). In other words, Habermas is too deeply rationalist, if his theory of communicative action and its dependence on rational communication are any indications. This is ironic, considering that earlier critical theorists contested the Enlightenment's great beliefs in rationality!

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More recently, Fraser (1994) shows that Habermas's critical theory and conception of the public sphere (communicative action) prove inadequate for democracies in late capitalist societies. That is, critical theory should first

Render visible the ways in which social inequality taints deliberation within publics in late capitalist societies. Second, it should show how inequality affects relations among publics ... how publics are differentially. empowered or segmented, and how some are involuntarily enclaved and subordinated to others. Next, a critical theory should expose ways in which the labeling of some issues and interests as "private" limits the range of problems, and of approaches to problems, that can be widely contested in contemporary societies. Finally, our theory should show how the overly weak character of some public spheres in late capitalist societies denudes "public opinion" of practical force (p. 93).

As an intellectual movement postmodernism was born as a challenge to several modernist themes that were first articulated during the Enlightenment. These include scientific positivism, the inevitability of human progress, and the potential of human reason to address any essential truth of physical and social conditions and thereby make them amenable to rational control (Boyne and Rattansi 1990). The **primary tenets** of the postmodern movement include: (1) an elevation of text and language as the fundamental phenomena of existence, (2) the application of literary analysis to all phenomena, (3) a questioning of reality and representation, (4) a critique of metanarratives, (5) an argument against method and evaluation, (6) a focus upon power relations and hegemony, (7) and a general critique of Western institutions and knowledge (Kuznar 2008:78). For his part, Lawrence Kuznar labels postmodern anyone whose thinking includes most or all of these elements. Importantly, the term postmodernism refers to a broad range of artists, academic critics, philosophers, and social scientists that Christopher Butler (2003:2) has only half-jokingly alluded to as like "a loosely constituted and quarrelsome political party." The anthropologist Melford Spiro defines postmodernism thusly:

The postmodernist critique of science consists of two interrelated arguments, epistemological and ideological. Both are based on subjectivity. First, because of the subjectivity of the human object, anthropology, according to the epistemological argument cannot be a science; and in any event the subjectivity of the human subject precludes the possibility of science discovering objective truth. Second, since objectivity is an illusion, science according to the ideological argument, subverts oppressed groups, females, ethnics, third-world peoples. [Spiro 1996: 759]

Postmodernism has its **origins** as an eclectic social movement originating in aesthetics, architecture and philosophy (Bishop 1996). In architecture and art, fields which are distinguished as the oldest claimants to the name, postmodernism originated in the reaction against abstraction in painting and the International Style in architecture (Callinicos 1990: 101). However, postmodern thinking arguably began in the nineteenth century with Nietzsche's assertions regarding truth, language, and society, which opened the door for all later postmodern and late

modern critiques about the foundations of knowledge (Kuznar 2008: 78). Nietzsche asserted that truth was simply:

A mobile army of metaphors, metonyms, and anthropomorphisms – in short, a sum of human relations, which have been enhanced, transposed, and embellished poetically and rhetorically, and which after long use seem firm, canonical, and obligatory to a people: truths are illusions about which one has forgotten that this is what they are. [Nietzsche 1954: 46-47]

According to Kuznar, postmodernists trace this skepticism about truth and the resulting relativism it engenders from Nietzsche to Max Weber and Sigmund Freud, and finally to Jacques Derrida, Michel Foucault and other contemporary postmodernists (2008:78).

3.Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy is an educational version of postmodern critical theory (Kanpol, 1994). McLaren (1994a) says of it that:

Critical pedagogy poses a variety of important counterlogics to the positivistic, ahistorical, and depoliticized analysis employed by both liberal and conservative critics of schooling--an analysis all too readily visible in the training programs in our colleges of education. Fundamentally concerned with the centrality of politics and power in our understanding of bow schools work, critical theorists have produced work centering on the political economy of schooling, the state and education, the representation of texts, and the construction of student subjectivity (p. 167).

In researching the relationships between knowledge and power, thinkers like Apple and Giroux "attempt to develop an encompassing critical theory of education with resistance as its central theme" (Gibson, 1986, p. 59). Moreover, proponents of resistance desire a radical, hopeful, and action-oriented pedagogy. These qualities are evident in the writing of actors like Ira Shor (1986, 1987), in organizations such as The Goddard Institute on Teaching and Learning (Plainfield,. VT) and The National Coalition of Educational Activists (Rosendale, NY), and newpapers such as Rethinking Schools (Milwaukee, WI). Also, the works of Simon (1992) and Kanpol (1994) are notable here. McLaren (1994a) says of critical pedagogy that:

Teaching and learning should be a process of inquiry, of critique; it should also be a process of constructing, of building a social imagination that works within a language of hope. If teaching is cast in the form of . . . "a language of possibility," then a greater potential exists for making learning relevant, critical, and transformative. Knowledge is relevant only when it begins with the experiences students bring with them from the surrounding culture; it is critical only when these experiences are shown to sometimes be problematic (i.e., racist, sexist); and it is transformative only when students begin to use the knowledge to help empower others, including individuals in the surrounding community (p. 197).

4.Henry Giroux

Henry Giroux (born September 18, 1943) is an American and Canadian scholar and cultural critic. One of the founding theorists of critical pedagogy in the United States, he is best known for his pioneering work in public pedagogy, cultural studies, youth studies, higher education, media studies, and critical theory. In 2002 Routledge named Giroux as one of the top fifty educational thinkers of the modern period.

Crucially, Giroux has linked his attempts to transform pedagogy and education with the project of promoting radical democracy. Giroux's earlier work during the 1970s and 1980s focused on educational reform, pedagogy, and the transformation of education to promote radical democracy. In Border Crossings (1992), Giroux notes "a shift in both my politics and my theoretical work". The shift included incorporation of new theoretical discourses of poststructuralism and postmodernism, cultural studies, and the politics of identity and difference embodied in the new discourses of class, gender, race, and sexuality that proliferated in the post-1960s epoch. Giroux criticized those who ignore "the sea changes in social theory" within the field of education and called for a transformation of education and pedagogy in the light of the new paradigms, discourses, and practices that were circulating by the 1990s.

One of the key new discourses and practices that Giroux was henceforth to take up and develop involved the burgeoning discipline of cultural studies. In his initial appropriations of cultural studies, he presented his shift as a "border crossing" that involved transformative transdisciplinary perspectives which overcame the disciplinary abstractions and separations of fields like education, social theory, and literary studies. In metatheoretical discussions, Giroux presented reasons for the importance of cultural studies in reconstructing contemporary education, the need for new understandings of culture, cultural politics, and pedagogy that went beyond the orthodoxy of both Left and Right, focusing on how the transformation of education and pedagogy could contribute to the project of radical democracy. Giroux thus uses cultural studies to transform and enrich critical pedagogy and to provide new intellectual tools and practices to transform education. In turn, he argues that cultural studies needs to see the importance of pedagogy and to continue its commitment to radical democratic social transformation, rather than to merely indulge in textualist readings or audience studies of how people use and enjoy popular culture, as in some versions of cultural studies that have emerged in the past decade.

For over a decade now, Giroux has accordingly focused on developing the relationship between critical pedagogy, cultural studies, and radical democracy in a series of books, including Border Crossings (1992), Living Dangerously: Multiculturalism and the Politics of Culture (1993), Disturbing Pleasures: Learning Popular Culture (1994), Fugitive Cultures (1996), Channel Surfing: Racism, the Media, and the Destruction of Today's Youth (1997), The Mouse that Roared: What Disney Teaches (1999), Stealing Innocence (2000), and Impure Acts. The Practical Politics of Cultural Studies (2000). This rich and productive corpus crisscrosses the borderlines of educational theory and pedagogy, cultural studies, social theory, and radical democratic politics, promoting a genuinely transdisciplinary and transformative reconstruction of education, theory, society, and politics.

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6.Definitions of Care

Because it depends upon contextual considerations, care is notoriously difficult to define. As Ruddick points out, at least three distinct but overlapping meanings of care have emerged in recent decades—an ethic defined in opposition to justice, a kind of labor, and a particular relationship (1998, 4). However, in care ethical literature, 'care' is most often defined as a practice, value, disposition, or virtue, and is frequently portrayed as an overlapping set of concepts. For example, Held notes that care is a form of labor, but also an ideal that guides normative judgment and action, and she characterizes care as "clusters" of practices and values (2006, 36, 40). One of the most popular definitions of care, offered by Tronto and Bernice Fischer, construes care as "a species of activity that includes everything we do to maintain, contain, and repair our 'world' so that we can live in it as well as possible. That world includes our bodies, ourselves, and our environment". This definition posits care fundamentally as a practice, but Tronto further identifies four sub-elements of care that can be understood simultaneously as stages, virtuous dispositions, or goals. These sub-elements are: (1) attentiveness, a proclivity to become aware of need; (2) responsibility, a willingness to respond and take care of need; (3) competence, the skill of providing good and successful care; and (4) responsiveness, consideration of the position of others as they see it and recognition of the potential for abuse in care (1994, 126-136). Tronto's definition is praised for how it admits to cultural variation and extends care beyond family and domestic spheres, but it is also criticized for being overly broad, counting nearly every human activity as care.

Other definitions of care provide more precise delineations. Diemut Bubeck narrows the definitional scope of care by emphasizing personal interaction and dependency. She describes care as an emotional state, activity, or both, that is functional, and specifically involves "the meeting of needs of one person by another where face-to-face interaction between care and cared for is a crucial element of overall activity, and where the need is of such a nature that it cannot possibly be met by the person in need herself" (129). For example, both Maurice Hamington and Daniel Engster make room for self-care in their definitions of care, but focus more precisely on special bodily features and end goals of care (Hamington, 2004; Engster, 2007). Hamington focuses on embodiment, stating that: "care denotes an approach to personal and social morality that shifts ethical considerations to context, relationships, and affective knowledge in a manner that can only be fully understood if care's embodied dimension is recognized. Care is committed to flourishing and growth of individuals, yet acknowledges our interconnectedness and interdependence" (2004, 3). Engster develops a "basic needs" approach to care, defining care as a practice that includes "everything we do to help individuals to meet their vital biological needs, develop or maintain their basic capabilities, and avoid or alleviate unnecessary or unwanted pain and suffering, so that they can survive, develop, and function in society" (2007, 28). Although

care is often unpaid, interpersonal, and emotional work, Engster's definition does not exclude paid work or self-care, nor require the presence of affection or other emotion (32).

Alternatively, care is understood as a virtue or motive. James Rachels, Raja Halwani, and Margaret McLaren have argued for categorizing care ethics as a species of virtue ethics, with care as a central virtue (Rachels, 1999; McLaren, 2001; Halwani, 2003). The idea that that care is best understood as virtuous motives or communicative skills is endorsed by Michael Slote who equates care with a kind of motivational attitude of empathy, and by Selma Sevenhuijsen, who defines care as "styles of situated moral reasoning" that involves listening and responding to others on their own terms." (Slote, 2007; Sevenhuijsen, 1998, 85).

Some ethicists prefer to understand care as a practice more fundamental than a virtue or motive because doing so resists the tendency to romanticize care as a sentiment or dispositional trait, and reveals the breadth of caring activities as globally intertwined with virtually all aspects of life. As feminist ethicists, Kittay and Held like to understand care as a practice and value rather than as a virtue because it risks "losing site of it as work" (Held, 2006, 35). Held refutes that care is best understood as a disposition such as compassion or benevolence, but defines "care" as "more a characterization of a social relation than the description of an individual disposition."

Overall, care continues to be an essentially contested concept, containing ambiguities that Peta Bowden, finds advantageous, revealing "the complexity and diversity of the ethical possibilities of care"(1997, 183).

7.Relation to Other Theories

Care ethics originally developed as an alternative to the moral theories of Kantian deontology and Utilitarianism consequentialism, but it is thought to have affinities with numerous other moral theories, such as African ethics, David Hume's sentimentalism, Aristotelian virtue ethics, the phenomenology of Merleau-Ponty, Levinasian ethics, and Confucianism. The most pre-dominant of these comparisons has been between care ethics and virtue ethics, to the extent that care ethics is sometimes categorized as a form of virtue ethics, with care being a central virtue. The identification of caring virtues fuels the tendency to classify care ethics as a virtue ethic, although this system of classification is not universally endorsed.

Some theorists move to integrate care and virtue ethics for strategic reasons. Slote seeks to form an alliance against traditional "masculine" moral theories like Kantianism, utilitarianism, and social contract theory (Slote, 1998). He argues that, in so doing, care ethics receives a way of treating our obligations to people we don't know, without having to supplement it with more problematic theories of justice. McLaren posits that virtue theory provides a normative framework which care ethics lacks (McLaren, 2001). The perceived flaw in care ethics for both authors is a neglect of justice standards in how care is distributed and practiced, and a relegation

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of care to the private realm, which exacerbates the isolation and individualization of the burdens of care already prevalent in liberal societies. McLaren contends that virtue theory provides care ethics both with a standard of appropriateness and a normative framework: "The standard of appropriateness is the mean—a virtue is always the mean between two extremes…The normative framework stems from the definition of virtue as that which promotes human flourishing" (2001, 105). Feminist critics, however, resist this assimilation on the grounds that it may dilute the unique focus of care ethics (Held, 2006; Sander-Staudt, 2006). They are optimistic that feminist versions of care ethics can address the above concerns of justice, and doubt that virtue ethics provides the best normative framework.

Similar debates surround the comparison between care ethics and Confucianism. Philosophers note a number of similarities between care ethics and Confucian ethics, not least that both theories are often characterized as virtue ethics (Li, 1994, 2000; Lai Tao, 2000). Additional similarities are that both theories emphasize relationship as fundamental to being, eschew general principles, highlight the parent-child relation as paramount, view moral responses as properly graduated, and identify emotions such as empathy, compassion, and sensitivity as prerequisites for moral response. The most common comparison is between the concepts of care and the Confucian concept of *jen/ren*. *Ren* is often translated as love of humanity, or enlargement. Several authors argue that there is enough overlap between the concepts of care and *ren* to judge that care ethics and Confucian ethics are remarkably similar and compatible systems of thought (Li, 1994; Rosemont, 1997).

However, some philosophers object that it is better to view care ethics as distinct from Confucian ethics, because of their potentially incompatible aspects. Feminist care ethicists charge that a feminist care ethic is not compatible with the way Confucianism subordinates women. Ranjoo Seodu Herr locates the incompatibility as between the Confucian significance of *li*, or formal standards of ritual, and a feminist care ethics' resistance to subjugation (2003). For similar reasons, Lijun Yuan doubts that Confucian ethics can ever be acceptable to contemporary feminists, despite its similarity to care ethics. Daniel Star categorizes Confucian ethics as a virtue ethic, and distinguishes virtue ethics and care ethics as involving different biases in moral perception (2002). According to Star, care ethics differs from Confucian ethics in not needing to be bound with any particular tradition, in downgrading the importance of principles (versus merely noting that principles may be revised or suspended), and in rejecting hierarchical, role-based categories of relationship in favor of contextual and particular responses.

There are also refutations of the belief that care ethics is conceptually incompatible with the justice perspectives of Kantian deontology and liberal human rights theory. Care ethicists dispute the inference that because care and justice have evolved as distinct practices and ideals, that they are incompatible. Some deny that Kantianism is as staunchly principled and rationalistic as often portrayed, and affirm that care ethics is compatible with Kantian deontology because it relies upon a universal injunction to care, and requires a principle of caring obligation. An adaptation

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of the Kantian categorical imperative can be used to ground the obligation to care in the universal necessity of care, and the inconsistency of willing a world without intent to care. Other theorists compare the compatibility between care ethics and concepts of central importance to a Kantian liberal tradition. Thus, Grace Clement argues that an ideal of individual autonomy is required by normative ideals of care, in the sense that care-givers ideally consent to and retain some degree of autonomy in caring relations, and also ideally foster the autonomy of care-receivers (Clement, 1996). Mona Harrington explores the significance of the liberal ideal of equality to care ethics by tracing how women's inequality is linked to the low social valuing and provision of care work (Harrington, 2000). Other ways that Kantianism is thought to benefit care ethics is by serving as a supplementary check to caring practice, (denouncing caring relations that use others as mere means), and by providing a rhetorical vehicle for establishing care as a right.

8.Nel Noddings

Nel Noddings was born in 1929 and has worked in nearly every aspect of teaching, from elementary to secondary to post-secondary education. Along with her experience in the classroom, Noddings has also served as an administrator and a curriculum developer for public schools. She has written thirteen books and some two hundred articles. Noddings received her bachelor's degree in mathematics and physical science from Montclair State College, her master's degree in mathematics from Rutgers University, and her doctorate in educational philosophy from Stanford University. Some of her accomplishments include awards for teaching excellence and positions as Stanford's Dean of Education, Eastern Michigan University's Chair of Urban Education, president of the Philosophy of Education Society, and president of the John Dewey Society. Nel Noddings has been married for fifty-eight years and has ten children.

In 1984 Noddings published *Caring*, in which she developed the idea of care as a feminine ethic, and applied it to the practice of moral education. Starting from the presumption that women "enter the practical domain of moral action…through a different door", she ascribed to feminine ethics a preference for face-to face moral deliberation that occurs in real time, and appreciation of the uniqueness of each caring relationship. Drawing conceptually from a maternal perspective, Noddings understood caring relationships to be basic to human existence and consciousness. She identified two parties in a caring relationship—"one-caring" and the "cared-for"—and affirmed that both parties have some form of obligation to care reciprocally and meet the other morally, although not in the same manner. She characterized caring as an act of "engrossment" whereby the one-caring receives the cared-for on their own terms, resisting projection of the self onto the cared-for, and displacing selfish motives in order to act on the behalf of the cared-for. Noddings located the origin of ethical action in two motives, the human affective response that is a natural caring sentiment, and the memory of being cared-for that gives rise to an ideal self. Noddings rejected universal principles for prescribed action and judgment, arguing that care must always be contextually applied.

Noddings identified two stages of caring, "caring-for" and "caring-about". The former stage refers to actual hands-on application of caring services, and the latter to a state of being whereby one nurtures caring ideas or intentions. She further argued that the scope of caring obligation is limited. This scope of caring is strongest towards others who are capable of reciprocal relationship. The caring obligation is conceived of as moving outward in concentric circles so enlarged care is increasingly characterized by a diminished ability for particularity and contextual judgment, which prompted Noddings to speculate that it is impossible to care-for everyone. She maintained that while the one-caring has an obligation to care-for proximate humans and animals to the extent that they are needy and able to respond to offerings of care, there is a lesser obligation to care for distant others if there is no hope that care will be completed. These claims proved to be highly controversial, and Noddings later revised them somewhat. In her more recent book *Starting From Home*, Noddings endorsed a stronger obligation to care about distant humans, and affirms caring-about as an important motivational stage for inspiring local and global justice, but continued to hold that it is impossible to care-for all, especially distant others.

IV. Conclusion:

Critical theory is a school of thought that stresses the reflective assessment and critique of society and culture by applying knowledge from the social sciences and the humanities. As a term, critical theory has two meanings with different origins and histories: the first originated in sociology and the second originated in literary criticism, whereby it is used and applied as an umbrella term that can describe a theory founded upon critique; thus, the theorist Max Horkheimer described a theory as critical insofar as it seeks "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them.

In sociology and political philosophy, the term critical theory describes the neo-Marxist philosophy of the Frankfurt School, which was developed in Germany in the 1930s. Frankfurt theorists drew on the critical methods of Karl Marx and Sigmund Freud. Critical theory maintains that ideology is the principal obstacle to human liberation. Critical theory was established as a school of thought primarily by five Frankfurt School theoreticians: Herbert Marcuse, Theodor Adorno, Max Horkheimer, Walter Benjamin, and Erich Fromm. Modern critical theory has additionally been influenced by György Lukács and Antonio Gramsci, as well as the second generation Frankfurt School scholars, notably Jürgen Habermas. In Habermas's work, critical theory transcended its theoretical roots in German idealism, and progressed closer to American pragmatism. Concern for social "base and superstructure" is one of the remaining Marxist philosophical concepts in much of the contemporary critical theory.

While critical theorists have been frequently defined as Marxist intellectuals, their tendency to denounce some Marxist concepts and to combine Marxian analysis with other sociological and philosophical traditions has resulted in accusations of revisionism by Classical, Orthodox, and

Analytical Marxists, and by Marxist-Leninist philosophers. Martin Jay has stated that the first generation of critical theory is best understood as not promoting a specific philosophical agenda or a specific ideology, but as "a gadfly of other systems".

According to Henry Giroux critical pedagogy emerged out of long series of educational struggles that extend from the work of Paulo Freire in Brazil to the work on critical pedagogy advanced by myself and Roger Simon, David Livingstone, and later Joe Kincheloe in the 1970s and 1980s. Critical pedagogy is a movement and an ongoing struggle taking place in a number of different social formations and places. To argue that there is such a thing as "the father of critical pedagogy" devalues those struggles and the collective efforts that have been made to develop and build upon the diverse archives that make up critical pedagogy in all of its different formations. As Roger Simon once pointed out, the attempt to define a set of "founding fathers" for critical pedagogy suggests that "an authentic version could somehow be found in a patriarchal vanishing point."

The ethics of care is a normative ethical theory that holds interpersonal relationships and care or benevolence as a virtue as central to moral action. It is one of a cluster of normative ethical theories that were developed by feminists in the second half of the twentieth century. While consequentialist and deontological ethical theories emphasize universal standards and impartiality, ethics of care emphasize the importance of response. The shift in moral perspective is manifested by a change in the moral question from "what is just?" to "how to respond?". Ethics of care criticize application of universal standards as "morally problematic, since it breeds moral blindness or indifference."

Some beliefs of the theory are basic:

1. Persons are understood to have varying degrees of dependence and interdependence on one another. This is in contrast to deontological and consequentialist theories that tend to view persons as having independent interests and interactions.
2. Those particularly vulnerable to one's choices and their outcomes deserve extra consideration to be measured according to their vulnerability to one's choices.
3. It is necessary to attend to contextual details of situations in order to safeguard and promote the actual specific interests of those involved.(Wiki pedia)

Noddings identified two stages of caring, "caring-for" and "caring-about". The former stage refers to actual hands-on application of caring services, and the latter to a state of being whereby one nurtures caring ideas or intentions. She further argued that the scope of caring obligation is limited. This scope of caring is strongest towards others who are capable of reciprocal relationship. The caring obligation is conceived of as moving outward in concentric circles so enlarged care is increasingly characterized by a diminished ability for particularity and contextual judgment, which prompted Noddings to speculate that it is impossible to care-for everyone. She maintained that while the one-caring has an obligation to care-for proximate humans and animals to the extent that they are needy and able to respond to offerings of

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A Reflection on Structural Change in Iranian Education System and its Effects on Schools' Context

Seyed Ahmad Madani[*]

Abstract

Assistant Professor of Department of Education, Faculty of Humanities, University of Kashan, Kashan, Iran. Email: madani@kashanu.ac.ir

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Iranian public education system had an indigested structural change in recent decade that is very informative for educational experts, because of its unpredicted operational challenges and unwanted outcomes. The main obvious challenges were in the fields such as teachers' allocation, schools' combination, and problems in developing appropriate curriculum for new school grades. In this article the hidden aspects of this structural changes were examined with regard to psychological and contextual factors in Iranian elementary schools and classrooms. It seems that in analyzing the structure or grade-span configuration of education system, we should contemplate on invisible and uncertain aspects of the structural change and broaden our understanding of its impact on student academic achievement. The overall guiding research question for this study is the following: Does grade-span configuration influence adolescent learners in dimensions other than academic achievement? The positive answer to this question and a couple of contemplative questions are presented and explained.

Key Words: Structural Change, Grade-Span Configuration, School Context, Transition.

Introduction

Iranian education system is struggling with predictable and unpredictable results of a revolutionary change. This change was replacing 5-3-4 grade-span configuration with a well-known 6-3-3 that is established structure of some European education systems (Horner, Dobert, Reuter, & Von Kopp, 2015). The debate on grade-span configuration has an eighty years' history. Over the decades, educational researchers have examined many aspects of school organizations to determine what effective schools look like (Lee, 2013). In a classic article, Miller (1939) believed that factors such as school organization or structural composition has peripheral effect and classroom teaching is the essential and vital role in developing children. Later, Mills & Estes (1958) reported the findings of Cattell's unpublished research on the school principals. In that research Cattell found that school principals advocating from 6-3-3 grade-span, because of students' physical comfort, quality of academic program, and administrative cohesiveness. Spreading middle school in 1960 treated as the main educational achievement of that time (Brod, 1966), and during the three decades, the establishment of middle school increased to 55 percent (Hough, 2005). Today, after a couple of continued research in this field, it's revealed that the structural change has different outcomes (Brown, 2004). Holmlund & Böhlmark (2019) cautiously concluded from their analyses that "school organization matters and has consequences for pupils" and they reiterated that in the context of Swedish education system there is "no long-run adverse effects in terms of educational attainment, but a gain in terms of lower travel distances to schools" (p, 21). But it's necessary to point out the contradictory nature of findings and explanations over the past decades. For example, some researchers such as Eccles, Lord & Midgley (1991) believed that these structural shifts are not the appropriate approach for creating optimal environments for early adolescents and argued "what is critical is the nature of the school environment— not the grade-span configuration or the timing of the transition" (p, 539).

It has to be said that early researches were focused on students' academic achievement and researchers hypothesized that factors such as school transition and grades composition in a school have significant influences on students' academic success. For example, Coladarei & Hancock (2002) reported that middle school students' performance is better than students in wide grade-span configuration schools.

Because the intellectual, social, physical, and emotional needs of early adolescents are different from either elementary or high school aged students, many believe that a unique educational program -middle school- is necessary (Warthan, 2011).

The recent interest in K-8 schools as the most effective grade configuration for educating early adolescents is due to many factors. The K-8 school offers students the opportunity to attend the same school through grade eight and helps to minimize the negative impact of transitioning from elementary to middle school. This opportunity enables students and parents to develop long-term bonds with teachers, staff, and other families. K-8 schools also provide older students with the opportunity to serve as role models or mentors to younger students (Warthan, 2011).

Findings of Hong, Zimmer & Engberg (2002) are in favor of k-8 schools. Nelson (2013) too reported that K-8 schools outperformed their 6-8 counterparts when comparing mean scores. For students with special needs, he believed, the effects of grades configuration are wider and more significant. In a meta-analysis, Yecke (2005) found that students of k-8 schools were more successful than the students' of other types of schools according to standardized test scores.

It is certainly the case that transition from one grade to the other one has multiple outcomes, but the types and nature of this outcomes are correlated to context and culture of educational environment (Renchler, 2002). In 6-3-3 grade-span, the transition from elementary to secondary is very sensitive because of its concurrency with many students' puberty. Eccles et al (1993a) provided evidence of the negative effects of the decrease in personal and positive relationship with teachers after the transition to junior high school. They concluded from different studies that "the first year of junior high school is characterized by a decrease in the emphasis on higher level thinking skills at a time when cognitive development would suggest the need for more complex academic tasks" (98-99). The concise explanation of Simmons & Blyth (1987) is that in middle school transition, children have to adjust with two type of changes: changes due to puberty and changes due to school replacement.

After examining the relationship between school transition at a specific point and children's achievement, Carolan (2013) realized that "there is no evidence that the transition to a Grade 5 destination school has a negative effect on mathematics, reading, or science achievement", but "the transition is associated with a significant positive effect on science achievement" (p, 379). It should be noted that different parameters are related to outcomes of transition, such as the nature of young children imprinting, the experience and skills of the staff, and the school size (Renchler, 2002). Regardless of available experimental studies about negative effects of transition on students' achievement (Anderman, 2002; Coladarei & Hancock, 2002), other researches had diverse focal points of research. Seidman et al (1994) observed that "movement from elementary to middle/junior high school was associated not only with a decline in extracurricular participation but also with a decline in the perception of support from school

personnel and an increase in the daily hassles experienced in school" (p, 518). In contrary with Eccles et al, Seidman et al declared that after the transition, there is an increase in academic and social efficacy expectations. In a classic study, Simmons, Brown, Mitsch & Blyth (1978) measured the self-esteem and academic achievement of early adolescents as they move from sixth to seventh grade and realized that girls demonstrate lower self-esteem than boys. Epstein & Karweit (1983) explained the vulnerability of girls based on their value systems and social relationship in period of puberty.

In addition, the problem of transition is very important because the perspectives of teachers and school staff and their interpersonal relationships with students may be affected by cultural stereotypes. Midgley, Feldlaufer & Eccles (1988) warned about dealing students with stereotypical inclinations and perceptions.

Bedard & Do (2005) found substantial evidence that middle school systems have lower on-time high school completion rates and concluded that that "middle schools are failing less able students-the group they were supposed to help the most" (p, 681).

Analyzing the Situation

Assuming that any structural change may conduce many opportunities and threats, it seems that one of the most vital dimensions of transition in new structure of Iranian education system is concurrency of transition and student's puberty. It appears that experts of ministry of education ignored a couple of related factors such as single-sex classrooms and schools, school size, and student-teacher ratios both in elementary and middle levels. There are many unexamined questions and challenges about psychological and academic conditions of students from first to sixth graders. For example, after the implementation of 6-3-3 structure, is there a significant increase in bulling and aggressive behaviors in elementary schools? In other words, has the existence of sixth grade students in elementary schools led to higher bullying and aggressive behaviors? In a study Madani, TamanaeeFar, & Falahi (2018) found that the first grade boys and girls along with the sixth grade boys in K-3 schools had better academic achievement in comparison to their peers in K-6 schools. The academic achievement of the sixth grade girls in two level schools, however, is significantly higher than their peers in one level schools. But, one of most insightful findings of this researchers were that the proximity of sixth graders to first graders affects boy's schools and girl's schools differently with respect to bullying and violent behaviors. In fact, six-grader boys were found to perpetrate more physical and psychological harassments on first graders compared to the female ones. Concerning the fact that the global rate of students' victimization is decreasing (Snyder, De Brey & Dillow, 2016), serious attention needs to be taken to the consequences of structural change in terms of bullying, aggression, and other contextual factors in schools and classrooms. It should be considered that "junior high school" has existed in the education system in Iran before the system reform, and "junior high school" is still supported by some researchers and research findings.

Junior high school was excluded from the education system in Iran, despite the fact that there was no concrete evidence to suggest the necessity of this change in structure. It should be noted that junior high school still has its own proponents. Proponents of middle schools have

continually argued for the holistic implementation of all of its six key characteristics if its benefits are to be realized. These characteristics include a challenging, integrative, and exploratory curriculum; varied teaching and learning approaches; assessment and evaluation that promote learning; flexible organizational structures; programs and policies that foster health, wellness and safety; and comprehensive guidance and support services (Ellerbrock, Main, Falbe, & Franz, 2018).

There appears to be good reasons for McEwin, Dickinson & Jenkins (1996) to recommend that "grade organization decisions should be driven by the developmental characteristics, needs, and interests of young adolescents rather than by expediency. Middle schools should house grades 5-8 or 6-8 "(p, 131). Furthermore, Wihry, Coladarci & Meadow (1992) "strongly" suggest that the grade-span configuration in which the eighth grade is located influences student achievement. They restate that "the elementary setting appeared to be the most favorable location for eighth grades" (p, 68).

McEwin, Dickinson & Jenkins (1996) concluded in their state report that "Separately organized middle schools where professional personnel focus directly and exclusively on the needs, interests, and characteristics of young adolescents should continue to be established" (133). With regard to the evidences mentioned above, considerable amounts of credible research findings seem to have been ignored while excluding middle school from the education system.

Conclusion

Making structural changes, undoubtedly, imposes heavy charges on any education system, and upsets the balance of personnel in many of its parts. Nevertheless, there are three crucial points which are neither related to the charges nor concerned with human resources. Firstly, the structural change in Iran's general education occurred while related theoretical and empirical evidence was rather controversial. Renchler (2002), for instance, stated higher graders have better academic performance in the structures in which the students of lower grades are in schools. Wihry, Coladarci, & Meadow (1992), however, conceived that elementary schools are more appropriate even for eight graders.

Secondly, structural change alters schools and classrooms context. As a result, teachers and administrators should act in accordance with the new situation in order to adjust educational approaches. There exists concrete evidence concerning the consequences of structural change, particularly from the perspective of transition. As an example, Simmons & Blyth (1987) found out that those girls who study in k-8 elementary schools, have a less challenging transition to high school in comparison to the girls who have experienced other grade-span configurations.

Ordinarily, being in the sixth grade, transition to a new school can be harmful to the student (Thornburg & Jones, 1982). Transition to a new level while experiencing puberty can be harmful specially to the girls (Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Finally, the number of transitions a student has experienced affect his or her current level of adjustment. These transitions have such an effect that some reports suggest the shift of some junior high school grades to K-8 elementary schools (Anfara & Buehler, 1987).

It is important to note that, for many young adolescents the transition from the elementary school to the middle school means great changes in the number of peers and adults they interact with daily; how the curriculum and the lessens is conceptualized, organized, and delivered; and the programs and extracurricular activities available to students. The use of multiple simultaneous paths of articulation on the part of middle schools is an effort to insure that multiple target audiences -teachers, parents, and students as well as curriculum and programs will be impacted (McEwin, Dickinson & Jenkins, 1996).

Thirdly, piles of research must be conducted to recognize the most appropriate structure for the educational lives of elementary students. Research, also, must be carried out in order to find out whether, in the educational system in Iran, 1-6 grade elementary students should study together in one single building or they should be in separate buildings. Obviously, it would have been better to consider these points, well prior to changing the educational structure.

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Perceptions of ELT Student Teachers and Pre-Service Teachers at Farhangian University towards Including Students With Disabilities in Regular EFL Classes

Mojtaba Maghsoudi (corresponding author)

Assistant Professor, Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

Email: maghsudi@cfu.ac.ir

Masoume Ahmadi

Lecturer, Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

Email: masoume.n.ahmadi@gmail.com

Samansa Azadegan

Gofteman Languages Institute, Arak, Iran

Email: saman.azadegan@yahoo.com

Many individuals are now being engaged with a growing concern voicing the need for learners with disabilities to have equal chance to be eligible members of the regular education and least segregated from their learner counterparts since such an inclusive education is well-documented to be effective, bringing learners some social, academic, behavioral achievements. The present study aimed to examine the attitudes and perceptions of ELT student teachers and pre-service teachers at Farhangian University towards inclusive education of students with disabilities. Furthermore, the study established the correlation between these perceptions and gender. The research sample encompassed 200 male and female ELT student teachers and pre-service teachers at Farhangian University. Quantitative and qualitative data were extracted from the Opinions Relative to Integration of Students with Disabilities Scale (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995) and interviews. The preliminary results revealed the participants' neutral perceptions towards inclusion of disabled students in regular English language classrooms. From the perspective of these teachers, the greatest benefits and challenges of teaching English language to students with disabilities alongside their non-disabled peers in regular classes are thoroughly discussed. The study is concluded with some implications and recommendations for future research.

Key words: Perception, Inclusion, Inclusive education, Students with disabilities

Introduction

Fast-paced advances of technology innovations have dramatically transformed the world during the past decades; thus, the basic requirements of education have been consequently changed. In a similar vein, more individuals than ever before are learning English language as an international language of education and business. In this context, our mission, as English language teachers, is to promote learning and support education and professional development for our students. In this regard, we need to support EFL learners pursue their dreams of higher education or obtain a good job in English-speaking workplaces. Considering students with disabilities, however, they are facing some barriers such as lack of appropriate instructional materials, low expectations, lack of encouragement (Green, 2014), and social isolation (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996). In other words, irrespective of such a fast-paced expansion of English language, students with disabilities have been left out of the conversation and a fewer number of learners with disabilities can manage to continue their studies and reach their educational goals (Burgstahler & Doyle, 2005).

On the other hand, there are poor teacher preparation programs for EFL teachers to prepare their students for their education in order for them to reach the milestones and greater achievements in the field of English language learning. The likelihood of success enhances for learners with special needs when they participate in supportive educational settings and work with teachers recognizing their potential contributions, not merely zooming their disabilities. Hence, the need for teacher preparation programs nurturing positive attitudes among EFL teachers and providing them with practices and strategies to promote the achievements for students with disabilities in English language fields is highlighted.

While the academic community has extensively explored special education (Skidmore, 1996), previous works have failed to address inclusion in an EFL context. Within the context of Iran, the majority of

individuals with any kind of severe impairments are included in regular English classes. Accordingly, EFL teachers are not empowered to disallow learners with disabilities in their regular classes; this makes the field a rich one for research. Relevantly, the teaching processes involved in such an inclusive setting has not been dealt with in depth. Despite this interest, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no one with the exception of Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh (in press) has studied special-need learners participating in Iran's EFL classrooms. These Iranian authors explored EFL inclusive practices adopted by EFL teachers for learners suffering from low-incidence disabilities in inclusive classes; however, the aim of the present work was to broaden current knowledge of inclusion of disabled students in regular EFL classes held in schools through examining EFL instructors' inclusive attitudes and perceptions. This might contribute to resolving one of the major barriers to the successful implementation of inclusion in our country. That is, due to the fact that this specific area has been neglected, Iranian EFL teachers have never received adequate training to be well-prepared for one's role as the instructors of learners with special needs.

Review of the Literature

In each educational system, teachers have the most salient impacts on learners. A great deal is known about learners' expectations from their teachers and the positive influence of high quality teaching on their achievement, development, and success in educational settings (Wentzel, 2009). Much less is, however, revealed about what teachers, especially inclusive teachers, required to offer high quality teaching to their leaners. Negative factors affecting teachers' decisions may eventually erode teachers' engagement and willingness to teaching, undermine their potentials to meet learners' needs and eventually lead to low-quality teaching. This becomes more aggravated when there are learners with disabilities are included in the classes and teachers are also obliged to deal with such a diversity. As a result, it is imperative to recognize what makes teachers have the most influential inclusive practices at dealing with learners' demands and challenges.

As educational systems become more inclusively oriented, not only the role of teachers changes but also inclusive teaching approaches become more prominent (Spies & Cheatham, 2018). In line with the proclaimed principle of inclusion, there has been an ongoing attempt to provide quality education to learners with special needs, particularly in the field of ELT (Bakken & Obiakor, 2018; Bradford & Loreman, 2018; Carew, Deluca, Groce, & Kett, 2018; Chen & Saulter, 2018; More, Spies, Morgan, & Baker, 2016; Mosquera, Cárdenas, & Nieto, 2018).

Schools and teachers have been committed to detect and meet the needs of all learners regardless of their individual differences and disabilities. To positively respond to students' educational needs in inclusive settings, the grounds for further improvement of inclusive policies and practices should be paved and necessary adjustments should also be adopted to promote positive attitudes toward diversity.

Mittler (2003) claimed that the major barrier to the successful implementation of inclusive education worldwide was teachers' negative perceptions and attitudes toward inclusion. This claim was supported by a large number of other researchers (e.g., Avramadis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000; De Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2011). The teacher-student positive relationship is vital in directing the learners with disabilities develop their own potential; however, they are vulnerable to the negative effects of negative

beliefs and attitudes toward abilities, hold by teachers (Hart et al., 2007). Teachers' perception and attitudes affect the way they conceptualize effective teaching and educational opportunities of learners.

"Attitudes and beliefs are a subset of a group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person's actions" (Richardson, 1996; p. 102). Wittenbrink and Schwarz (2007) regarded attitudes as "enduring structures in long-term memory" (p. 266). Perception also refers to a cognitive process affecting all senses including sight, touch, taste, smell, and hearing. Many studies have been carried out to detect the factors influencing teachers' attitudes toward inclusion and their eventual engagement in inclusive curriculums. Gourneau (2005) asserted that the teachers' attitudes and actions would have positive/negative impacts on the lives of their pupils and that positive attitudes and effective actions contain teachers' genuine caring and kindness, willingness to share commitments, sincere sensitivity to diversity, encouragement to provide all learners with meaningful learning experiences, and enthusiasm to promote their creativity. To conclude, how teachers think influence what and what does not occur in their classroom. As Shade and Stewart (2001) pointed out, teachers' abilities in meeting the needs of learners with disabilities are reflected in their attitudes toward inclusion as positive attitudes toward their profession, classes, and learners can promote educational achievement in their classroom, build *strong teacher-student* rapport, and promote learning. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) articulated that teachers are inclined to be positive with regard to inclusiveness of learners with disabilities while consistently reporting its implementation as problematic. De Boer et al. (2011) in their review suggested that teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of learners with special needs in mainstream classes may better be specified as neutral or even negative. In reviewing 26 articles, they found no study reporting positive attitudes.

Previous research has introduced several factors affecting teachers' perceptions of inclusion (Jones, Ouellette-Kuntz, Vilela, & Brown, 2008). Antonak and Larrivee (1995) showed that there is a significant correlation between teachers' perceptions, as the most critical factor determining the success of an inclusion curriculum, and the amount of support provided in inclusive classes. Another factor associated with teachers' perception is training courses or materials introducing instructional strategies, management, use of technology, and knowledge and skills to work with disabled students in inclusive classes. Teachers require comprehensive and intensive training to be prepared for teaching inclusively (Bruns & Mogharpban, 2007; Ernst & Rogers, 2009; Leatherman, 2007). More relevantly, Sharma, Formin, and Loreman (2008) highlighted the critical role the content and the pedagogy of teacher preparation programs play in determining teachers' perceptions of inclusion. A number of other studies found the following variables affecting teachers' perceptions: Administrative support (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2001), instructional strategies (Van Reusen, Shoho, & Barker, 2001), involvement of additional people or personnel resources (Smith & Smith, 2000), policy and disability awareness (DeSimone & Parmar, 2006), availability of material resources (Ernst & Rogers, 2009), collaboration (Carter & Hughes, 2006; Lusk, Thompson, & Daane, 2007; Thomas, Correa, & Morsink, 2001; Wolpert, 2001), time and teaching experience (Brady & Woolfson, 2008), grade (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002), level of knowledge (Forlin, Loreman, Sharma, & Earle, 2009), demographics including gender and age (Jobe, Rust, & Brissie, 1996), severity of disability (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996), and teachers' work load (Kavale & Forness, 2000).

Gavish (2017) examined the teachers' perceptions of their status and role in implementing inclusion of special-need students in general classrooms. To this end, 34 inclusive supportive teachers from 24 elementary and 10 secondary public schools were interviewed on the subject of work environments,

interaction with staff members, students and their parents, teaching methods as well as teachers' status in the school. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and the teachers' attitudes were placed along two axes (namely their perception of their status in school space and their perception of the nature and range of responsibilities). Accordingly, Gavish discerned four profiles of teachers representing their perceived roles: (a) Teachers lacking place," as they focus on defending students with special needs: They felt they and their students with special needs were not welcomed in the regular classes and were considered as nuisance in a general classroom since they sensed both full absence of collaboration and support from the school administrators. They also asserted the general teachers' negative attitudes toward them and their students and attributed such a negative viewpoint to their lack of relevant knowledge regarding special-need learners. To sum, these teachers felt that they and their students have no place in general classrooms so they obliged themselves to exclusively safeguard and advance their special-need learners; (b) Teachers "on probation" in the general classroom as they assume their major goal is to prepare special-need students for integration: These teachers also see some obstacles isolating them and their students; however, they try to have some collaboration with general teachers; (c) Teachers filling a "solo" position on the inclusion hierarchy as they aim at supervising the "inclusionary space" of their students: These teachers assumed that the general teachers were to address the special-need students' requirements while perceiving the inclusive special teachers as experts and seeking for their assistance. They thus consider themselves as guides and supervisors at the top of the school hierarchical organization; (d) Teachers enjoying a central leadership position in inclusive education in conjunction with all faculty members: They see themselves in charge of providing education for all students. They do not regard themselves as the ones supervising a team but as a part of the team leading the progress process. They are contributing to the education process as a knowledge source providing some solutions for the special-need students' problems.

Consequently, teachers leave an indelible influence on their learners. In spite of attempts made to promote inclusive education, situations generating inequality have still remained. To achieve a fair inclusion education, the factors impeding equality in education should be unfolded and the benefits of inclusion should be communicated. To gain valuable insights into inclusive classroom dynamics and practice, teachers' attitudes and perceptions has been extensively researched over the recent years and the need for professional development of teachers to encourage positive attitudes and efficacy toward inclusion has been highlighted (Kosko & Wilkins, 2009; Praisner, 2003; Schmidt & Ksenija, 2015; Whitaker, 2011; to name a few).

Research Questions

Four research questions were posed in this study:

(1) What is EFL teachers' perception towards the integration of students with disabilities in regular English language classes?

(2) Is there any differences between ELT student teachers and pre-service teachers at Farhangian University regarding their perceptions towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular EFL classes?

(3) what differences exist between male and female teachers' perceptions towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular EFL classes?

Methods

Using mixed-method design, this study elucidated the perceptions of ELT student teachers and pre-service teachers at Farhangian University towards inclusive education of students with disabilities. Data collection was facilitated through the *Opinions Relative to Integration Scale* (ORI) developed by Antonak and Larrivee (1995). This scale is the revised version of the *Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming scale* (Larrivee and Cook, 1979) scale and a questionnaire routinely used by researchers examinining teachers' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs toward the practice of inclusion (Dedrick et al., 2007; Dupoux et al., 2005; Jobe et al., 1996; Leyser & Tappendorf, 1999). An item analysis run by Antonak and Larrivee (1995) showed that the Spearman-Brown corrected split-half reliability estimate for this questionnaire was 0.82 and Cronbach's coefficient alpha homogeneity coefficient was 0.83. Four factors addressed in this scale are: (1) benefits of inclusion, (2) inclusive classroom management, (3) perceived ability to teach students with disabilities, and (4) special education versus inclusive general education. The ORI asks participants to express their agreement with each statement on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "I disagree very much" to "I agree very much".

In order to score the ORI, the exact scoring procedure was adopted (See Appendix B). This questionnaire contains 25 items, twelve items of which are negatively worded (i.e., disagree responses represented a favorable attitude). To score the responses and to prevent an acquiescent-response-style threat, the 12 items which were negatively worded were first positively scored by reversing the sign of these items. Then, the 25 item responses were summed and a constant of 75 was added to the total to eliminate negative scores (since there are 25 items and if each item is scored -3, then the sum will be -75). The maximum and minimum scores obtained for the scale are 0 and 150, respectively. The higher the scores in these aspects are, the more favorable the perceptions and attitudes toward the inclusion of learners with physical disabilities in classroom are. Furthermore, the questionnaires with omitted responses to four or more items were omitted and were not scored. The same scoring approach was adopted for the four subscales.

In the next phase, 23 participants who answered the questionnaires were randomly selected and took part in semi-structured interviews in order to triangulate the findings. The interview questions formulated according to thorough reviews of the literature. The interviewees could answer the questions using their own native language in order to control the effect of fluency/accuracy. The mean length of interviews in this study was about 25 minutes.

Following the interviews, they were transcribed by the researchers and the transcriptions were coded. Then each transcript was sent back to the interviewees to make any changes in the case of necessity and to ensure the validity of the interviews to be used for further processes. Finally, the main themes were extracted using open and axial coding. Cases of controversy were discussed until an agreement was achieved. Inferential and descriptive statistics were also used to describe the quantitative findings.

Results

In the present study, 200 EFL teachers (124 student teachers and 76 pre-service teachers) completed the questionnaires, of whom 98 persons were male and 102 persons were female. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 36 years, with the mean age of 27.3. With regard to teaching experience, some of them (33%) had the experience of teaching English language in private language institutes and none of them had experienced teaching classes including learners with disabilities. The student teachers were pursuing their education at Farhangian University, preservice teachers were taking a one-year teacher preparation course at this university as they were graduates and undergraduates from other universities.

To answer the first research question 'what are EFL teachers' perception towards the integration of students with disabilities in regular English language classes?', the ORI scores were calculated for both groups of teachers.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of ORI Scores for EFL Teachers' Perception Toward Inclusion of Learners with Physical Disabilities

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	*Mean*	*SD*	*Total score*	*ORI*
Student teachers	124	76.00	46.00	132.00	78.29	14.05	16750	
Preservice teachers	76	68.00	49.00	127.03	68.53	12.34	12899	
Total	200							

As shown in Table 1, total attitude scores of student and preservice teachers towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in inclusive classes are 16750 and 12899, respectively. The minimum and maximum ORI scores of the student teachers were 46 and 132 while the preservice teachers obtained minimum and maximum ORI scores of 49 and 127. Regarding the options for all the participants, the lowest and the highest scores were 33.00 (I totally disagree) and 92.00 (I totally agree), suggesting that there are teachers holding totally positive and totally negative attitudes; however, the mean score of the options was much closer to the option 'I am undecided', suggesting that a majority of EFL teachers are undecided towards including students with disabilities in regular English language classes. In other words, the participant teachers hold a neutral perception of inclusion because, as they self-reported, they had concerns about their teaching skills, classroom management difficulties, additional burden of the presence of disabled students, non-disabled students in inclusive class. They also asserted that they had no acceptable command of inclusive teaching practices and strategies. They, hence, cannot implement inclusive education successfully as long as they are not well-trained for inclusive classes and become cognizant of their own abilities and the disabled students' individual differences and needs. The teachers should also receive additional training regarding effective inclusion, benefits of inclusion, and the

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challenges of managing inclusive classes.

To find out whether any difference exists between ELT student teachers and pre-service teachers at Farhangian University regarding their perceptions towards including students with disabilities in regular EFL classes, a comparison of the mean ORI scores obtained for the two groups revealed no significant difference (t=3. 56, p=0.000). Despite the fact that both groups of teachers hold neutral perceptions towards inclusion, the participant teachers differed regarding their perceptions toward the inclusion of the disabled students. It was revealed that the female teachers hold more positive perceptions towards inclusion (t=2.326, p<0.05).

Discussion

Nowadays, an ever-increasing number of disabled and non-disabled individuals are educated together in a variety of places, including universities, schools, and other educational settings; however, a growing number of studies have called for further research on inclusion or teaching learners with disabilities in mainstream classes to let learners with disabilities have equal chance to be eligible members of the mainstream education and not be segregated from their learner counterparts (Davis & Braun, 2010). As rightfully accepted, they "have the same rights as others in the community to achieve maximum independence as adults, and should be educated to the best of their potential toward that end" (Jenkinson, 1993, p. 320). This reflects societal values regarding the development and learning opportunities and a sense of belonging to be promoted among these individuals as full members of the community. In general, the behavioral, social, and academic benefits of teaching special need learners alongside their peers are well-documented (Carter & Hughes, 2005).

Regarding the growing number of disabled learners being included in general education classes (Kim, 2011), the challenge now is "to consider how we [teachers] support and legitimate difference through a range of resourcing arrangements, pedagogies, and curriculum initiatives to expand options for all students" (Slee, 1997, p. 416). This makes classroom teaching more complex and call for all teachers to provide instructions tailored to needs of learners with disabilities. Hence, teachers should form an exhaustive perception of effective inclusive strategies and practices to support the educational development of these learners and actively involve them in their inclusive classes (Vaughn, Mathes, Linan, Thompson, & Francis, 2005).

According to the literature, looking for the development and educational growth of disabled learners is permanently an unfinished project, a story looking for an ending that will never arrive. Accordingly, new approaches and practices which make such kind of learners more inclined toward a continual and ongoing educational and social development will be worthy to be invested (Ornstein, Levine, & Gutek, 2011).

Due to the significance of communication and social context, highlighted by Vygotskian perspectives, in learning and with regard to specific conditions of language learners with disabilities in educational settings, policy makers and practitioners and all those involved in language teaching shall develop individualized education, learning and teaching policies and procedures for these language learners through having them included in English language classrooms where the disabled language learners enjoy the same communicative learning conditions as their non-disabled peers. As a result, the findings would

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provide strong theoretical rationales for practitioners and prospective and non-experienced teachers. From another perspective, language learners with disabilities are not receiving as much attention as their normal peers are in EFL educational settings, particularly in Iran (Behpazhooh & Torabi, 2008).

With regard to a broad consensus, the most vital component affecting the successful implementation of inclusion is teacher attitudes and perceptions toward inclusion. Different studies have detected factors relevant to this issue. This study further contributes to the accumulation of knowledge unpacking the complicated pattern of EFL teachers' perception and attitudes as well as their concerns in order to promote positive attitudes toward the inclusion of learners suffering from disabilities.

This study aimed to investigate preservice and student teachers' perceptions toward the inclusion of EFL language learners in inclusive classes. The ORI scale, which encompassed and assessed four aspects of inclusion (namely ability to teach inclusive classes, inclusive classroom management, inclusive versus special education, and benefits of inclusion), was used to collect the required data. The qualitative data was also collected through the interviews in order to triangulate the quantitative findings. The data analysis indicated the neutral perceptions of preservice and student teachers at Farhangian university toward the inclusion of language learners with special needs in regular classes. The qualitative data also confirmed this finding since the teachers asserted that they were undecided about what is going on in inclusive classes and that they were concerned with their teaching skills, classroom management difficulties, additional burden of the presence of disabled students, non-disabled students in inclusive class. According to them, no sufficient expertise of inclusive teaching practices and strategies was another concern. In their study, Sigafoos and Elkons (1994) and Buljevac, Majdak, & Leutar (2012) also documented the lack of confidence for the mainstream teachers teaching inclusive classes. These findings are in contrast with previous studies proposing that teachers are typically positive toward the inclusion of disabled learners (Kuester, 2000) and the other studies indicating negative attitudes of teachers (Buljevac et al., 2012).

The study findings also indicted no significance difference between the preservice and student teachers towards inclusion; therefore, further training and teacher education programs should be developed for both groups at Farhangian university. In this regard, male teachers need to be more focused since the findings suggested a meaningful difference between male and female teachers, with female teachers holding more positive attitudes towards inclusion. Similarly, a large number of researchers (e.g., Avramidis et al., 2000; Barnett & Monda-Amaya, 1998; Praisner, 2003; Schmidt & Ksenija, 2015; Whitaker, 2011) highlighted the critical role of professional development for teachers to promote positive attitudes toward inclusion.

Conclusion

With regard to the fact that the population of language learners with disabilities has not decreased, if not increased, over the last few decades (Beech, 2000), training teachers to teach EFL learners with disabilities in inclusive classes has remained untouched yet. Little is revealed about how Iranian EFL teachers treat such disabled EFL learners in inclusive classes or how they feel about such learners in their classrooms. The findings of this research study would shed some light on the perceptions of EFL towards the inclusion of these learners. Sufficient evidence in the

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literature highlights the decisive role of teacher attitudes in determining the success of inclusive education programs and the philosophy of inclusion (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Niemeyer & Proctor, 2002). Future researchers are recommended to explore the significance of teacher perceptions in facilitating inclusive practices and to detect factors affecting this variable. It is also suggested to detect the role of teacher preparation programs to better prepare teachers to teach inclusive classes.

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Preparation for Inclusive Education: Perceptions of EFL Student Teachers and Pre-Service EFL Teachers at Farhangian University

Mojtaba Maghsoudi (corresponding author)

Assistant Professor, Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

Email: maghsudi@cfu.ac.ir

Masoume Ahmadi

Lecturer, Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

Email: masoume.n.ahmadi@gmail.com

Fatemeh Safaei

Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

fatemehsafayy@gmail.com

There have been growing concerns about educating students with disabilities alongside their non-disabled peers in general education classrooms as such a large number of students who have educated in segregated special schools have been included in general schools over the past four decades, affecting all aspects of schooling. Considering the critical role of teachers as the central pillar of inclusive education determining the success or otherwise of inclusive practices, the present study sought to investigate the perceptions of EFL student teachers and pre-service EFL teachers at Farhangian university, as one of the main teacher training centers in Iran, regarding inclusion. A comparative analysis of qualitative data

revealed no significant differences between the perceptions of these two groups of teachers regarding their preparedness for inclusion as they claimed that they had neither relevant knowledge increase nor awareness raising throughout their courses. Furthermore, the teachers noted that none of their main stressors for the presence of students with disabilities in their classes was addressed by the teacher training programs. Accordingly, further considerations are of paramount importance for Farhangian University' authorities to re-evaluate its teacher preparation courses. The results of the study are discussed with possible implications for teacher educators and recommendations for future research conclude the study.

Key words: Inclusive Education, Teacher perception, Teacher preparation programs

Introduction

As a concept that increased dramatically over the past four decades, inclusive education encompasses a set of processes removing the obstacles that limit the provision of equal education for students with disabilities alongside non-disabled peers. One of the main presuppositions in the inclusive education, which has affected all aspects of schooling, is that all individuals have the right to have access to equal educational opportunities (Cook, Cameron, & Tankersley, 2007). It also requires teachers as the main pillars of this type of education to acknowledge diversity as a fundamental aspect of human development in any learning process (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011). Consequently, "bell-curve" thinking and 'fixed ability' notions which underpin the schooling structure are rejected in inclusive education (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011). Evidence suggests that effective teaching strategies and skills as well as competency from the side of teachers are of paramount importance to meet the learning needs of all children in regular classrooms and to adapt the pedagogical content of regular school curriculum to the cognitive level of all learners with or without special needs (Ainscow & Goldrick, 2010; Majoko, 2016).

Previous studies demonstrate that teachers need competency in different teaching strategies, including differentiated instruction, multilevel instruction, activity-based learning, and individualized instruction to facilitate equal learning opportunities in regular classrooms (Sledge & Pazey, 2013). On the other hand, many preservice teachers and student teachers only expose to the field of inclusive education when taking part in mandatory introductory courses held as a part of their regular education programs (Carroll, Forlin, & Jobling, 2003). Although there is a widespread emphasis on teacher preparation in inclusive education, concerns still exist about whether or not the preparation the teachers receive for inclusive education is sufficient and appropriate (Lombard, Miller, & Hazelkorn, 1998) as the perceived mismatch between preservice preparation and the actual working conditions for the teachers might result in destructive consequences (Whittaker & Salend, 2001). Furthermore, the preservice teacher preparation programs have been identified as a vital factor affecting teachers' perceptions, feelings, beliefs, and attitudes toward teaching students with special needs, and consequently determining the success of inclusive education (Carnell & Tillery, 2005). Such programs may provide the most appropriate grounds to address teachers' feelings of concern and stress and possibly modify their negative attitudes toward both inclusive education and individuals with disabilities. As Bechham and Rouse (2011) claimed, the early detection of the preservice teachers' concerns to be addressed during pre-service teacher preparation period not only eliminates some of the concerns but also builds up confidence levels, alters any negative perceptions of inclusive education, and promotes positive attitudes towards the inclusion of special need

individuals in regular classrooms. In Richards and Clough (2004) study, the preservice teachers found the greatest benefits in practical experiences they had acquired from teacher preparation programs; however, they suggested that the programs need to provide greater exposure to individuals with disabilities in order to challenge the attitudes and perceptions of preservice teachers toward inclusive teaching. According to Carroll et al. (2003), the development of preservice preparation programs is frequently intended to overemphasize knowledge acquisition to the detriment of equipping teachers with practical skills required for teaching a heterogeneous student population of students in inclusive instructional settings.

To sum up, the success of inclusive education highly depends on teacher preparation programs designed by teacher training institutions and universities. In Iran, Farhangian University is one of the pivotal teacher training centers ensuring the success of such an agenda. This university is committed to ensure that the teachers have appropriate attitudes and skills to further this type of education and that they are competent enough to cater for the needs of an increasing range of diverse learners. To this end, preservice teachers and student teachers' attitudes, beliefs, expectations, and perceptions of including a variety of learners with different levels of ability may well be challenged.

Regardless of the importance of such an issue, no study in Iran, to the best knowledge of the researcher, has focused on the perceptions of preservice teachers and student teachers of Farhangian University concerning their future work with students who have special needs as such this paper examined whether pre-service EFL teachers graduated from different universities differ from EFL student teachers studying at Farhangian University in terms of their perceptions of preparedness for teaching diverse learners in their classrooms. An attempt was also made to detect the participants' stressors regarding inclusive classes and determine the ones addressed by the teacher training programs developed by Farhangian University. This may contribute to the modifications in the curriculum defined by Farhangian university as re-evaluation of the teacher preparation courses is recommended to ensure that they are meeting the needs of preparing teachers for more inclusive schooling practices (Winter, 2006).

Perceptions of Teacher Preparation Programs

A large number of recent reports have focused on the effectiveness of teacher preparation courses in catering for diversity (Ewing & Smith, 2003). Teacher training programs shall explicitly address effective practices for novice and beginning teacher in order to enable them provide programs, support and instructions meeting the needs of all learners regardless of the presence of any disability. Furthermore, there has also been a growing body of research on the particular skills and competencies needed by inclusive teachers (Forlin, 2010; Pearce, 2008). Many studies (e.g., Cook, 2002; Forlin, Loreman, Sharma, & Earle, 2007; Sharma, Forlin, Loreman, & Earle, 2006) have also documented the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs on changing the negative attitudes and perceptions of inclusive teachers and suggested that such positive perceptions are of great importance in the successful implementation of inclusive education. Lancaster and Bain (2010) state that teacher training programs provide greater contact and interaction with individuals suffering from disabilities either through site-based programs or through course experiences; hence nurturing positive attitudes and support for inclusion. Leyser and Abrams (1986) announced the special and regular education student teachers' need for further training

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with regard to mainstreaming in several fields including communication, classroom management, evaluation, and professional knowledge. In his survey study, Kim (2011) examined the impact of 10 teacher preparation programs on the attitudes of 110 preservice teachers toward inclusive education. Three types of teacher preparation programs including combined, separate and general programs were taken into account in surveys. The results revealed that significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusion were held by preservice teachers who had participated in the combined teacher preparation programs with both general education and special education teacher preparation curricula being aroused.

Some innovative models developed to enrich teacher preparation programs with regard to the fundamentals of inclusive education are as follows: field experiences in inclusive classrooms (Van Laarhoven, Munk, Lynch, Bosma, & Rouse, 2007), infusion of information about diversity throughout the curriculum (Jung, 2007), direct contact with individuals with disabilities (Chambers & Forlin, 2010), incursion activities (i.e., individuals with disabilities visiting the university) (Chong, Forlin, & Au, 2007), coursework (Shade & Stewart, 2001), and interviews (Miller, 2008). In order to ensure that the pre-service teachers are provided with inclusive experiences, in addition to the aforementioned models, interaction with special need learners in regular settings should be one the main concerns in teacher preparation programs. In Richards and Clough's (2004) study, it was concluded that, besides promoting positive attitudes and views on inclusion in teacher education programs, the beginning teachers need to incorporate a deeper examination of inclusion and further opportunities to contact with individuals with disabilities. Although the preparation being offered must first equip teachers for diversity (Winter, 2006), the limited relevant research in this area suggests that a majority of the newly graduated teachers consider themselves to be inadequately prepared to teach students with disabilities in regular classrooms (Winter, 2006). The moment when teachers realize that a class consists of a diverse group of individuals, they must start thinking about how to respond to this diversity individually while teaching a group as a whole. The individuals' reactions to different stimuli are not the same (Harmer, 2007); therefore, teachers are expected to decide on better tasks and activities and serve the needs of different learning styles through determining their learners' strengths and dominant intelligence and styles. When the class as a whole includes learners with disabilities who fail to use one or more of their senses, teachers should adopt materials and lesson plans to replace these senses with others since disability does not mean being unsuccessful learner (Basaran, 2012). Accordingly, some arguments raised by teachers against inclusive classes and inclusive approaches can be attributed to their lack of preparation to teach diverse groups (Wevelsiep, 2015) as they feel insecure about their new role as an inclusive instructor in a heterogeneous educational setting.

Setting of the Study

Fast-paced advances of technology innovations in this information era has dramatically transformed the world over the past decades; thus, the basic requirements of education have been consequently changed. In a similar vein, more individuals than ever before are learning English language as an international language of education and business.

The term English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner is used to describe a speaker whose native language is not English in a country where English is not commonly spoken. In such a context, English

learning depends upon learners' level of English proficiency, instructions, policies, and institutional or school programs.

According to Sadeghi and Richards (2016), English at the time of Islamic revolution was given the official status of an 'alien' language and was known as a foreign language, indicating the Iranian's attitudes toward the language spoken by their enemies, especially America. As they added, Imam Khomeini's (PBUH), Iran's late leader, emphasis on the need to learn this international foreign language changed the status of English and it was viewed differently. Since then, English has been featured prominently in school curriculums and even so in the private education sector.

Regarding the private education sector, different language institutes are providing a variety of learning services for EFL learners in order for them to develop their practical skills. English institutes vary in size, ranging from the ones with 30 students to those with more than three thousand (with the highest frequency of enrollment being related to summer semesters). Employing undergraduates or postgraduates majored in English or non-English fields, some language institutes (e.g. Iran language Institute known as ILI) teach localized textbooks; however, others use non localized textbooks such as Ten-to-Ten, Interchange, Four Corners, Top Notch, and others.

In this context, English language teachers' mission is to promote learning and support education and professional development for our students. In this regard, we need to support EFL learners pursue their dreams of higher education or obtain a good job in English-speaking workplaces. Considering students with disabilities, however, they are facing some barriers such as lack of appropriate instructional materials, low expectations, and lack of encouragement (Green, 2014) and social isolation (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996). In other words, irrespective of such a fast-paced expansion of English language, students with disabilities have been left out of the conversation and a fewer number of learners with disabilities can manage to continue their studies and reach their educational goals (Burgstahler & Doyle, 2005).

In general, EFL teachers' practices have a significant impact on educational experiences and opportunities of English language learners. Teachers' negative attitudes, feelings, and perception and lack of knowledge, experience and competence may result in inclusive practices which do not meet the needs of language learners with disabilities. Inadequate teacher preparation can threaten the language learning and teaching system, revealing unfair discrimination against EFL learners. Despite much debate found in the literature on the admission of disabled learners in regular classes, adaptation of appropriate accommodations, modifications and support and the necessity of identifying the most effective strategies and practices to help those learners grow socially and educationally, the field of EFL learning and teaching is the one seriously in the need of research. Issues related to EFL learners attending inclusive language learning settings, the role of EFL teachers as inclusive teachers, and how to implement the most appropriate support practices and accommodations in inclusive classes to hurt neither disabled learners nor their non-disabled peers have never been thoroughly examined in the relevant literature. Considering the increasing number of disabled learners who are studying English as a second or foreign language, it is of essence to assess whether English teachers are prepared to teach such learners and how they respond to diversities in inclusive classes in order not to let EFL learners with disabilities lag behind. This study took over this mission to observe and report EFL teachers' perception of preparation for inclusive English language classes and detect their main stressors regarding teaching classes with a group of students having diverse abilities.

Within the context of Iran, the majority of individuals with any kind of severe impairments are included in regular English classes. Accordingly, EFL teachers are not empowered to disallow learners with disabilities in their regular classes; this makes the field a rich one for research. Relevantly, the teaching processes involved in such an inclusive setting has not been dealt with in depth. On the other hand, there are poor teacher preparation programs for EFL teachers to prepare their students for their education in order for them to reach the milestones and greater achievements in the field of English language learning. The likelihood of success enhances for learners with special needs when they participate in supportive educational settings and work with teachers recognizing their potential contributions, not merely zooming their disabilities. Hence, the need for teacher preparation programs providing EFL teachers with practices and strategies to promote the outcomes for students with disabilities in English language fields is highlighted. In addition to the dearth of research on inclusive EFL practices and on what EFL teachers do, the need for further research on inclusive teachers has always been asserted by a large number of researchers. This provided the primary impetus for the current study as EFL teachers are not professionally trained to deal with disabled learners in inclusive classes, and they have received no specific training with regard to how to deal with the problems and challenges they face in inclusive classes and how to cope with their own stressors and negative feelings. This study aimed to voice the need for further research to have more detailed research and training programs of teachers.

Methods

The present qualitative study aimed to investigate the perceptions of EFL student teachers and pre-service EFL teachers at Farhangian university, as one of the main teacher training centers in Iran, regarding inclusion. To this end, criterion sampling as a subcategory of purposeful sampling in qualitative research, where all subjects must meet some target criteria of interest in order to be selected, was used in this study (Patton, 2002), and a total of 40 teachers (20 EFL student teachers and 20 pre-service EFL teachers) were selected. Data saturation was an effective factor in determining the sample size. Of the total, 23 were male and 17 were female. The participants' age ranged from 19 to 27 years with a mean age of 22.8. They were either studying at Farhangian University or passing courses developed by Farhangian University for pre-service teachers who were graduated from other universities. The groups had received no specified course on inclusion or inclusive education, even though, they were teaching English language at different language institutes for about two years or less.

To control the effect of mediating variables affecting teachers' perception, having a minimum of one year and a maximum of four years of teaching experience at language institutes was an inclusion criterion in this study because five years is set as a commonly accepted criterion in the selection of experienced teachers (Tsui, 2003). In other words, the participants were homogenous in terms of their teaching experience. In order to delve into EFL teachers' perceptions, the participants took part in face-to-face, semi-structured interviews. To achieve the objective of the study, semi-structured researcher-developed interviews were held until data saturation was achieved. The interview questions formulated according to thorough reviews of the literature. In

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order make the interviewees feel comfortable, the researcher submitted them the interview questions and gave them a few minutes to study and reflect on the questions before deciding to participate in the interview. They also had the opportunity not to answer the questions. All interviewees were allowed to answer the questions using their own native language in order to control the effect of fluency/accuracy. When the participants spontaneously described all that could be mentioned, the interviewer posed one or more follow-up questions (e.g., taking the points you mentioned into account, can you elaborate more on such and such?). The follow-up questions as an interviewing technique were intended to let the interviewees elaborate more on the aspects which were not fully presented. The mean length of interviews in this study was about 25 minutes.   Although the interviews as a self-report method are always subject to pitfalls such as memory decay and alterations, they are pregnant with adequate but not complete descriptions of the psychological meanings to be analyzed. For the sake of information confidentiality, some information revealing the participants' identities were replaced by pseudonyms or other fictitious representations in such a way that their identities and their private specifications were revealed to no one but the researcher.

Following the interviews, the transcriptions were coded and each transcript was sent back to the interviewees to make any changes if required and to ensure the validity of the interviews to be used for further processes. Finally, the main themes were extracted and rechecked by two other experts to ensure the inter coder consistency. Cases of controversy were discussed until an agreement was achieved.

Findings

A comparative analysis of qualitative data revealed no significant differences between the perceptions of these two groups of teachers regarding their preparedness for inclusion as they claimed that they had neither relevant knowledge increase nor awareness raising in the courses developed by the concerned university. EFL teachers mentioned that teacher preparation programs should provide them with an opportunity to learn about diverse learning needs, evaluate their current practices, and consequently improve their teaching knowledge in order to meet the students' needs; however, the participants of the present study agreed that the focus of the courses they passed was not in a similar vein with this principle.
 While EFL teachers viewed the inclusion of special-need learners as a challenge, they partly seemed to be satisfied taking this challenge in their regular English classes (in support of quantitative data). They believed that inclusive education provides them the grounds to assess themselves as teachers and their ability to employ different teaching techniques and strategies for learners having individual differences. Moreover, both groups of teachers noted that none of their main stressors for the presence of students with disabilities in their classes was addressed by the teacher training programs. EFL teachers asserted that they sometimes fail to implement inclusion appropriately, and that they face some problems handling disabled learners learning along their non-disabled peers as well as managing the diversity observed in their classes. In response to this problem, EFL teachers revealed different reactions. Some discuss the issues with their colleagues, mostly within their break time. Some others try to involve the non-disabled peers and learners with difficulties in teaching practices and tasks to the extent possible. They also

reported seeking for help from the parents of disabled learners in order to provide support practices in EFL classes. The main stressors noted by the preservice teachers (PT) and student teachers (ST) in the interview sessions were as follows:

a) How to teach and assess inclusive classes;

b) How to manage inclusive classes;

c) How to deal with disabled and non-disabled learners in inclusive classes;

d) How to provide equal learning opportunity for special-need learners in inclusive classes;

e) How to teach English language to those who lack some abilities and skills;

f) What strategies and practices are required to teach an inclusive classroom;

g) How to empower and motivate special-need learners in inclusive classes;

h) How to cope with a variety of needs, individual differences, and disabilities in inclusive classes.

A feeling of confusion was also experienced by teachers in some rare cases. For example, a preservice teacher narrated that one of his worst ever teaching experiences was observing a scene that one her students' sudden falling from a standing position, having a sudden rapid shaking in arms and hands. She said that she was panic and confused since she did not know what was happening. Her colleagues who were afraid of her students' yelling and crying ran up to her class and called an emergency ambulance. Later on, her parents told the teacher about a disease called epilepsy. Furthermore, this teacher and some others also added that one of common problems of inclusive classes is posed by parents having children suffering from any type of disabilities. A majority of these parents do their best to deny and hide their children's health problems and do not make teachers aware of their difficulties since they would rather not show their children as disabled or as an exception. In addition, learners feel nervous and are also unwilling to disclose some personal information including their health status to an instructor. The challenges exposed to the teacher, then, are to diagnose the type of disability as well as their symptoms. In some cases, teachers are also required to have medical information as well.

PT No. 1. How should I see the problem? How to know their disability and needs?

ST No. 8: There might be some ways to solve their problems; however, I think that is beyond my knowledge.

Inclusive classes are places where disabled students are learning alongside their non-disabled peers. In such classes, teachers need to be cognizant of the needs of both groups and have knowledge of how to treat these two groups of individuals.

PT No. 5: Competent language learners always sits beside the disabled learners and help them... It seems to me they had a good feeling doing so, as if they would also be a teacher and they are effective for some people in the class. The problem is that I have not learned how to deal with these learners to keep my position as the class teacher.

Form the interviewees' perspective, a teacher is committed to motivate all students to learn. The special-need students are not an exception. Unfortunately, teachers stated that they were aware of this fact; however, they received no training on how to take over this mission.

ST No.11: We always tell ourselves that yes, that's true, but it's okay. It's no matter how this particular learner handles learning a foreign language or fails accomplishing it or whatever ... he still should be respected and considered as a person... I think this makes us all better people. This is the perspective I have never being taught.

Some teachers reiterate that lesson plans are essential in helping the disabled learners improve their language skills. According to them, the inclusion of learners with disabilities do not let teachers use the same regular instructional strategies and materials they have learned to develop. They expressed a feeling of confusion regarding how to develop a kind of balanced materials that meet the needs of both abled and disabled students in English language classes. This encompasses assessment, activities, and assignments as well. Here is a sample statement by one of the student teachers:

PT No. 11: …Yes, that's right…I and many other teachers have no enough time to prepare a schedule or lesson plan for our class. But, you know, not the same when I have a pupil with disabilities in my classes. Regular practices may not work for my blind, hard of hearing or wheelchair-bound student. I have to prepare a lesson plan in these cases.

ST No. 7: … . Empowerment is what I always keep in my mind regarding disabled learners learning English language….We should let their voices be heard.

The analysis of interviews revealed that the teachers were also concerned with the relationship between the disabled and non-disabled students as one challenge posed in the inclusive EFL classes, from their perspective, was lack of appropriate social skills. Stigmatization is the consequence of inappropriately-established social skills. Learners of special needs included in regular classes fail to properly communicate with their peers due to lack of willingness expressed by both himself and his abled peers. In addition to language skills, teachers also need to focus on nurturing social and cultural skills to enable the class to communicate, collaborate, and support each other. Taking the disabled learners' needs into account, the teachers reported that the use of games, role plays, know-how projects, hand-on experiences, and so on is a must in inclusive classes. In this regard, EFL teachers should make attempts to disseminate the social and cultural skills of asking for help, playing with others, non-downgrading and respecting others, being concerned about others' problems, especially the ones with disabilities included in classes, conveying positive feelings to others through using gesture, attentive listening, eye contact and touching, avoiding contemptuous, scornful, and annoying behaviors, socializing with other people. These are the cases that they have received no specialized training for them at Farhangian University. This is represented in following statement:

PT No. 14: In our country, I think, language learners are not good at making social relations. They fail to communicate with each other.

ST No. 3: Here in our country, a blind person is worth more than someone who suffers from mental retardation…He is more respected … There is even disability discrimination …Other students make fun of them so they cannot benefit from inclusion…NO.

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PT No. 12: The term 'retarded (or even lamebrain) is used to describe the disabled in our country and I cannot expect 10-15-year-old students not to use the term or not to laugh at the disabled…This is stressful for the special-need learners. There is character assassination [in inclusive classes], especially for girls.

When presenting new information, the teachers should ensure that the pace of the task required is suitable to minimize learners' stress levels. Relevantly, they need to have a supportive classroom where all English language students are valued. In this regard, the interviewed teachers had no belief in themselves and their abilities as they had received no explicit relevant instruction.

Types of disability may also impose some levels of stress in inclusive classes and impose a sense of discrimination. Mental retardation and learning difficulties forge teachers view inclusion with some apprehension.

PT No. 19 :I think blind or hard of hearing learners are better to be included than mentally-retarded ones. They are difficult to be controlled and taught.

When teachers become informed of learners' difficulties and concerns, they accordingly modified their teaching and assessment practices in a way addressing those difficulties and concerns. Although both preservice and student teachers acknowledge their lack of knowledge regarding inclusion and inclusive education, as a key to professional development and as a solution to overcome such a shortcoming, they sometimes used to ask the experienced teachers for help. They explained what was going on and discussed the problems and challenges faced in an inclusive classroom and act accordingly.

PT No. 9. I am not ashamed not afraid to ask for help from my friends and colleagues when having a disabled learner in my class. In my opinion, two heads are better than one.

ST No. 20: Meeting a coworker for a cup of tea before work or a quick online chat helps me to support my disabled student.

ST No. 18: *Once I had a problem teaching reading skill to a blind student, my experienced colleague let me observe her class. I learned a lot and it worked. I adopted the same practices in my class.*

Both groups of the participant teachers asserted that they had taken some comprehensive testing courses at Farhangian University; hence, they had received detailed knowledge about theoretical and operational aspects of assessment. Their knowledge, however, did not cover the type of assessment (dynamic/non-dynamic or formative/summative) to be carried out in inclusive classes.

The qualitative findings confirmed teachers' lack of confidence in their own abilities to teach inclusive classes. In other words, teachers expressed concerns about their abilities to teach disabled learners. This might also be caused by their lack of knowledge about inclusive education as there is no specific teacher preparation program in Iran for EFL teachers to provide them with some training on how to teach special-need learners in inclusive classes and how to deal with their impairments in an effective way to empower them in the classes and society as a larger context. These factors all lead to confusion, stress, anxiety and lack of confidence for teachers teaching inclusive classes. The findings of the current study are consistent with previous research indicating that the inclusion of special need learners is accompanied with teachers' lack of confidence in their competence (Buljevac, Majdak, & Leutar, 2012).

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In a similar vein with the findings of the present study, Brackenreed (2008) assessed elementary and secondary teachers' perceptions of their own level of stress when teaching special-need students in inclusive classes. In spite of their high level of stress, teachers' asserted that they were obliged to include students with severe needs in their classrooms while having no control over them. According to Brackenreed (2008), teacher's self-perceptions of competency and student behavior were as the most stressful items in an inclusive class. The same finding was also reported by Forlin (2001). Forlin also suggested that the increased number of years of involvement in inclusion and participation in formal training courses were correlated with the reduced levels of stress (Forlin, 2001). Major categories of concerns in an Australian context for teachers coping with learners with disabilities are administration, support, parents, personal competency, professional competency, classroom, and student behavior (Forlin, Keen, & Barrett, 2008), which were found to be associated with the learners' behavior and teachers' perceived professional competency. The researchers also pointed out that some factors such as demographic differences, the level being taught, previous involvement with inclusivity and teaching experience might affect the intensity of the issues being concerned by teachers (Forlin et al., 2008).

Final Remarks

The teacher preparation programs have been challenged by the movement toward inclusive education to provide new knowledge, skills and appropriate experiences to teachers; however, no consensus is reached on how to prepare teachers to be effective practitioners in inclusive classes, especially English language classrooms.

A large number of studies have examined teachers' attitudes toward inclusion (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Bender, Vail, & Scott, 1995; Maciver, et al., 2018; to name a few), indicating that teachers' attitudes toward inclusion and instructional practices seem to be influenced by the content of each course within the teacher preparation program; i.e. different structures in teacher preparation programs.

On the other hand, promises of inclusive education can be kept if they are implemented according to the procedures recommended in the literature. Evidently, teachers are the major actors implementing inclusion and equal access to materials in language learning classes. This naturally calls for the teachers to provide the disabled and non-disabled learners with support-oriented practices and hold positive attitudes toward the inclusion of learners with disabilities. The teachers also need to get familiarized with these learners' needs so that they can really feel the usefulness of their practices. Thus, the inclusion of some painstaking training on inclusion in the EFL teacher training courses seems necessary to foster more positive attitudes toward inclusion and more active inclusive practices among the teachers, particularly EFL teachers.

Although research has also confirmed the use of new technologies and software, the data collected from EFL teachers participating in this study revealed that they do not possess an expertise in terms of the most modern language-related technologies. They employed technology at a basic level to help their learners learn English language; however, the teachers had little, if any, information about software such as AAC (Augmentative and Alternative Communication) system which encompasses the communication methods to supplement or replace speech or writing for the learners suffering from disabilities in the

production or comprehension of spoken or written language. Broadening the technology-based knowledge of teachers can not only assist them in teaching inclusive classes but can also improve their attitudes and decrease the number of cases they perceived as challenges. As a support to this claim, Moreno-Navarro (2011) carried out a case-study to compare the impacts of technological and/or socio-affective inclusive strategies on the learning process of a non-sighted EFL learner in a Mexican private university. They found socio-affective inclusive strategies in eight English language courses based on Vygotsky's views through encouraging the mediation practices, incorporating collaborative activities, and supporting the disabled learners' strengths. To have the technological adjustments, they employed assistive technology. According to the data attained from observations, interviews, and questionnaires, they concluded that mediation and collaborative practices have positive impacts on promoting learners' attitude and self-esteem and consequently direct their learning efforts toward the path of success. Furthermore, they found that providing the visually-impaired learner with information in advance and optimizing his use of technological resources results in equal access to learning and performance conditions throughout the course. The other advantages of technology for disabled learners are promoted education in the most suitable way, enhanced sense of autonomy and reconnection to the society, decreased psychological and physical stress, and enhanced life quality and self-esteem (Scherer & Glueckauf, 2005).

Thus, the necessary grounds should be provided to the English language teachers to enable them to exploit this advantage. To do so, relevant materials should be regularly presented in teacher education courses in order to keep them up-to-date and introduce the latest teaching and assessment technologies, especially language-related ones. Furthermore, the necessary facilities and devices, including internet-access, computers, laptops, software, and the like, should be provided to teachers in English language institutes.

EFL teachers can never embark upon any educational practice as long as they do not enjoy the support of policy-makers and administrators. Whenever teachers have concerns, their teaching effectiveness is likely to be compromised even though they do their best when they receive support from all those involved. Inclusive practices to be included in the curriculum needs the initial support and promotion on the side of policy-makers and administrators. This can be accomplished by first taking the step of encouraging curriculum developers to go for more theoretically and empirically supported practices in education, as is the case with language teaching. Curriculum developers should also welcome ideas for consideration from all the individuals who play any important role in the teaching/learning process including the learners, teachers, assessors, syllabus designers, and materials developers.

Future research could address the limitations of this study in order to examine EFL teachers' attitudes, perceptions, and practices. An understanding of these variables is particularly important for future inclusive education teacher educators. Further confirmatory studies are recommended to incorporate a larger variety of teachers. Future researchers could also examine the specific influences of teacher preparation programs on the variables concerned in this study, i.e., teachers' attitudes, perceptions and practices.

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Online vs. Incidental Vocabulary Learning: A Case of Computer-assisted Language Learning

فاطمه تکلو[10]

Abstract

This present study aimed to investigate comparative usefulness of online versus incidental vocabulary learning on intermediate level Iranian vocabulary learning. In doing so, forty two students at a language institute in Qom were both taught and tested on 500 English content words. Two experimental groups were taught the words via different ways. The first group (Group A, n=21) get it in a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) program through a vocabulary learning system (Quizlet, http://quizlet.com). And the second group (Group B, n=21) were offered some reading texts containing the same words and exposed students incidentally to new vocabularies. The results presented that the students who used online program in group A outperformed the students in group B. Moreover, a follow-up post-test given a few months later evidenced that the students in group A better remember the words studied via quizlet.

Key terms: Online vocabulary learning, Incidental learning, CALL

[10] دکتری آموزش زبان انگلیسی،تهران ، فاطمی سیندخت جنوبی کوچه منیژه واحد ۱/کدپستی ۱۴۱۸۶۳۶۹۱۴/ موبایل۰۹۱۲۶۱۲۲۰۸۳ / f.takallou@gmail.com

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International Conference on Comparative Education
kashan University, Iran

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Introduction

Excessive preoccupation with grammatical competence marginalized the importance of vocabulary in second language teaching and learning for a long time (Read, 2000; Carter, 1998; Schmitt, 2008; Zimmerman, 1997). However, owing to introduction of alternative approaches to language learning and teaching, the role of vocabulary in language pedagogy has obtained considerable strength and momentum. As a result, "several approaches to language learning have been proposed that view vocabulary and lexical units as central in language learning and teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 132), including A Lexical Syllabus for Language Learning (Sinclair &Renouf, 1988), The Lexical Syllabus (Willis, 1990), Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching (Nattinger & DeCarrio, 1992), and The Lexical Approach (Lewis, 1993). It is worth noting that the acknowledged significance of vocabulary in second language learning may roots in the fact that the degree of success in language skills is directly or indirectly associated with the amount of vocabulary knowledge (Carter, 1998). In other words, there is a "high correlations between vocabulary (usually measures of vocabulary size) and various measures of language proficiency" (Schmitt, 2010, p. 4).

However, Schmitt (2008) posited, knowledge of vocabulary is more complicated than knowing only forms and meanings. In fact, "there are many things to know about any particular word and there are many degrees of knowing" (Nation, 2001, p. 36). Thus, given the pivotal role of words, "the complexities of word knowledge and the range of factors involved in knowing a word" (Carter, 1998, p. 204), it is of utmost importance to optimally promote it in second/foreign language learning. Although the majority of SLA researchers have acknowledged that different types of word knowledge are learned in different ways (Carter, 1998), SLA research has failed to reach a consensus over the optimal method for teaching and learning vocabulary in second language (Schmitt, 2008). In this regard, instruction is the first thing that comes into mind as an operative method for enhancing the L2 vocabulary knowledge.

Ensuring that students are engaged in learning is a key concern for teachers. With regards to language teaching and learning in general and vocabulary in language learning in particular, teachers should provide students with tasks which promote high levels of motivation and resultant engagement (Stroud, 2014). The students can potentially be taken to higher levels of engagement whether physically or psychologically in and out of classroom by the current trend of online systems which have dynamic, collaborative, and even competitive style approaches.

A few studies examined the probable effects of online vocabulary learning(e.g., Stroud, 2014). A clear improvement was seen in the general engagement of students by using an online system to learn vocabulary. Nonetheless, a large body of research should be carried out to ensure that such engagement amongst students results in better learning and acquisition of words in comparison with the traditional paper-based learning methods (Stroud, 2014).

Although there are some supporting evidences for the importance of vocabulary in process of second or foreign language learning (e.g., Schmitt, 2010; CZ Blackowicz, P Fisher - ML Kam,

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2000; Celce-Murcia). The fact that learning a very large number of words is requisite for being able to operate in English has been indicated and supported by a host of studies in first and second language domain (e.g. Allen, 1983; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2008; Takač, 2008; Zimmerman, 2014). However, there is no consensus over the optimal method for teaching and learning vocabulary in second language (Schmitt, 2008). In this regard, the present study strived for comparing two methods of word learning, online and incidental vocabulary learning. The following research questions were attempted to be answered via the current study.

1. Does online vocabulary learning lead to any significant improvement in students' gains of vocabulary learning than the incidental instruction?
2. Does online vocabulary learning lead to more effective gains than the incidental instruction as measured by the participants' follow-up post-test results?

Literature Review

History of Teaching Vocabulary

Zimmerman (1997) pinpointed that vocabulary teaching and learning has been generally neglected during the long history of L2 instruction due largely to two factors. First, "preoccupation with the development of grammatical competence" (Read, 2000, p.1) "may have fostered a climate in which vocabulary was felt to be a less important element in learning a second language" (Carter, 1998, p.184). Second, "various aspects involved in knowing a word" (Nation, 2001, p.114) make language teachers and learners "unsure of the best way to pursue it" (Schmitt, 2008, p.329). Accordingly, "how best to incorporate vocabulary learning into teaching" (Read, 2004, p.146) still remains a matter of question in SLA research (Schmitt, 2008).

Although second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have failed to reach a consensus concerning the optimal method for teaching and learning vocabulary in second language acquisition (SLA), the majority of them agree that knowledge of vocabulary is more complicated than knowing only forms and meanings (e.g. Chapelle, 1998; Henriksen, 1999; Mezynski, 1983; Nation, 1990, 2001; Qian, 1998, 2002; Richards, 1976; Schmitt, 2008; Zimmerman, 2014). For instance, Nation (2001, p. 36) argued that "there are many things to know about any particular word and there are many degrees of knowing". Consequently, various frameworks have been proposed by SLA researchers to define vocabulary knowledge. For example, Nation (2001), reflecting upon the complexity of word knowledge, summarized it as follows:

Types of Vocabulary Teaching

Summarizing earlier research, Sökmen (1997) divided the history of vocabulary instruction into three phases of explicit (as when vocabulary is directly taught by providing definition, e.g. the

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grammar translation method), implicit (as when "words are picked up while one's attention is focused on language use" (Zimmerman, 2014, p.291) e.g. the natural approach), and currently combination of implicit and explicit vocabulary learning.

When thinking about effective vocabulary instruction, teachers need to know that "words are not instantaneously acquired, at least not for adult second language learners. Rather, "they are gradually learned over a period of time from numerous exposures" (Schmitt, 2000, p.4). This means that vocabulary acquisition is incremental in nature (Zimmerman, 2014). Thus, in order to maximize vocabulary acquisition, a vocabulary learning program will require both explicit and implicit approaches (Schmitt, 2008). Moreover, while it is true that instruction is the first and most essential part of a vocabulary learning program (Schmitt, 2000) teachers should not neglect the role of assessment (Read, 2000). Put it another way, teaching and assessing vocabulary should not be conceived of as separate domains. It is here that DA comes into fashion.

CALL and Vocabulary Learning

The use of hypermedia presents intensive interaction between user and computer and executes a variety of tasks, allowing for a rich recording of online learning strategies in an unobtrusive way. Currently, there has been a wave of interest in CALL strategies and CALL user tracking technologies(Al- Seghayer, 2001; Ashworth, 1996; Collentine, 2000; Hwu, 2003; Hegelheimer& Tower, 2004; Laufer& Hill, 2000; Liou, 2000; Vincent & Hah, 1996).

For example, Ashworth's (1996) CALL program, The Observer, was designed to store L2 learners' keyboard activities (e.g., mouse-clicks and cursor movements) in computer files. He recommended the probability of observing other online actions, such as transcriptions of user input in computer-mediated conversational exchanges or frequency counts of accessing online dictionaries and thesauruses in a reading comprehension task.Liou (2000) also emphasized the advantage of using computers' recording abilities to collect learner data. Hwu (2003) used WebCT's student-tracking system to collect learner data during CALL activities. Other SLA studies have also included user behavior tracking technologies as a data collection methodology or have documented strategies used by CALL users for L2 word learning (Collentine, 2000; Laufer& Hill, 2000; Al-Seghayer, 2001), showing great promise for doing L2 vocabulary research in this electronic medium. Iheanachu (1997)CALL can be employed to improve the English vocabulary skills of increasing numbers of students all over the world, who have been identified as having limited English proficiency. The study of the usefulness of CALL vocabulary software in instructing and learning collocations has led Nesselhauf and Tschichold (2002) to create general guidelines for English vocabulary environments used independently of a specific (school) book or dictionary:

1. better specification of the proficiency level the program aims at (and/or a division into different levels of difficulty);

2. consistent context-embedding of the items learned;
3. more flexibility of feedback (at least so that alternative correct answers are not rejected);
4. at least some variety in the exercises;
5. an inclusion of sections that teach besides sections that test.

Zapata and Sagarra (2007) stress it, online workbooks promote the acquisition of L2 grammatical and vocabulary knowledge by allowing learners to proceed in a self-paced manner with the material, thus meeting their individual needs and allowing them to "manufacture rather than receive knowledge" (Zapata &Sagarra, 2007, p. 154). Aryadoust and Lashkarys'(2009) findings also indicated that "vocabulary knowledge is vital to reading comprehension and proficiency, to which it is closely linked" (p. 330). Liu (2009) in her article, noted some implications of CALL for vocabulary teaching which are listed below.

1. Combine incidental and intentional vocabulary learning with each other,
2. Modify vocabulary instruction method under CALLenvironment and,
3. Vocabulary learning should be made a dynamic process.

According to Liu (2009) CALL can integrate incidental and intentional vocabulary learning with each other that is beneficial for students. It can be interpreted from this statement that students bring taught via CALL might outperform in learning new vocabularies. What the current study strived to find an answer to.

One recent website in widespread use in language learning is Quizlet. The system offers language learners the chance to build their own card sets online and learn them through playing games. Online systems such as Quizlet offer students more chances for control (with the words they study, games they play, as well as place and method of access to their cards), attention (with graphics and scores to grab their focus), relevance (with system feedback telling students their weak points and needs for study focus from game scores for example), confidence (with measurable progress being made through scores), and satisfaction (with competitions and game rankings between different class members). However, little research has been done on comparing the details of online versus incidental vocabulary learning and offering the merits or demerits of CALL in vocabulary learning which may result from the implementation of such a system.

Methodology

This study adopts a pretest-posttest experimental design since it meets the following criteria: "(1) random selection of subjects from the population, (2) random assignment of subjects to groups, and (3) the presence of an actual control group" (Nunan & Baily, 2009).

Participants

The participants of the present study were intermediate female Iranian EFL learners at Aras language institute, Qom, Iran. This setting was selected due to the researcher's ease of access to it. They include 2 classes (n = 42) participating in the study during the summer of 2019. Their ages ranged between16 to 23 years. They were homogenized and randomly assigned to two experimental groups, CALL group, hereafter group A (n=21) and incidental vocabulary learning group named group B henceforth (n=21). An Quick Oxford Placement Test was administered to all participants and those whose scores fall between -1 to +1 SD from the mean were included in the study and assigned into two homogeneous groups.

Procedures

Initially, 55 students were taken and a Quick Oxford Placement Test (QOPT) was administered to homogenize participants in terms of their general language proficiency in English. Next extreme scores were removed and 42 students were taken as participants of this study.

All of the students in the CALL group used Quizlet instead of textbooks while incidental group read the textbook containing readings with the same vocabulary. At the end of each class, after teacher instructing the new vocabulary, the students were given 10 minutes to record new words from the class content. CALL group entered them in the program and then another 20 minutes to play games of their choice on Quizlet to study their word sets. The incidental group also noted words in a notebook if needed. Additionally, two parallel vocabulary tests were administered to the students as pre-and post-test to both groups to track differences, if any. The tests were designed by the researcher which also acted as teacher in the class. Questions (n=40 for each test) were in multiple choice form. The tests were piloted on another group of language learners before to be used in the present study to make sure they have an acceptable level of reliability. The reliability coefficient (Table 1 and 2) shows the reliability of the tests. Moreover, correlation between two tests were also calculated as represented in table 3.

Table 1.*Reliability Analysis of pre-test*

Statistics for Scale				N of Cases	Alpha	Standardized item alpha
Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	N of Variables			
15.1331	32.0324	5.5579	40	42	.7791	.7902

Table 2.*Reliability Analysis of post-test*

Statistics for Scale				N of Cases	Alpha	Standardized item alpha
Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	N of Variables			

| 15.1331 | 32.0324 | 5.5579 | 40 | 42 | .7791 | .7902 |

Table 3._Correlation between pre-test and post-test_

		Pre-test	Post-test
Pre-test	Pearson Correlation	1	.728(**)
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	42	42
Post-test	Pearson Correlation .728(**)		1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	42	42

Results and Discussion

In order to find answers to mentioned research questions a t-test was run to compare the post-test scores of the two groups under investigation. The post- test scores obtained by both groups were analyzed using the SPSS software package using the independent sample T-test to establish whether there were significant differences between two groups of participants at the 0.05 alpha level (Tables 4 and 5).

Table 4._Group Statistics (post-test)_

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test	GroupA	39,3584	21	6,92877	1,46448
	GroupB	33,5559	21	4,21324	1,26967

Table 5. *Post-test results*

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pretest	GroupA	38,75	6.356	1.432	-.36482	.03149	-1.720	29	0.003**
	GroupB	32,38	4.523	1.212					

*p<0.01

In order to analysis and answer the first research question (Does online vocabulary learning lead to any significant improvement in students' gains of vocabulary learning than the incidental instruction? the significance level was lower than 0.05 (t=-1,720; df=29; p=0.003), which led to the conclusion that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups. In other words, the participants in group A(using CALL) *quizlet* while studying vocabulary items performed significantly better than the participants in the group B who practiced incidental vocabulary learning activities.

Moreover, to answer the second research question (Does online vocabulary learning lead to more effective gains than the incidental instruction as measured by the participants' follow-up post-test results?) a follow-up post-test was taken from both groups. The analysis of the scores using the independent sample T-test evidenced that there were significant differences between two groups of participants at the 0.05 alpha level (Table 6 and 7).

Table 6. *Follow-up Post-test*

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Follow-up	GroupA	36,3425	21	5,8357	1,48443
	GroupB	31,9234	21	4,31391	1,26464

Table 7. *Follow-up Post-test results*

	Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			

					Lower	Upper			
Follow-up	GroupA	38,75	6.356	1.341	-.36482	.03149	2.720	32	0.001**
	GroupB	32,38	4.523	1.221					

*p<0.01

The analysis of data to address the second research question shows the significance level was lower than 0.05 (t=-2.720; df=32; p=0.001), which led to the conclusion that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups even after the follow-up post-test was given three months later.

Discussion

The results of post-tests analysis displayed that the participants in group A using *quizlet* who studied vocabulary items online performed significantly better than the participants in the group B who incidentally faced the new words in reading passages and after that performed following traditional activities. The results of the present study is in harmony with those of Nelson (1998), Horst et al. (2005), Spiri (2008),and Kilickaya and Krajka (2010) so that various teaching methods accompanied with different activities working on meaning and the form of new words can support student's learning. What's more, students enjoyed playing online games while learning English in general and practicing vocabulary activities in particular. It might help the memorization of the new rather complicated words. Atay and Ozbulgan, (2007) suggested that online vocabulary teaching can further individualize the language learning experience and raising the awareness of strategies which they can use to learn on their own after they leave the language classroom.

There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups even after the follow-up post-test was given two months later. The result was not in agreement with the arguments against glossing (Koren, 1999; Rott et al., 2002) claiming that glossing may discourage guessing from context, causing meanings provided by glosses to be less memorable. Nonetheless, in the current study, the participants benefiting from glossing provided by *qizlet* online program providing students with more words and activities. It is worthy to note that all the participants in group A were guided while using *quizlet*or the incidental vocabulary learning activities.

Conclusion

This study aimed to make a comparison between two vocabulary teaching method, online vocabulary learning and incidental vocabulary learning which are both shown to have positive results on students' improvement in word leaning. However, results pinpointed that CALL (quizlet program) assisted Iranian EFL learners to gain content vocabularies in online activitiesand games when compared to just reading and facing them incidentally in passages activities.

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The effect of using mobile applications on English Vocabulary Learning by Iranian students

فاطمه تکلو[11]

Abstract

Memorizing English vocabulary is often a boring activity during learning. The present study reports the usefulness of Mobile game applications in vocabulary learning of Iranian students. The participants, (60) intermediate students of Grade 2 of an English institute were assigned to experimental and control groups. The experimental group learnt some new words via a Mobile application (DR WORDS) in 12 weeks. A vocabulary-based test, acting as pre-test and posttest, was conducted in the first and 12th weeks. A Pre-Test and a Post-Test have been performed to find out the learning abilities of students. The results of the experimental study clearly indicated that English vocabulary learning skills of students had higher statistically significant improvements as a result of using the Mobile application in the experimental group.

Key words: Application, Mobile phones, Mobile learning, DR WORDS App, Vocabulary learning

[11] **دکتری آموزش زبان انگلیسی،تهران ، فاطمی سیندخت جنوبی کوچه منیژه واحد 1 /کدپستی ۱۴۱۸۶۳۶۹۱۴ / موبایل۰۹۱۲۶۱۲۲۰۸۳ / f.takallou@gmail.com**

1. Introduction

Nowadays using mobile is increasing every day. People use Mobile for different targets. Some of them use only for connecting with others. But today producing high numbers of new cell phone with high technology; like smart phones is growing so fast; so Mobile can play a new role in everyday life ofpeople. They can use for fun or as an important instrument for their jobs. They can pay their bills or even use it as an electronic book. most teenagers using music players in every places and even, every time. Some business men or women monitor the online stuck market or the live exchange rate. it seems that mobile can be a virtual friend for each person. But it is obvious that children are more interested than the others. by using mobile, they could learn many skills. this issue is prompted software engineering for producing various kinds of applications. in each country there are some well-known applications that suggested new applications in different categories. when somebody installs that application on his/her cell phones, he/she can get the new and of course best application(App) for each program according to above, here, we want to introduce an application for learning English vocabulary in second language. In other word we are suggesting "DR WORDS" –name of App- as a very useful instrumental for learning vocabulary. it is downloaded freely and by installing on cell phone, can use it simply. "DR WORDS"APK is focused on the words of books "504 absolutely essential words" and "1100 words you need to know". these two books are the best for leaning vocabulary by beginners.

2. Statement of the problem

There are so many studies and researches about learning English vocabulary on the net. but in this study there are some things new. this study is aimed to find out the effectiveness of Mobile applications usage on learning new English vocabulary. learning vocabulary is very important in second language learning but as it is evident that traditional method of learning have some problems for teachers and of course for students .in other words students don't have enough interest for memorizing new words because they believe that it is boring and they forget most of them very soon. There, using mobile and its lots of fun, and attractive world of it, resulted students to use these kinds of applications eagerly so they memorized more words by playing games with their cell phones. also it could be very helpful for teacher to use these kinds of applications. teachers believe that using games in their classrooms could increase the willing of students to learn new lessons specially for memorizing the new English words.

It is evident that each research has some problems. Here will point some of these problems briefly because every day a new version of application and system of smart phones introduced to the world and because each application needs to install on the specific version of android or Ios for Iphone phone, if some students don't have up to date Mobile maybe could not use this application on their phones. the second problem is the size of screen of cell phones. If the resolution of Mobile screen is not high so the quality of screen become low and it may get tired the eyes very soon and the students keep his or her mobile away and don't continue more. third point that may affect the result in this research is that the percentage use of cell phone in girls and boys are different, and maybe divide student to boys and girls could

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be important too. Fourth point that most pay attention is the environment of game application, that how many minutes or hours is attractive for students to play with it and how many times repeat the game.

3.Literature Review

Mobile learning has many benefits and advantage. There have been many studies which work on language learning skills of the students through digital applications. Most of the studies are done on English because it is the most common language in the world. Boyes (2011) pointed out that mobile learning fits many different learning styles as it provides texts, graphics, audios and videos to learners. Furthermore, mobile learning is convenient and flexible as it can be accessed anywhere, at any time, and also allows learners to direct their own learning. Beside that mobile learning permits big data tracking, such as tracking how students use the course, what questions they got right and even their behaviors. Moreover, students are more likely to engage with the learning since they do the training on their own personal devices. Boyes explained that the small screens of mobile devices minimize the amount of information that can be offered to a learner at any given time, so avoiding cognitive overload. That is, mobile learning offers students easily digestible learning. According to Lan, Sung and Chang (2007), mobile assisted language learning (MALL) provides learners with the same chances for independent and targeted practice and instant corrective feedback in contrast to Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). In addition, mobile learning provides learners with easy-to-access multimedia information and engages them in a spontaneous learning environment in which learners can decide the place and time of their learning (Attewell, 2005). Shuler (2009) points out that mobile learning allows students to gather, access, and process information outside the classroom, thus helps in bridging the school, and home learning environments. In addition, it improves collaboration and communication, and at the same time, enables a more personalized learning experience as it is adaptable to individual and diverse learners (Pachler, 2010).

Chen and Chung (2008) designed a personalized mobile English vocabulary learning system based on item response theory and learning memory cycle. The system consists of a remote management server, client mobile learning system and data synchronized agent. In the system, personalized English vocabulary is recommended for each user according to the user's vocabulary ability. The experimental results reveal that the review strategy in the proposed system is very useful for the interested learners.

Hamid Ashrafa, Fateme Ghanei Motlaghb, Maryam Salamic (2014) have a research on 24 of low intermediate Iranian students that learnt some new words via online computer games in 15 weeks. They have a pretest and post-test. after analyze data the findings show that on line games proved to be more effective in learning English vocabulary for Iranian students.

Hsu (2013) investigated the perceptions of EFL students in different countries and reported that most learners believed that mobile technology is a useful and practical tool for language learning. Combining MALL with game-based learning also creates a revolutionary learning model and environment for language learning.

Jim Ranalli (2008) have a research about Learning English with The Sims: exploiting

authentic computer simulation games for L2 learning. his research involved a convenience sample of nine intermediate-level ESL learners.

The Sims is a best-selling computer simulation game that allows players to create a virtual family of characters called Sims, whom they then guide through the challenges of everyday living (Croal, 2003).

Although the characters do not speak the game exposes players to a great deal of written language in the instructions, warnings and information updates, and product descriptions in the extensive virtual catalogs used for shopping in the game. Five thousand words are use in this game.

Likert-scale items and open-ended questions asked participants to evaluate their experience over the four weeks of the study, addressing the following topics:

1.enjoyment from playing the game;2. experience of playing with a partner;3.perceived usefulness and actual use of the supplementary materials;4. perceptions of the value of The Sims as a language-learning tool;5. self-assessment of language-learning gains from the game.

Laleh Aghlara and Nasrin Hadidi Tamjid(2011) constructed a search on The effect of digital games on Iranian vocabulary retention in foreign language acquisition.The participants were 40 six to seven years old girls with no prior knowledge of English which were divided into two equal groups of experiment and control each consisting of 20 participants. The digital game software used was called SHAIEx. After 45 days they indicated the positive effect of using digital games in teaching English vocabulary to children.

Liu and Chu (2010) investigated effects of ubiquitous games on learning outcomes and motivation of English listening and speaking. They demonstrated that the use of ubiquitous games in learning can produce better learning outcomes than the non-gaming method. Nadire cavus, Dorgan Ibrahim (2016) had an article about the interactive mobile applications. They found out the positional of using the developed of applications in improving the learning skills such as vocabulary, pronunciation, listening and comprehension of learner of the English language without the help of the teacher.

Sandberg, Maris and de Geus (2011) designed a mobile English learning application in a serious game form and they observed the effects of the application on fifth grade children with respect to vocabulary learning outcomes. The application composes five different types of games: Yes or No game, multiple choice quiz, a memory game, a spelling quiz and a jigsaw puzzle.It is demonstrated in the study that the application, which allure students, provides adequate learning recipes for them.

Smith et. al. (2013)built an experiment which compares two groups of Chinese college students studying with eBooks that includes inference based computer games and studying with traditional methods like reading hardcopies, multiple choice questions etc. Their study purported that inference based computer games incline students to study and make them learn significantly more vocabulary than the traditional methods.

Smith et al. (2013) constructed a game-based English vocabulary-learning system on e-books and experimentally demonstrated that their interactive e-book game design increased the willing for engaging in English learning. Real-time learning tools and related assistant functions can effectively promote students' English-reading ability, thereby increasing the benefits of English learning.

Yen, Chen and Huang (2016) analogized two mobile English vocabulary learning applications to find out the effects of game related functions on the learning performance. In their study, it is revealed that game applications of the mobile have positive affect on learning new English vocabulary.

Yip and Kwan (2006) compared the learning outcomes of two groups that consist of undergraduate students learning English vocabulary. While students in the first group try to learn English vocabulary by activities based on traditional methods, students of the second group studied with two dedicated websites having games. Their research results show that learning with online games is more effective than activity based learning with respect to learning outcomes. Yu and Guan (2013) designed an English vocabulary passing game on mobiles; they demonstrated the convenience and practicality of the smart phones, which enabled learning to become a part of life. Game-based learning can effectively increase interest in and motivation for engaging in English learning, which consequently enhances English vocabulary knowledge. Wu and Huang (2017) constructed an English vocabulary practice system that utilizes game based learning concept. According to the results they obtain, the game based system not only increased students' interest and attention but also effectively strengthen their memory and learning ability. The use of personal devices affords students' ownership of learning, which may lead to positive language learning experiences (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009). Devices used in mobile learning can range from cellular phones, smart phones, mp3 and mp4 players, iPods, digital cameras, data-travelers, personal digital assistance devices (PDAs), notebooks, laptops, tablets, iPads, e-readers such as the Kindle, Nook, etc. Handheld computers are portable computers, which are small and can be held in one's hand. At present, products like tablets, PDAs (Personal Digital Assistants) and smart phones are quite advanced. They can be used for calculating, browsing online, e-mailing, playing games and music, typewriting, recording video and audio and making phone calls. Cell phones are more common and the most popular of mobile devices. They are so advanced and 'smart' that they can perform almost the same functions and features as personal computers (Cui & Wang, 2008). This study focuses on one type only, which is the smart phone. With thousands of mobile apps buzzing around the internet, these apps are taking a standing role in today's world. They are used in almost every sector today, from industries, banking, education, entertainment, and media (Chen, Hsieh & Kinshuk, 2008). Hundreds of Apps, some of which can even be downloaded as free open sources, are widely available as the internet provides different mechanisms and algorithms to learn language in a simpler form. The famous among these Apps is called, "Ko_Su" which is used for Android and Apple users.

4. Research Question

An attempt will make in this study to find appropriate answers to following questions:

Does the application "DR WORDS" lead to the improvement of Iranian EFL learners vocabulary learning?

Does the application "DR WORDS" make students feel more relax and interested in learning English vocabulary?

5.Method

5.1.   Participants

This study conducted at an English institute in Isfahan. A total of 60students were selected from intermediate English learners of Grade 2 and were (16-24) years. So there was not any significant difference between the control group and experimental groups in terms of proficiency level and lexical knowledge. the 60 selected students were divided in to two groups consisting of experimental group (male and female) and control group (male and female).

5.2.Instruments

"DR WORDS" is an application that produce by Mohammad Aminzadeh Noori and it's a game that learn all the words of book "504 absolutely essential words "and "1100 words you need to know". each student can play this game every day and add more and more new words to his or her memorized words. so he/she can see his/her errors and have all of them in a page in application and repeat them every places and every day. each test in this game have 20 questions that choose randomly from book "504 absolutely essential words "or "1100 words you need to know" and after finish the test the score will show and the player could see his/her growth curve. furthermore he/she can listen to the pronunciation of each words and could mark the error with his/her favorite picture or favorite recorded sounds and it can help more for memorize the new words.
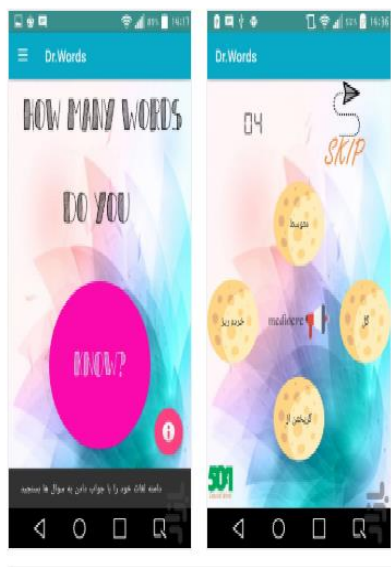
Figure1: DR WORDS vocabulary question   Figure2:DR WORDS screen display
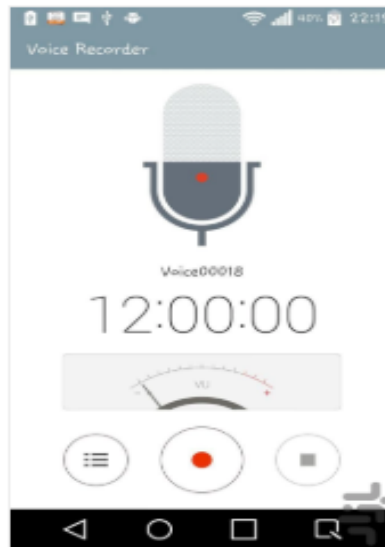
5.3.   Procedure

a vocabulary pretest was designed and administered to the participants to the study and it was based on the words that students didn't know. each group(both the experimental and control groups)had the same teacher and was taught the same set of the words but experimental group, used the application 20 minute every day. Three months later, the posttest were administered in order to measure the effect of this method on students.

6.Results and Discussion

The results of vocabulary posttest in both 2 groups were compare using paired samples procedure, whose results showed that the mean score of both groups has increased,but this growth was significant for experimental groups. The results of the descriptive statistics on the control group pretest and post-test as well as the experimental group pretest and post-test have been paired and indicated in table 1.

Table 1.paired samples descriptive statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest control Group	9.4333	30	2.17641	.39736
	Posttestcontrol Group	10.7000	30	1.62205	.29614
Pair 2	Pretestexperimental Group	9.8000	30	1.91905	.35037
	Posttest experimental Group	12.1333	30	3.07081	.56065

A paired T-test has been applied in order to find out if there is any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and post-test as well as between the means

of the control group and experimental group. table 2 demonstrates the results of T-test run between the paired groups.

Table 2. Paired Samples T- Test

		Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest control Group-Posttestcontrol Group	-1.26667	2.37709	.43400	-2.15429	-.37905	-2.919	29	.007
Pair 2	Pretestexperimental Group-posttest experimental Group	-2.33333	3.43745	.62759	-3.61690	-1.04977	-3.718	29	.001

As it has been indicated in Table 2 ,since the significance between the control group pretest and post-test have been(.007) ,we can say that the difference between the means scores of the two tests has been statistically significant (p<.05).the significance degree between the experimental pretest and post-test (.001) illustrates that the difference between the two tests before and after the treatment is also statistically significant (p<.05). which indicates that mobile application has significantly influenced the students. Accordingly, it is concluded that for experimental group, (DR WORDS) App was effective. thus the application of vocabulary (DR WORDS) led to the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners᾿ vocabulary learning. the findings of this study showed that using Mobile application (DR WORDS) make students feel more relax and interested in learning English vocabulary.

7. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of mobile applications on the learning of English vocabulary. The pretest and post-test results showed that students which followed the Mobile application had a better result in the learning of new words. While there was not any significant difference between the control group and experimental groups in terms of proficiency level because they were in the same level (Grade 2) of an English institute, at the outset of the study, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the termination of the study.

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The Impact of Brainstorming on EFL University Students' Reading Achievement and Action Control

Setare Soltani, MA in Applied Linguistics, Imam Reza International University, Mashhad, Iran

Hossein Bakhshi, PhD in Applied Linguistics, Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch, Tehran, Iran

Abstract

Reading is considered as a significant life skill and the lack of reading comprehension influences learner's academic advances. Pre-reading activities are important factors in motivating the readers to read the text, and when they are motivated, they get prepared for reading activity (Chastain, 1988). The present study aimed at investigating a sample of Iranian EFL university learners to explore the effect of brainstorming strategy on their action control and their reading achievement. Two groups of EFL learners, selected in terms of the convenience and their level of language proficiency, participated in the study (i.e, an experimental and a control groups) as the research contained a treatment. The study applied a qusi- experimental approach. The participants were selected from among Adineh Elmi-Karbordi University EFL learners. The initial sample consisted of 70 non-English major students from ESP classes. After administering the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), the researcher selected 50 students, of both males and females, who were homogeneous in terms of their scores for the study. The students in the control group received the traditional method of teaching reading but the students in the experimental group was taught reading by applying brainstorming strategy as the treatment. Moreover, the participants' action control was

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measured by the relevant scale before and after treatment to compare the likely effects of the treatment. The results showed that brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant change in Iranian EFL university students' action control in a reading course. The results; however, indicated that brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy significantly affects the participants' reading achievement in a reading course.

Key words: Reading Achievement, Action Control, Brainstorming, Pre-reading Strategies

Introduction

Reading is considered as a significant life skill and the lack of reading comprehension influence the learner's academic advances. Pre reading activities are important factors in motivating the readers to read the text, and when they have motivation, they become prepared for reading activity (Chastain, 1988). According to Chastain (1988), the purpose of pre-reading activities is to motivate the learners who like to read the assignment and to provide them to have ability to read it. One of pre reading strategies is brainstorming. Brainstorming is a technique which causes achievement and capability in reading comprehension. Osborn (1953) defined the notion of brainstorming as a group creativity technique through which members make efforts to find a solution for a specific problem by gathering a list of ideas instinctively. We cannot just rely on conventional techniques of reading instruction that involve reading text, explaining its meaning, and answering its questions. Kang (2004) believed that reading includes so many mental activities that cause students to comprehend the main idea of the text, therefore; learners should employ tools which develop text comprehension. Before communication is started many psychological processes need to be initiated in the mind of the reader. Such activities can provide opportunities for communicative interaction (McDonough, 2004) and initiate a supportive learning atmosphere to exchange ideas and acquire knowledge (Mohamed &Mahmoud, 2014).

Another consideration of this research examines the action control system, defined in terms of stable individual differences, predicts key affective reactions to language communication. In the mid-1990s, Kuhl (1994a) published Action-control theory (ACT) to elaborate on the process of starting an action. The theory explains individual difference in action leanings according to links to basic brain functions such as excitement and inhibition. Action-control theory focuses on the motivational processes that occur from the "awakening of a person's wishes prior to goal-setting through to" the evaluative thoughts entertained after goal striving has ended" (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 55).

A major focus of Kuhl's action control theory is the strategies that enable people to protect an intention from competing action alternatives. These action control strategies are invoked

when some obstacle is encountered while executing an intention. In the case of students, such obstacles or challenges may include distractions from both internal and external sources. For example, the student who intends to study for an upcoming test may be required to block out thoughts of competing, and perhaps more desirable action alternatives, such as going on a date with a boy or girl friend. Failure experiences, such as receiving a poor grade on a test or assignment can also cause difficulties for students by evoking repetitive "worry" thoughts, which would interfere with performance on subsequent tasks. Besides such internal distractions, external ones such as loud music played by a roommate may also pose a challenge to students' studying efforts.

Kuhl (1984b) depicts six general action control strategies that maintain and protect a current intention under these circumstances, thereby allowing it to be carried out. These include: 1) Selective control of attention, which involves focusing attention exclusively on information that is related to the current intention; 2) Encoding control, referring to the selective encoding of information that is related to the current intention; 3) Economy of information processing, which involves optimizing the length of information processing and preventing excessive weighing of action alternatives; 4) Control of emotions, whereby emotions such as depression or worry that might interfere with enacting an intention are inhibited. Conversely, feelings that promote an action tendency are aroused. 5) Motivation control, which relates to strengthening the motivation that gave rise to the current intention by, for example, focusing on the positive consequences of an intended action. 6) Lastly, environmental control refers to creating an environment that maximizes execution of an intention.

As far as the researchers of the present study reviewed the related literature, there were very few research studies which investigate the viability of brainstorming strategy at university level of non-English major students. Accordingly, the present study aims at investigating a sample of Iranian EFL learners in university to explore the effect of brainstorming strategy on their action control and their reading achievement. The main goal of the study is to answer the following questions,

1. Does brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy have any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' reading achievement in a reading course?

2. Does brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy have any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action control in a reading course?

Review of the Related Literature

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a combination of a relaxed, informal approach to problem-solving and lateral thinking. People are asked to find ideas and thoughts that can at first seem to be a bit irrelevant. The idea is to use some of these ideas to form original, creative solutions to problems. Even some seemingly useless ideas can spark still more ideas. The goal of

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brainstorming is to direct people to new ways of thinking and break from the usual way of reasoning. The most important thing about brainstorming is that there should be no criticism of ideas. Students try to open up possibilities and discard wrong assumptions about the limits of the problem. Judgments and analysis of ideas are explored after the brainstorming process while focus should be at this stage on idea generation. Brainstorming contributes to the generation of creative solutions to a problem. It teaches students to breaks away from old patterns of reasoning to new unexplored paths of thinking.

Problem solving has become an essential part of teaching and learning process. Thus, brainstorming can make group problem-solving a less sterile and a more satisfactory process. It can also be used with the class to bring the various students experiences into play. This increases the richness of ideas explored, particularly before reading, listening and writing activities. Brainstorming is fun. That's why it helps student-student and students-teacher relationships to get stronger as they solve problems in a positive, stress-free environment.

Teachers can serve as catalysts for promoting interaction between students and the text book information (Allington, 2002; D'Arcangelo, 2002; Neal & Langer, 1992). They can help activate and organize students' prior knowledge about a topic and the text. When teachers know what students bring to their reading, they can purposefully choose strategies that connect the *old* and *new* of the text (Jacobs, 2002). These strategies can help clarify unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts, help students anticipate the text, and help them make personal connections with it. Brainstorming is a group creativity framework for general ideas (Al-maghrawy, 2012). Zayton (2001) stated that brainstorming was developed by Alex Osborn to produce ideas without inhibition. Brainstorming technique involves oral exercises for helping the learner and for expressing ideas by the teacher. Park-Gates (2001) measured and compared the effect of group brainstorming versus individual brainstorming on creativity. He revealed that students who participated in group brainstorming found the idea generation task significantly more difficult than those students who brainstormed alone. Although those who brainstormed alone found the task easier, they felt more strongly that they would have generated more ideas in a group than those in group brainstorming felt that they would have generated more ideas alone. Moreover, he found that Group interactive brainstorming did not yield higher creativity than individual brainstorming.

Brainstorming has a great importance in the teaching process. According to Sayed (2009), brainstorming referred to its importance for students as follows:

1. Helps students to solve problems, an innovative solution.
2. Helps students to benefit from the ideas of others through the development and build on them.
3. Helps the cohesion of the students and build relationships among them and assess the views of others.

Richards (1990) found that brainstorming was an important part of developing the cognitive skills involved in generating ideas in student interaction. Indeed, he found that students who were trained in brainstorming techniques were more efficient at generating and organizing ideas than students in a control group. According to Rao (2007), students who had been trained in brainstorming techniques and used them regularly over a twelve month period produced measurably higher results in writing tasks. In addition, students who participated in

this research project felt positive about the effectiveness of the brainstorming techniques. Ghabanchi and Behrooznia (2014) aimed to show the effect of brainstorming as a pre-reading technique on reading comprehension and also the ability of EFL learners in critical thinking. Findings indicated that students' reading comprehension ability as well as their critical thinking ability promote after employing brainstorming strategy. Navaee and Asadi (2015) examined the impact of brainstorming technique in EFL student's reading comprehension and found that brainstorming had a significant role in promoting the learners' comprehension ability.

Action control

The notion of volition or action control conceived by Julius Kuhl (1985), refers to the ability of individuals to perform their intentions or goals, despite the presence of competing action tendencies. Kuhl's (1985) theory of action control focuses on the processes that protect a current intention from competing action tendencies.

Main focuses of Kuhl's action control theory are the strategies that permit people to protect an intention from competing action alternatives. In the case of students and the educational domain, the theory would predict that students who are action-oriented would be better equipped to deal with various challenges, such as failing a test, thereby increasing the likelihood of success in college. Six general action control strategies described by Kuhl (1985) that maintain and protect a current intention under these circumstances, so allowing it to be carried out. These include: 1) Selective control of attention, 2) Encoding control, 3) Economy of information processing,

4) Control of emotions, 5) Motivation control and, 6) environmental control.

In the mid-1990s, Kuhl (1994a) distributed Action-control theory (ACT) to account for the process of initiating action. The theory clarified individual difference in action tendencies grounded on links to basic brain functions such as excitement and inhibition.

Diefendorff (2004) noted that Kuhl's theory has contributed to the understanding of goal-setting and performance. Therefore, Kuhl (1994a) made the significant observation that choosing a goal, and even motivating for it, does not mean that the goal will be followed to completion, or that goal-related behaviors ever will be performed. Students who have chosen goals for L2 learning, but who delay to act and therefore disrupt or avoid learning can be considered state-oriented as opposed to action-oriented. In other words, action-oriented individuals continued in using effective strategies following failure, while maintaining a sense of competence. In contrast, state-oriented subjects showed increased negative effect, associated with lack of ability statements and verbalization of inappropriate strategies to solving the reasoning task.

Gollwitzer (1990) revealed that action-control theory focuses on the motivational processes that occur from the "awakening of a person's wishes prior to goal-setting" through to the evaluative thoughts entertained after goal striving has ended" (p.55).

A recent study by Parks-Stamm et al. (2007) examined action control via implementation intentions (Parks-Stamm, Gollwitzer& Oettingen, 2007). They suggested that if-then plans, referred to as implementation intentions, were accomplished of facilitating goal attainment through two processes; by acting on the activation of expected situational cues (if-process) or automating the reaction to that cue as directed by the goal (then-process). The study demonstrated that those who use implementation intentions increase their likelihood of goal attainment. In the L2 domain, if a learner makes use of deliberate strategies that control actions, such as if-then plans, they will be more likely to thrive in reaching their goal of learning the second language than will those who are simply focusing on the goal itself.

Kuhl's (1994) designed action Control Scale (ACS-90). Three subscales structured the ACS-90: Hesitation, Preoccupation and Volatility. MacIntyre and Doucette (2009) examined three key concepts, preoccupation, volatility, and hesitation on WTC in the second language. They proposed that a lack of WTC inside and outside the language classroom is related to tendencies for a disruption in action control.

Method

Design

The current study is experimental in nature. The researcher used two groups (i.e, an experimental and a control) and the research contained a treatment; however, it proceeded by applying qusi- experimental design, that is, an empirical study was used to estimate the causal impact of an intervention on its target population without random assignment.

Participants

The participants of the study were selected based on availibility and language proficiency. They were selected from Adineh Elmi-Karbordi University in Mashhad. The initial sample was 70 non-English major students from ESP classes. After administering Oxford Placement Test (OPT), 50 students that their proficiency level were intermediate based on the OPT scores were selected for the study. Then they were divided into two groups, control group and experimental group. They were both male and female learners. Their age was between 19-30 years old. The participants' first language was Persian.

Instruments

Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

OPT containing three parts (Part One: Questions 1 – 40; Part Two: Questions 41 – 60; and Part Three: Writing section) was performed. The test helped the researcher to make sure that

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all subjects were in the advanced proficiency level. The test has been developed by Oxford University Press in 2001, after consultation with many teachers to assess the subject's knowledge of the key language as well as their receptive and productive skills.

Reading Comprehension Material (TOEFL tests)

Reading comprehension materials of this study were selected from TOFEL test (reading module, 2016). The purpose behind selecting TOFEL as the reading material was that the validity of them was assured before by the TOFEL examination board. 15 reading comprehension were selected based on their difficulty level and the general background knowledge of the learners.

Action control scale (Kuhl, 1994)

This measure consists of three subscales. Each scale consists of 12 dichotomous, forced-choice items, which describe a particular situation. The items were presented in mixed random order. The subscales include:

1. Preoccupation (failure-related action orientation)

The 12 items in this subscale describe situations in which thoughts concerning unpleasant experiences interfere with one's behavior-changing ability. The sum of the answers ranges from 0 to 12. For example, "When I'm in a competition and have lost every time: (a) I can soon put losing out of my mind, (b) the thought that I lost keeps running through my mind.".

2. Hesitation (decision-related action orientation)

The 12 items in this subscale describe difficulties associated with initiating an intended activity without referring to ruminating thoughts due to state orientation. The sum of the answers ranges from 0 to 12. For example, "When I know I must finish something soon: (a) I have to push myself to get started, (b) I find it easy to get it done and over with."

3. Volatility (performance-related action orientation)

The 12 items in this subscale describe one's ability to continue pleasant activities without a sudden shift to alternative activities. The sum of answers ranges from 0 to 12. For example, "when I have learned a new and interesting game: (a) I quickly get tired of it and do something else, (b) I can really get into it for a long time."

Procedure for Data Collection

The participants were divided into two groups, control group and experimental group. The content and materials that were taught to control and experimental were the same, but the way of teaching was different. The students in control group received the traditional method of teaching reading and the students of experimental group received brainstorming strategy as the treatment. The treatment was held for five sessions and it was held once a week. Every session was about 90 minutes. None of the groups had any previous experience in brainstorming strategy. The teachers of both groups were required to indirectly check the

learners' progress over the sessions. This helped the researchers ensured that the treatment is performed appropriately, since in some sessions directions or guidelines were provided by the researcher as to how to instruct the desired methods of teaching. In the experimental group, the teacher of the class used the warm up questions in order to activate background knowledge of the students about the topic of the reading comprehension. Another brainstorming method that was used by the teacher was pictorials in which the teacher presented some photos regarding the content of reading comprehension and after a brief explanation about them asked the students to discuss about them. Then the teacher distributed the reading material to the students and asked them to read it in 10 minutes. In the control group, the teacher didn't involve the students in a discussion about the reading topic and did not engage them in brainstorming activities. The students were directly provided with the reading material.

An immediate test was covered having 10 reading comprehension questions carrying out every other session at the end of each reading comprehension lesson. The last session was devoted to conduct the post-test including 15 one-sentence questions at the end of treatment in order to measure the effects of brainstorming strategy on the reading achievement of the learners. In order to better comprehension of and action control scale by participants and enhancing their content validity, all of them were translated into Persian that was the first language of the participants. Then, the translated action control scale was reviewed by two experts in the field and they proved the content validity of the translated action control scale. Before distributing the action control scale to the participants, they were ensured that their identities were kept confidential and that no information revealing their identity was used in the study. The action control scale was administered simultaneously during a single session, once before starting the treatment session and another time administered at the end of the treatment. The first researcher gave brief information about the purpose of the questionnaires, their scope, and their significance for EFL learning and teaching. Then the instrument was distributed to the participants. The action control scale was answered within 35 minutes by the participants. For the sake of better comprehension, participants completed the action control scale in their L1 Persian.

Results
Results of the data analyses are presented in some major sections dealing with the results of the homogeneity test (OPT), checking the normality of the research data, and the results of independent-samples t-tests.

Results of the Oxford Placement Test (OPT)
As stated earlier in method section, the OPT was used to homogenize the initial participants. Table 1. represents the results of the homogeneity test.

Table 1:

Descriptive Statistics of the Homogeneity Test

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
70	37.00	58.00	43.71	6.50

The mean value and standard deviation of the OPT are 43.718 and 6.50 respectively. Based on the guideline provided for the test, those whose score is 30-47 are known as intermediate EFL learner. Therefore, 50 students were retained as the final participants of the study.

Assessing the Normality of the Research Data

Like any other quantitative research, the first step in data analysis was to check the normality assumption. To determine the normality of the research data, thus, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was ran on the scores. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality

Scale	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretest of Action orientation subsequent to failure vs. preoccupation	.107	50	.200*
Posttest of Action orientation subsequent to failure vs. preoccupation	.118	50	.078
Reading Comprehension Pretest	.112	50	.163
Reading Comprehension Posttest	.118	50	.077
Pretest of Prospective and decision-related action orientation vs. hesitation	.112	50	.163
Posttest of Prospective and decision-related action orientation vs. hesitation	.113	50	.138
Pretest of Action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) vs. volatility	.122	50	.061
Posttest of Action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) vs. volatility	.123	50	.058

As displayed in Table 2, the scores were normally distributed ($p > .05$). Therefore, running parametric tests to compare the mean values of the pretests and the posttests is allowed. In this study, the independent-samples t-test was selected to compare the performance of the participants before and after the treatment. In the following, the research hypotheses are tested.

Testing $H_0 1$

The first research hypothesis assumed that brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' reading achievement in a reading course. Tables 3 to 4 represent the results of the inferential statistics for testing $H_0 1$.

Table 3.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Reading Achievement Pretest

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	7.88	2.00	.40
Experimental	25	7.16	2.05	.41

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the reading achievement pretest are 7.88 and 2.00 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 7.16 and 2.05 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 4.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Reading Achievement Pretest

T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
1.253	48	.216	.72000	.57446	-.43502	1.87502

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the reading achievement test prior to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group ($M = 7.88$, $SD = 2.00$) and the experimental group ($M = 7.16$, $SD = 2.05$; $t(48) = 1.25$, $p = .216$, two-tailed). The result of the comparison of the posttest scores are provided in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Reading Achievement Posttest

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	8.92	2.21	.44
Experimental	25	10.28	1.56	.31

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the reading achievement posttest are 8.92 and 2.21 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 10.28 and 1.56 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 6.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Reading Achievement Posttest

t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
-2.50	48	.016	-1.36000	.54295	-2.45168	-.26832

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the reading achievement test subsequent to the treatment. There was a significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group ($M = 8.92$, $SD = 2.21$) and the experimental group ($M = 10.28$, $SD = 1.56$; $t(48) = -2.50$, $p = .016$, two-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and it could be said that brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy brings about a positive and significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' reading achievement in a reading course.

Testing $H_0 2$.

The second research hypothesis assumed that brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action control in a reading course. Considering the scale used in the study and different elements of action control, the hypothesis was divided into three sub-hypotheses as follows:

$H_0 2$-1: Brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action orientation subsequent to failure in a reading course.

$H_0 2$-2: Brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' prospective and decision-related action orientation in a reading course.

$H_0 2$-3: Brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) in a reading course.

Testing $H_0 4$-1

Tables 7 to 8 represent the results of the inferential statistics for testing $H_0 2$-1.

Table 7.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Pretest of Action Orientation Subsequent To Failure

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	6.80	2.44	.48
Experimental	25	6.32	1.62	.32

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the pretest of action orientation subsequent to failure are 6.80 and 2.44 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 6.32 and 1.62 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 8.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Pretest of Action Orientation Subsequent To Failure

T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
.81	48	.418	.48	.58	-.70	1.66

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the action orientation subsequent to failure test prior to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group ($M = 6.80$, $SD = 2.44$) and the experimental group ($M = 6.32$, $SD = 1.62$; $t(48) = .81$, $p = .418$, two-tailed). The result of the comparison of the posttest scores are provided in Tables 9 and 10.

Table 9.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Posttest of Action Orientation Subsequent To Failure

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	7.68	2.35	.47
Experimental	25	7.28	1.86	.37

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the posttest of action orientation subsequent to failure are 7.68 and 2.35 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 7.28 and 1.86 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 10.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Posttest of Action Orientation Subsequent To Failure

t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
.66	48	.509	.40	.60	-.80	1.60

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the action orientation subsequent to failure test subsequent to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group (M = 7.68, SD = 2.35) and the experimental group (M = 7.28, SD = 1.86; t (48) = .66, p = .509, two-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis is confirmed and it could be said that brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action orientation subsequent to failure in a reading course.

Testing $H_0$2-2
Tables 11 to 12 represent the results of the inferential statistics for testing $H_0$2-2.

Table 11.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Pretest of Prospective and Decision-Related Action Orientation

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	6.88	2.00	.40
Experimental	25	6.16	2.05	.41

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the pretest of prospective and decision-related action orientation are 6.88 and 2.00 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 6.16 and 2.05 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 12.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Pretest of Prospective and Decision-Related Action Orientation

T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
1.25	48	.216	.72	.57	-.43	1.87

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the prospective and decision-related action orientation test prior to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group (M = 6.88, SD = 2.00) and the experimental group (M = 6.16, SD = 2.05; t (48) = 1.25, p = .216, two-tailed). The result of the comparison of the posttest scores are provided in Tables 13 and 14.

Table 13.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Posttest of Prospective and Decision-Related Action Orientation

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	6.84	1.92	.38
Experimental	25	6.32	2.30	.46

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the posttest of prospective and decision-related action orientation are 6.84 and 1.92 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 6.32 and 2.30 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 14.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Posttest of Prospective and Decision-Related Action Orientation

T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
.86	48	.391	.52	.60	-.68	1.72

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the prospective and decision-related action orientation test subsequent to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group ($M = 6.84$, $SD = 1.92$) and the experimental group ($M = 6.32$, $SD = 2.30$; $t (48) = .86$, $p = .391$, two-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis is confirmed and it could be said that brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' prospective and decision-related action orientation in a reading course.

Testing $H_0$2-3

Tables 15 to 16 represent the results of the inferential statistics for testing $H_0$2-3.

Table 15.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Pretest of Action Orientation during (Successful) Performance of Activities (Intrinsic Orientation)

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	6.72	2.03	.40
Experimental	25	6.16	2.01	.40

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the pretest of action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) are 6.72 and 2.03 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 6.16 and 2.01 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 16.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Pretest of Action Orientation during (Successful) Performance of Activities (Intrinsic Orientation)

T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
.97	48	.333	.56	.57	-.59	1.71

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) test prior to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group (M = 6.72, SD = 2.03) and the experimental group (M = 6.16, SD = 2.01; t (48) = .97, p = .333, two-tailed). The result of the comparison of the posttest scores are provided in Tables 17 and 18.

Table 17.

Group Statistics of the Participants' Scores on the Posttest of Action Orientation during (Successful) Performance of Activities (Intrinsic Orientation)

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	6.88	1.92	.38
Experimental	25	5.92	1.91	.38

The mean value and standard deviation of the control participants' scores on the action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) posttest are 6.88 and 1.92 respectively. Also, the values for the experimental group are 5.92 and 1.91 respectively. To compare the mean values of the groups, an independent-samples t-test was run.

Table 18.

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for the Posttest of Action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation)

T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference

					Lower	Upper
1.77	48	.083	.96	.54	-.13	2.05

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups on the action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) test subsequent to the treatment. There was no significant difference in scores for the participants of the control group (*M* = 6.88, *SD* = 1.92) and the experimental group (*M* = 5.92, *SD* = 1.91; *t* (48) = 1.77, *p* = .083, two-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis is confirmed and it could be said that brainstorming, as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action orientation during (successful) performance of activities (intrinsic orientation) in a reading course.

Discussion

In general, the findings of the study support Pressley's (2000) claim that reading may need to be developed via overt training in reading strategies, which focus on comprehension processes. Further support to the findings of the study could be found in Lowe et. al. (2005) who point out that for students to read well, one must be taught how to effectively interact with the text at hand. This training helps in search for connections between what they know and what is new information in the text selection. Additionally, it would help them fix faulty comprehension when they know it has occurred as well as decide on the important information in the text. Then finally, search for connections within text and across text by using prior knowledge to help integrate information and understanding. The process of seeking for understanding involves learners' ability to question themselves, the author, and the text as they read, and then respond to text both orally and in written forms.

Overall, it could be argued again that learners might be unsuccessful to understand the texts while researching text. Functions of pre-reading activity are to present and arouse interest in the topic of the text, to encourage learners by giving a reason for reading, and to provide some language groundwork for the text. Chastain (1988) points out that the aim of pre-reading activities is to inspire the students to read. Brainstorming, as a pre-reading activity creates a chance to trial the learners to recall their prior knowledge. It has been enhanced to aid learners associate new information in written discourse to their prior knowledge. This knowledge is n vital component in reading process.

Considering the first research question, brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy brings about a positive and significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' reading achievement. The findings related to testing the first research hypothesis are directly consistent with Ghabanchi and Behrooznia (2014) who explored the effect of brainstorming as a pre-reading technique on reading comprehension and also the ability of EFL learners in critical thinking. Findings indicated that students' reading comprehension ability as well as their critical thinking ability promote after employing brainstorming strategy. It is also in line

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with Navaee and Asadi (2015) who studied the impact of brainstorming technique in EFL student's reading comprehension and found that brainstorming had a significant role in promoting the learners' comprehension ability.

Regarding the second research question, brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action control in reading course. However, no relevant study was found with regards to the lack of effect of brainstorming on action control. This issue might be further explored by future research studies. A recent study by Parks-Stamm et al. (2007) examined action control via implementation intentions (Parks-Stamm, Gollwitzer& Oettingen, 2007). They suggested that if-then plans, referred to as implementation intentions, were accomplished of facilitating goal attainment through two processes; by acting on the activation of expected situational cues (if-process) or automating the reaction to that cue as directed by the goal (then-process). The study demonstrated that those who use implementation intentions increase their likelihood of goal attainment. In the L2 domain, if a learner makes use of deliberate strategies that control actions, such as if-then plans, they will be more likely to thrive in reaching their goal of learning the second language than will those who are simply focusing on the goal itself.

Conclusion

This study aimed at investigating the effect of brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy on reading achievement, reading action control of Iranian EFL learners. The results showed that brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy does not bring about any significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' action control in a reading course. And also the results indicated that brainstorming as a pre-reading strategy brings about a significant effect on Iranian EFL university students' reading achievement in a reading course. Teachers can serve as catalysts for promoting interaction between students and the text book information (Allington, 2002; D'Arcangelo, 2002; Neal & Langer, 1992). They can help activate and organize students' prior knowledge about a topic and the text. When teachers know what students bring to their reading, they can purposefully choose strategies that connect the *old* and *new* of the text (Jacobs, 2002). These strategies can help clarify unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts, help students anticipate the text, and help them make personal connections with it. Since pre-reading strategies are not properly used, the learners' prior knowledge is not activated. Similarly, they do not consider questions provided at pre-reading phase. This is because of perception that it can consume their time and the fear that they may not cover their annual plan. Thus, this brought low motivation towards those activities which leads to passive interaction in classrooms. On the other hand, vocabulary pre-teaching is being practiced though the teachers do not attend procedural implementation. Teaching of words or phrases that are taken from the text enabled learners to be stimulated before actual reading. Teachers have the role of choosing some new word from the text and teaching them in order to control the problem where students are likely to be held back.

Pre-reading strategies such as pictorial strategy and pre-questioning strategy should be considered as the essential tools in the reading classes. Thus, teachers and students can use

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pictures provided in the textbook as pre-reading activity. This draws the attention of EFL teachers to encourage their learners to seek ways to improve their self-efficacy to reduce their anxiety by preparing their mind while reading in English. EFL teachers can raise their learners' consciousness about self-efficacy in reading comprehension. This should necessarily result in change in their beliefs about foreign language reading comprehension. Cultural unfamiliarity, topic unfamiliarity, limited vocabulary knowledge and shortage of time are the problems that impede the teachers and learners to implement pre-reading activities and they should be considered by EFL teachers and material developers.

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When Practice Distances itself from Policy!

A Comparative Evaluation of Three Generations of EAP Textbooks in Iran
Contrastive studies in higher education

Abutaleb Iranmehr[12]*

Hossein Davari[13]

Abstract

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), as a significant branch of English Language Teaching (ELT), has been taken seriously in higher educational systems in recent decades. The trend has also expanded in Iran especially in the last two decades. The research findings reveal that the top-down trend in EAP curriculum policy-making is still dominant in Iran in the sense that EAP policies are issued to systematize EAP programs and objectives are set to operationalize these policies. Despite the implementation of this centralized curriculum, the research on the status of Iranian EAP textbooks, probably as the most important component of EAP in Iranian academic setting, shows that this branch has experienced the appearance of three generations of textbooks in its around four-decade lifetime. While policy-making in this field has not been considerably changed, textbook development, as an inevitable practice in any language teaching program, has evolved. Studying the reasons for this change indicates that due to some global as well as national developments in the fields of education, economy, communication, science, etc., the needs and desires of EAP learners have pushed the materials developers to present different EAP textbooks with respect to their content and structure. Considering these points, in this paper, firstly the authors attempt to provide a vivid picture of EAP policy and practice in Iran. Then, through reviewing and comparing the features of three generations of EAP textbooks published so far for Iranian higher educational system, their main changes are described and analyzed. Finally, the reasons and rationale for such a transformation in which practice distances itself from policy are dealt with.

Keywords: English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English Language Teaching (ELT), Policy, Practice, EAP Textbook.

Introduction

The need for worldwide communication in different sectors (e.g. business, academics, etc.) has raised the status of English to a medium for international communication. English is currently the language with the highest number of L2 speakers, and predictions are made that it would extend its borders to extremes unforeseen before (Henderson, 2011).With the

Assistant Professor, English Language Department, Shahrood University of Technology *[12]

English Language Department, Shahrood University of Technology, Shahrood, Iran.
Email address: a.iranmehr946@yahoo.com
Zip code: 3619995161
Mobile phone: +98-9122317138

[13] Assistant Professor, English Language Department, Damghan University
English Language Department, Damghan University, Damghan, Iran.
Email address: hdavari.h@gmail.com
Zip code: 3671641167
Mobile phone: +98-9124976878

passage of time, English has established itself as the language of science and technology and has gained the status of English as an international language (EIL) as a means of communication for students, and English as a lingua franca in academic setting (ELFA) (McKay, 2011; Seargeant, 2016) to the point that most researches and academic publications are being conducted and published in English (Hyland, 2016).

In such a situation, English for academic purposes (EAP), as a branch of English for specific purposes (ESP), has strongly appealed to applied linguistics researchers during the last two decades. Contrary to ESP which is a more inclusive field and deals with the learning and use of English in a wider number of settings, EAP is only concerned with the learning and use of English in academic settings, universities in particular.

The status of the EAP radically changed in early 1960s (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Paltridge & Starfield, 2013; Swales, 1988) when researchers began to recognize that EAP deserves a research agenda independent of the fields of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) (Johns, 2013).

Alongside this radical change, the academics in Iran have noticed the importance of EAP and, consequently, the number of research studies in this area has flourished in recent decades (Atai, 2013). The problem is that, on the one hand, EAP research and practice in the Iranian settings seem dissociated in the sense that ideas have rarely fed into one by the other. In fact, EAP practice has lagged behind EAP research in Iran (see Atai, 2002a, 2013). The decisions, policies and objectives set for Iranian EAP programs do not often come from the research camp (Hayati, 2008). In the same way, the EAP research camp has not preoccupied itself with issues of concern for the broader educational system. On the other hand, the practice, especially in the field of textbooks development, distances itself from policy in a way that we can see textbook development, as an inevitable practice in any language teaching program, has evolved.

Conceiving this significant change, this paper firstly attempts to deal with the EAP policy in Iran. Then, the developments in the field especially in the realm of textbooks development are introduced. Showing the distance between policy and practice, three generations of EAP textbooks published in the last three decades are compared and finally the reasons and rationale for such a transformation in which practice distances itself from policy are dealt with.

EAP in Higher Educational System in Iran

Due to the technological advances in today's world, English language in general, and EAP in particular, has gained an important position in meeting the students' specific needs in their course of studies and future careers. The ESP/EAP programs are designed to prepare the students to communicate easily in their academic and occupational situations nationally and internationally.

EAP has been developing in the ELT curriculum at Iranian universities and has become a major part of the curricula (Atai & Tahririan, 2003). The main objective of the EAP programs is claimed to be "bridging the gap between the students' GE competence and their ability to read authentic discipline-specific texts" (Atai, 2006, p. 28). University students must be able

to read their discipline-based English textbooks, study field-related scientific articles, and search internet sources. Through EAP courses, students are aimed to develop target reading skills. Based on various EAP curricula in different academic fields, students are required to pass between one and three optional/obligatory EAP courses planned by MSRT, while students possess a substandard level of General English proficiency (GEP) required for entering EAP courses (Atai & Tahririan, 2003). According to Atai (2002a), EAP courses in Iran have been developed unsystematically and EAP program policy-makers based their decisions on intuitions and general statements of the goals. Under such circumstances, 'accountability and developmental purposes' of the local national programs have not been evaluated. Furthermore, the incoherent EAP curriculum development in Iran and the ambitious goals set by the policy-makers have made the realization of the course primary objective rather unmanageable.

Atai (2002a) depicts a vivid and comprehensive view of ESP/EAP development in Iran. He points out three generations of EAP programs; in the 1970s, the first generation of EAP was designed and practiced by Iranian universities in cooperation with Western academic centers (e.g. Shiraz University with Pennsylvania University, and Tabriz University with the British Council). The main purpose of the program was preparing learners for advanced reading through intensive reading courses. During that period, the published textbooks were the main teaching materials in the classroom and no evaluation of the program was conducted. The second generation was the result of the government's attempts to expand the EAP instruction to all Iranian universities in the 1980s. SAMT (Iranian National Center for developing English Materials & Textbooks in Humanities) was founded as the leading publisher of EAP textbooks whose contents were not completely specialized. The product of this attempt were eight EAP textbooks compiled for academic disciplines of engineering, medicine, science, humanities, agriculture, and social sciences. The main drawback of these textbooks was that they were not perfectly suitable for students' special fields (Atai, 2002). The third generation of EAP was marked by the result of a movement in EAP curriculum development "towards greater specificity of content in terms of academic discipline and text authenticity" (p. 23), which necessitated the involvement of both ELT practitioners and content teachers in cooperative production of the materials. The outcome was 45 published textbooks by SAMT.

Atai (2002b) also point out that contrary to an ample investment of government in this regard, the noticeable problem is dearth of systematicity and coherence in development of the current ESAP programs in Iran. He mentions three main deficiencies of the system as the overall goals being too ambitious, the probable ignorance of fundamental phase of 'needs assessment' during curriculum development procedures, and lack of due attention neither to social, cultural, and educational context in EAP courses nor to factors such as the teachers, facilities, the learners' characteristics, etc.

Despite such problems, EAP is taught in all university majors as an important part of the academic curriculum in Iran. "In higher education system, students who are majoring in the different fields in universities throughout the country have to pass a three-credit EGP course. They are then required to pass a two-credit (or more) ESP course, depending on their majors" (Hayati, 2008, p. 154).

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Although reviewing the related literature reveals that textbook development and evaluation is crucial to EAP programs, there are still some gaps remaining to be resolved. Since many EAP materials are developed based on the teachers' hunches rather than systematic NA, they suffer from lack of rationale. Furthermore, the material developers paid little attention to incorporating students' interests and needs into evaluation mode. Ellis and Johnson (1994) believe that the choice of materials has a significant impact on the outcome of the course. EAP programs are principally learner-centered and students' concerns should be considered at the priority list of textbook selection criteria.

A Glance at Iranian EAP Textbooks

Materials development is the activity of producing, adopting, adapting, exploiting, and evaluating materials for facilitating language learning and acquisition. Also it deals with writing, implementing and evaluating materials by the materials development practitioners and materials development researchers for the purpose of learning. Quite recently, it has gained the status as a legitimate academic area in applied linguistics with its own line of research (Tomlinson, 2013).

Another issue to be discussed is the place of ESP books in the program. There are many books published by different authors and marketed profitably to all countries but their usefulness and application for the targeted community is still not distinct. As Robinson (1980) and Mackay (1975) ascertain, ESP refers to teaching English for a specific utilitarian purpose. The main question that remains is the content of ESP textbooks. That means the needs of one group of students in one academic discipline are taken for granted the same as other groups. Therefore, one all-embracing ESP textbook for various types of students seems to contradict the above maxim regarding the specificity of ESP. Books published and distributed internationally are not 'panacea for all ills' because they are not regionally based (Jones, 1990).

EAP practitioners in Iran are seeking for research-led textbooks. Because the EAP teachers are either content teachers who have little or no knowledge on English teaching approaches and methodologies, or they are language teachers who are novice in a subject specific discourse. Therefore, EAP textbooks should be constantly and critically revised and adapted.

Following Atai (2002b), EAP has gone through different phases. The first phase was the joint-collaboration of Iranian universities and foreign academic language centers. The second phase was the proliferation of EAP textbooks in the 1980s. The third stage was a close focus on specificity of EAP materials for different academic disciplines. The second and third stage of EAP textbook publication was conducted by SAMT (Center for Research and Development of Textbooks for University Students) who summoned for a collaboration of academic professors in designing and publishing content-specific EAP textbooks, the most prominent of them are English for the students of Engineering, and English for the students of Medicine.

Since EAP discipline is highly context sensitive, the stakeholders of EAP community cannot be confident of the efficiency of their practice without a continual critical evaluation of the program and subsequently the textbooks. The textbook developers in Iran are still followers

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of the myth that addition of language elements such as grammar and vocabulary would lead to the whole language. This idea was long criticized by advocates of functional use of language and developing communicative competence in language teaching. Although the initial motives were developing EAP textbooks based on functional and pragmatic use of language, they were marginalized or totally ignored through the use of outdated reading comprehension activities inspired by discrete-point approach to language teaching and grammar-translation method, which proved to be insufficient in meeting the students' EAP requirements at their tertiary level studies and later professional settings.

The students' EAP needs are the four general skills: the reading skills to be able to read English academic sources and internet websites, writing skills to prepare articles and textbooks, speaking and listening skills to present articles in international conferences and continue their education in English speaking countries. However, a comprehensive review of literature shows that reading skill has gained the priority over the other skills in EAP in Iranian academic setting where English is used as FL. Salager-Meyer, de Segura and de Castro Guerra Ramos' (2016) survey in Latin America also proved that the students' EAP needs are still mainly for reading and writing in English especially in settings where instruction is exclusively in the national language. Hyland and Shaw (2016, p. 8) also cautiously admit that the most distinguishing academic skill is "to read material and recreate it in writing", which requires language proficiency and disciplinary literacy.

The rationale behind the priority of reading skill is that students need primary receptive skill to study their related literature in their first or second year of tertiary education, which enables them to read different English sources in various academic fields. Later, in the successive years of undergraduate or at postgraduate levels, they may need writing and speaking skills in order to attend international conferences or write academic articles in foreign journals. This emphasis on reading skill is evident in the design of EAP textbooks and NA in materials development (e.g. Atai & Nazari, 2011; Ghonsooly, & Pishghadam, 2011; Hashemi, 2005; Hashemi, Rashid-Lamir & Rezaee-Namjoo, 2011).

The main criticism to a mainstream publication of EAP textbooks in Iran was lack of a critical needs analysis of students' needs and interests, and lack of attention to introducing updated research findings in ELT/EAP into the new-generation published EAP textbooks. ESP as a materials-based movement tries to correlate the descriptions of scientific texts on one hand and the students' needs on the other. SAMT organization as the main center of compiling and developing textbooks in different fields of study was established in the mid-1980s. Meanwhile, the establishment of the Committee of Foreign Languages as one of the divisions of this organization paved the way to develop general and specialized English textbooks for university students. While at the outset, only a limited number of EAP textbooks for students of science, engineering, social sciences, medicine, mathematics and agriculture were developed, looking at the available EAP textbooks developed by SAMT indicates that a large number of EAP textbooks have been compiled and published so far. Promisingly, influenced by the effects of ELT promotion as well as the criticisms made by Iranian researchers, a belated but really necessary transition in these textbooks is seen.

Needless to say, the status of EAP textbooks developments has been studied and criticized by some Iranian ELT scholars including Hashemi (2005), Mostafaei-Alaei & Ershadi

(2017),Riazi (2005), Shokouhi (2005), Soodmand-Afshar & Movassagh (2016), Soleimani (2006) and Zangani (2009). The present paper can also be regarded as another attempt to deal with this issue from a different perspective.

Before dealing with their current status, it is worth mentioning that in the Iranian academic setting, the use of the global EAP textbooks produced by western publishers and the ones prepared by the EAP teachers is much less than the official textbooks developed by SAMT. Thus, the main focus of this study is on the current status of these official in-house textbooks taught in the Iranian undergraduate programs.

Three Generations of EAP Textbooks

As pointed out, to enhance the quality of English textbooks regarding EAP courses, SAMT organization, established in 1981, gathered noticeable English professionals and practitioners to decide on the best way to increase the students' understanding of specific texts in different fields. They worked on the specialization of English textbooks for different majors.

a) The First Generation

In the first stage, some English pre-university books were prepared, which were a quick review of the basic language points students learnt in high school textbooks. In the second phase, some semi-specialized books were prepared, based principally on improving the students' reading skills and become familiar with the technical vocabulary of different majors at university. In the third stage, students were prepared to read quite technical books in their own fields of study such as 'English for the students of Engineering' and 'English for the students of Medicine'. The students were supposed to read highly technical texts and journals in their course. The only skill prescribed in EAP textbooks for students of all majors was reading comprehension, ignoring the other three essential skills. Notions such as student autonomy or teacher autonomy were totally overlooked due to a cliché format of exercises in the first generation of these EAP textbooks. As Iranmehr and Davari (2018) write, the main features of this inflexible pattern were as follows:

- No preparatory activities;

- Focus on language and what is known;

- Focus on detail and understand all the sentences and words;

- Teacher-centered;

- Grammar and lexis exercises;

- Comprehension questions.

b) The Second Generation

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The second generation of EAP textbooks dates back to 2000s. Some structural and formal changes were made that were mostly neglected in the first generation. As Iranmehr et. al. (2011) write, the main features of this generation have been as follows:

- Making use of preparatory activities

- Encouraging group work,

- Applying efficient strategies,

- Promoting learner-centered.

c) The Third Generation

The third generation of EAP textbooks which have been appeared in recent years enjoys various features which have been neglected in the first and second generations. The main features can be classified as follows:

- discussing issues raised by the text

- having a debate about the points of view presented in the text

- writing a similar text about something the students know about

- writing a response to the text

- using visual features

Reviewing such features in the three generations reveals that the textbooks have experienced three models or approaches in EAP textbooks development known as TALO, TAVI and TASP.

From TALO to TAVI

In Johns and Davies' (1983) words, one of the most important contributions to the approach to reading in EAP was the shift from Text As a Linguistic Object (TALO) to Text As a Vehicle for Information (TAVI). In this regard, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) assert that in this functional shift, extracting information accurately and quickly is more significant than language details; that understanding the macrostructure comes before language study; and that application of the information in the text is of paramount importance. In their words, the reader first processes the language and then links the ideas to what is already known. The following table adapted from Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) summarizes the key features of these two approaches:

Table 1: Key Features of TALO and TAVI

	TALO	TAVI
Principles underlying text selection	text illustrate syntactic structures topics are of general interest new vocabulary is controlled texts are graded and short	texts are chosen for their value in relation to students' needs a range of authentic texts are used grading is through task and support texts are of different lengths, getting longer
Preparatory activities	almost none some translation of vocabulary	always: important as direction finders, to awaken interest and to establish purpose
Working with the text	focus on language and what is unknown focus on detail and understanding all the sentences and words questions on syntax	focus on information and what is known guessing unknown words focus on links between meaning (function) and form
Type of teaching/ learning interaction	teacher monologue teacher-centered: teacher questions, students responds, teacher evaluates	students work in groups reversal of roles: students ask questions, evaluate each other, reach agreement model for self-study learner and learning-centered
Follow-up activities	comprehension questions grammar and lexis exercises	using the information: transfer, application or extension applying techniques

According to Clanfield (2005), In a TALO lesson the text is used as the basis for language development, usually vocabulary or grammar. Such texts enjoy these following features:

- are written especially with a pedagogical purpose in mind

- could be authentic texts "adapted" to contain or highlight certain features of language

- having some fixed activities including grammar pattern, function words, particular verb forms

In his belief, in a TAVI lesson the tasks are designed to test learners understanding of the meaning rather than the language used to express it. In a TAVI lesson the message is seen as more important than the language. Text is often presented with TAVI tasks before it is used as vehicle for linguistic analysis. We want the learners to understand the general ideas before we focus on the detailed use of language. Example of TAVI tasks include:

- predicting the content of the text, discussing questions or statements that relate to the text

- marking things in the text that you knew/didn't know before

- answering comprehension questions

- summarizing the main points of a text

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- putting events in order

Tracing TALO and TAVI in SAMT EAP Textbooks

As noted, it is assumed that the Iranian EAP textbooks have been experiencing a transition from TALO to TAVI. To test their assumption, the researchers have reviewed some EAP textbooks developed by SAMT since its establishment.

Studying the EAP textbooks developed especially from mid-1980s to the beginning years of 21st century shows that some clichéd and fixed patterns, exercises and even layouts have been used as their inevitable feature.

Reviewing these books shows that most of them follow the same clichéd pattern involving reading passages, comprehension questions (true-false, multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank), word formation, vocabulary practice and grammatical points.

Using such an inflexible and strict pattern, tracing to the first EAP textbooks, is the most common pattern in those textbooks. In other words, the diversity of exercises, tasks and activities is one of the missing links in their development.

Encountering the second generation of EAP textbooks shows that the features of TALO model have gradually faded and been replaced by TAVI features.

In support of this claim, the pattern of ten Iranian EAP textbooks has randomly been studied and the results are as following:

Table 2: TALO and TAVI Features in Iranian EAP Textbooks

English for the Students of		1985 - 2002						2005 – 2010			
		Engineering 1986	Agriculture 1989	Food Sciences 1995	Chemical Engineering 1997	Biology 2000	Nursing 2001	Architecture 2005	Industrial Psychology 2005	Information Technology 2008	Microbiology 2008
TALO Features	Controlling new vocabulary	√	√	√	√	√	√	√			
	No preparatory activities	√	√	√	√	√	√	√			
	Vocabulary translation	√	√				√				
	Focusing on form and the unknown	√	√	√	√	√	√		√		√
	Questions on syntax	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	
	Teacher-centered	√	√	√	√	√	√				√
	Fixed comprehension questions	√	√	√	√	√	√				

	Grammar and lexis exercises	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
TAVI Features	Grading tasks and activities								√	√	√
	Preparatory activities								√	√	√
	Focusing on information and the known						√	√	√	√	√
	Group work								√	√	√
	Learner-centered							√	√	√	√
	Applying reading strategies and techniques							√	√	√	√
	Flexible comprehension questions								√	√	√

Discussion and Conclusion

As mentioned, in recent years, a new generation of EAP textbooks has been appeared. *English for the Students of Engineering, English for the Students of Medicine and English for the Students of Sciences* are among them.

Reviewing such textbooks shows that they are experiencing TASP model which stands for Text as a springboard for production or Text as a Stimulus for Production. This means using a text as a springboard for another task - usually a reading or writing task (see Iranmehr & Davari, 2018).

Undoubtedly, any improvement in the field of EAP especially in textbooks development firstly involves providing a clear picture of their history and current status, and then recognizing their major problems, drawbacks as well as their strengths. To follow this rule, the researchers attempted to provide such a picture, then tried to evaluate the main approaches that some of the widespread EAP textbooks have followed.

Reviewing the developments in the field of EAP textbooks revealed that this branch has experienced the appearance of three generations of textbooks in its around four-decade lifetime. Surveying their features indicates that while the policy over EAP has not been changed in this period of time, textbook development, as an inevitable practice in any language teaching program, has evolved. Studying the reasons for this change indicates that due to some global as well as national developments in the fields of education, economy, communication, science, etc., the needs and desires of EAP learners have pushed the materials developers to present different EAP textbooks with respect to their content and structure.

As Atai, Bbabaii, and Nili-ahmadabadi (2018) believe, a gap existed between planning and practice level, making policy-making top-down and centralized to the extent that local stakeholders (teachers and students) are not allowed a chance to participate in EAP materials preparation and instruction. If their needs were included in EAP policy-making, the gap between the planning and practice would be bridged.

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Title

How the Japanese teacher preparation programs for secondary teachers have been shaped since the Meiji period

Takeyuki Ueyama, Ph.D.
Former Associate Professor of Nihon University, Japan, and Universiti Brunei Darussalam, Brunei

Abstract

One hundred forty seven years ago, Japanese society started erecting a new educational system for transforming it into modern society. A rapid expansion of compulsory education was urgent to teach the modern subjects to the general public. Secondary education was also highly demanded to produce both normal school teachers training primary school teachers and teachers for secondary schools later becoming a backbone of the higher education. Since then, continuous and consistent efforts have been observed in the building process, but it is an uneasy task to comprehend why they did it in that way they did. One avenue to respond to this question is to search for thoughts and beliefs behind their decisions. The purpose of this study, therefor, is to rediscover the cultural values and beliefs affecting the directions of teacher preparation programs and institutions for secondary school teachers developed in Japan. It dealt with the period from the late 19th century to the present. Two different aspects were adapted for analysis: The concept of 'program' developed by Ueyama (2009); and the historical functions of university defined as organization, institution and community. This study discussed in the five areas of development of the teacher preparation programs: 1) open policy, 2) preparation at the university level, 3) the program structure and content, 4) quality of teacher and 5) university educators. The identified cultural values and beliefs were, for instance, the belief that a teacher be first an academically intellectual rather an adept teacher; and the value that teaching practice is important but the effectiveness of the practice not be determined by the length of the practice. To conclude, this study discussed on how the cultural values and beliefs have positively and negatively affected the development of the teacher preparation programs for secondary school teachers. (294).

The relationship between Iranian EFL learners' reading motivations and their fields of study

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Mojtaba Maghsoudi (Corresponding Author)

Assistant Professor, Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran Iran

Email: maghsudi@cfu.ac.ir

Masoume Ahmadi

Lecturer, Department of English Language, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

Email: masoume.n.ahmadi@gmail.com

Abstract

The declines in reading motivation that are typically observed in most Iranian universities are thus a cause for serious concern for Iranian EFL learners. Therefore, a total number of 285 participants from six different fields of study, social sciences, maths, primary education, chemistry, biology and Persian literature took part in this study. The researchers gave the instruments over a 2-day period; the Language Proficiency Test was given on day one, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) and the Reading Comprehension Test on day two with one week interval. Participants' responses to the reading motivation statements, reading comprehension questions and English language proficiency questions were analyzed through a Kruskal-Wallis test, T-test, ANOVA and correlation. The findings indicated that learners with higher motivation in reading comprehension performed much better in reading comprehension than other learners with lower motivation. It was also demonstrated that the participants' discipline was a significant contributing factor to the relationship between reading motivation and reading comprehension ability. The findings further proved that the higher the students' proficiency level, the higher their reading motivation level. In sum, the present study demonstrated conclusively that there are different dimensions of reading motivation and that these dimensions relate differentially to the participants' reading comprehension ability. The findings of this study are fruitful for both teachers and students.

Keywords: Reading Motivation, Discipline, Reading Comprehension, English Language Proficiency

1. Introduction

Motivation is one of the neglected parts of English language teaching. Bangs and Binder (2016) believe, teachers often forget that, motivation is the basic part of learners' English language learning activities. In this sense, learners control the flow of the classroom. Without learners' motivation, there is no pulse and no life in the class. When learners learn to incorporate direct approaches to generate motivation in their learning, they will become happier and more successful learners (Mohseni Takaloo1 and Ahmadi, 2017).

The reason that actuated the present researchers to begin the current study is that many Iranian university students cannot find personal reasons to enjoy reading English texts or reasons to read for pleasure. That is, not knowing how to read is a problem among most students, but choosing not to read is an even bigger problem. Therefore, they are reluctant to read. Some researchers as Jafari and Shokrpour (2012) and Shahnazari and Dabaghi (2014) believe, lack of reading motivation is the main aim of reading reluctance.

As it was already said, reading comprehension is strongly influenced by reading motivation. While there are multiple definitions of reading motivation, Guthrie and Wigfield's definition of reading motivation as an "individual's personal goals, beliefs, values, and dispositions toward reading" (2000, p. 405) seems to best personalize reading motivation. According to this definition, reading motivation differs at an individual level. An individual's reading motivation may also differ depending on context, such as school and home (De Naeghel, Van Keer, Vansteenkiste & Rosseel, 2012) and by the way the text is presented, such as print or digital. Most will also agree that reading motivation is multifaceted and complex and may include sub-constructs such as intrinsic reading motivation, extrinsic reading motivation, social reasons for reading, and value of reading (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

The main goal of this study is to examine whether Iranian students' English reading comprehension motivation vary with their and their reading comprehension. Such relationships may help in educational settings when trying to improve the students' motivation towards reading. Therefore, the following research hypothesis is formulated.

There is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' disciplines and their reading motivation.

2. Literature Review

Relationships between motivation and actual reading behaviors have been examined in several L2 studies. For example, positive relationships between intrinsic motivation and reading amount were found inYang (2016), Takase (2007), Dhanapala (2008), and Tercanlioglu (2001), with EFL students in Japan, Sri Lanka, and Turkey. Dhanapala (ibid) and Tercanlioglu (2001) found out that, extrinsic motivation also positively correlated with reading amount, but generally to a lesser degree. With bilingual students in Hong Kong, Lin, Wong, and McBride-Chang (2012) found that students' L2 reading comprehension was predicted only by an extrinsically oriented dimension (Instrumentalism). However, in order for students to develop into effective readers in a foreign language, they must possess both the skill and the will to read. As noted by Guthrie and Wigfield (2000), "motivation is what activates behavior" (p. 406). Consequently, even the most able or skillful students may not engage in reading if they lack motivation.

Students who read for pleasure and employing strategies to support their comprehension are highly motivated readers. Students of this kind usually consider reading to be an important factor in their daily activities, accept challenges in the reading process and are likely to be successful readers. They agreed that there is a relationship between motivation and reading proficiency. Results of their study indicated that reading motivation is related to all aspects of motivation and is related to reading comprehension and using strategy in different conditions. They stated that learners' motivation positively affects their reading; that is, learners with stronger reading motivation can be expected to read more and in wider range (Hairul, Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012).

Anderson (2015) studied the effect of several disciplines as biology, business, computer science, engineering, and psychology on the volume of reading expected. On average, reading volumes per class were the greatest for business majors at nearly 85 pages per week, followed by Psychology majors at 61 pages per week. Fewer pages were expected from biology majors at 45 pages per week, engineering majors at 42 pages per week, and computer science majors at 38 pages per week. These latter three differed statistically from the volume expected of business majors but not the volume expected of psychology majors. It was not surprising that computer science majors did the most digital reading at nearly 71% compared to the other majors that differed statistically from computer science including biology at 42%, engineering at 38%, business at 32%, and psychology at 24%.

3. Methods
3.1. Participants

Totally 285 Iranian undergraduate students were randomly invited to this study (144 males, 140 females, 1 unknown). Their average age was 24, ranging from 21 to 29. Approximately, sixteen percent of the participants were students of Social Sciences (46 participants), seventeen percent of the participants were students of Persian Literature (49 participants),nineteen percent of the participants were students of Primary Education (54 participants),fifteen percent of the participants were students of Chemistry (42 participants), fifteen percent of the participants were students of Biology (44 participants), eighteen percent of the participants were students of Maths(50 participants). The criteria for selection included commitment to spend a minimum of 2 hours to complete the needed questionnaire and tests of this study, willingness to participate in the study and their academic field of study. The participants were in their freshman and sophomore years in the university attending Payam-Noor University (PNU), Arak University, Farhangian University (Teacher Training University) and Azad Universityin an industrial city, Arak.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

3.2.1. Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)

This 54-item questionnaire was developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) to assess the 11 different aspects of reading motivation. Among various existing motivational scales, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) is probably the most comprehensive and well-established of the reading motivational scales available. It was originally developed for use in English as a first language and later was established as applicable to English as a foreign language

The 54 items included in the MRQ were coded as a 1-4 point Likert scale with the response options being: "*Very different from me*", "*A little different from me*", "*A little like me*", and "*A lot like me*". Students were asked to tick the relevant box for each statement. The questionnaire administrators were available to answer the possible questions the participants had about wording of the items. It took the participants approximately 20 to 25minutes to complete the MRQ. In case of necessity, bonus time was given to the participants to complete the task.

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In order to eradicate any possible misunderstanding or confusion, the researchers pilot-tested the MRQ on thirty students who had similar characteristics to the participants of the main sample. They were asked to read the items carefully and identify the items with unclear meaning. The results led to some wording changes and modifications made to make the items appropriate for the target population of the study. Prior to the administration of the pilot test, the MRQ was judged by four TEFL professors. As a result, some ambiguous items underwent changes and they confirmed the content validity of the mentioned-questionnaire for the purpose of this study. Then, in the next phase of the pilot study, the questionnaire was administered for the purpose of estimating its reliability. The reliability index, assessed by Cronbach's alpha formula, was found to be .84.

3.2.2. Reading Comprehension Test

Participants were requested to answer the questions of three parts excluded from TOELC (Test of English for International Communication) to measure their reading skill. The entire Reading Comprehension Test lasted 60 minutes. This test included 50 multiple choice items, assessing the participants' literal comprehension of information stated in the passage as well as higher order comprehension that required making inference and conclusions.

Prior to the administration of this instrument, it was pilot tested for the purposes of clarity, simplicity, time allotment and estimating its reliability. The reliability index, assessed by Cronbach's alpha formula, was found to be .81. Itis worth mentioning that to predict the efficacy of this instrument and to make sure that it covers the content that was supposed to measure, four TEFL professors were requested to judge this instrument. As a result, they acknowledged this test for this purpose.

3.2.3. The Language Proficiency Test

To ascertain the homogeneity of the participants in terms of language proficiency, the Quick Placement Test (second version) was utilized. It is a standardized 50-item multiple-choice test which consists of grammar, vocabulary, and reading subsections. The entire Quick Placement Test lasted 40 minutes. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the test was 0.86.

3.3. Procedure

A total number of 285 participants from different fields of study, humanities (social sciences, Persian literature and primary education) and basic sciences (chemistry, biology and maths) took part in this study. Having approached the university authorities in order to get their consent for conducting the study, the researchers gave the instruments over a 2-day period; the Language Proficiency Test was given on day one, the MRQ and the Reading Comprehension Test on day two with one week interval. It is worth mentioning that the MRQ has been called "a valid and reliable questionnaire" (Guthrie &Wigfield, 1999, p.200),and its 11 scales have been described as important "facets of student motivation that can affect reading" (Pressley, 2002, p. 289).

The whole study was completed in two phases as shown below:

Phase 1: First, through administering the Quick Placement Test (second version) to 285 university students, homogenized participant were identified. That is, those whose scores in

English language proficiency test were 1 SD above and below the mean score. Making 205 participants in total as follows:

Social sciences (No. 34), maths (No. 40), primary education (No. 39), chemistry (No. 24), biology (No. 29) and Persian literature (No. 39).

Phase 2: Then the Reading Comprehension Test and the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) were administered to the students to be completed in 70 minutes as determined at the pilot study. Participants were reminded that there was no right or wrong answer for MRQ, their forthright and honest responses were important, and confidentiality was respected.

The conditions for testing were strictly followed as far as possible. The researchers firstly read instructions printed on the top of the questionnaire and tests clearly and then before the start of each one, they cleared the mentioned doubts. The way of answering the questions was made clear to the participants and in case of any difficulty they were encouraged to ask question and were provided with help. The participants were also informed that their performance will be kept confidential and will not have any effect on their final exam scores.

3.4. Data Analysis

Students' responses to the reading motivation statements, reading comprehension questions and general English proficiency questions were analyzed through several analyses as T-tests, correlational analyses and Kroskal-Wallis tests.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

In order to confirm or disconfirm the research hypothesis, the researchers initially needed to have a clear description of the participants' reading comprehension ability, the scores obtained from the reading comprehension test were tabulated (table 1) according to the participants' disciplines.

Table 1

Descriptive Information of the Students' Reading Comprehension Ability according to their Disciplines

	Disciplines	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Reading	social sciences	15.8529	2.07631	.35608
	literature	12.4103	2.93543	.47004
	biology	10.0000	3.04354	.48736
	maths	7.8333	3.73778	.76297
	primary education	10.2069	3.36345	.62458
	chemistry	8.5000	3.44927	.54538

According to the students' disciplines, their reading comprehension abilities are respectively ranked as: social sciences (M= 15.85), literature (M= 12.41), primary education (M= 10.20), biology (M= 10.00), chemistry (M= 8.50) and maths (M= 7.83). It was indicated

that the students of social sciences had the highest reading ability while the students of maths had the lowest reading ability. Considering the indices for standard deviation, it was concluded that the groups were homogeneous in terms of their reading comprehension ability since the indices, which ranged from 2.07 (the minimum) for the students of social sciences to 3.73 (the maximum) for the students of the maths, were close.

Prior to further analysis of the results, normality of the distributions was calculated according to the students' disciplines.

Table 2

Normality of Distribution of the Reading Comprehension Test Scores according to Disciplines

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Disciplines	Statistic	df	Sig.
reading	social sciences	.947	34	.100
	literature	.984	39	.831
	primary education	.976	39	.573
	chemistry	.932	24	.106
	biology	.962	29	.366
	maths	.958	40	.140

According to Table 2, the distributions of the reading scores for all disciplines were normal since the observed p levels were all above .05. Accordingly, one-way ANOVA was used to compare the groups.

Table 3

One-way ANOVA for Comparing the Reading Comprehension Test Scores of the Students according to their Disciplines

reading	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1424.627	5	284.925	29.473	.000
Within Groups	1923.793	199	9.667		
Total	3348.420	204			

The results in Table 3 imply that there was a significant difference among the groups in terms of their reading comprehension abilities (F= 29.47, p= .00). That is,there was a significant difference among the disciplines in terms of the students' reading comprehension ability. Further analysis was done using Scheffe test to compare their reading comprehension scores pairwise.

Table4

ScheffeTest for Pairwise Comparison of Students' Reading Comprehension Ability according to their Disciplines

(I) disciplines	(J) disciplines	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
social sciences	literature	3.44268[*]	.72953	.001
	primary education	5.85294[*]	.72953	.000
	chemistry	8.01961[*]	.82894	.000

	biology	5.64604*	.78593	.000
	maths	7.35294*	.72527	.000
literature	social sciences	-3.44268*	.72953	.001
	primary education	2.41026*	.70410	.043
	chemistry	4.57692*	.80665	.000
	biology	2.20336	.76239	.143
	maths	3.91026*	.69969	.000
primary education	social sciences	-5.85294*	.72953	.000
	literature	-2.41026*	.70410	.043
	chemistry	2.16667	.80665	.210
	biology	-.20690	.76239	1.000
	maths	1.50000	.69969	.470
chemistry	social sciences	-8.01961*	.82894	.000
	literature	-4.57692*	.80665	.000
	primary education	-2.16667	.80665	.210
	biology	-2.37356	.85800	.182
	maths	-.66667	.80280	.983
biology	social sciences	-5.64604*	.78593	.000
	literature	-2.20336	.76239	.143
	primary education	.20690	.76239	1.000
	chemistry	2.37356	.85800	.182
	maths	1.70690	.75831	.411
maths	social sciences	-7.35294*	.72527	.000
	literature	-3.91026*	.69969	.000
	primary education	-1.50000	.69969	.470
	chemistry	.66667	.80280	.983
	biology	-1.70690	.75831	.411

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

A more detailed analysis, the results of which are shown in Table 4, demonstrated that although the pairwise differences between all pairs of the disciplines were significant, there were no significant differences between biology and literature (p= .14), primary education and biology (p= 1.00), primary education and chemistry (p= .21), primary education and maths(p= .47), chemistry and biology (p= .18), chemistry and maths(p= .98), as well as biology and maths(p= .41).

Further analysis was done to compare the students of humanities (Persian literature, social sciences and primary education) and basic sciences (maths, biology and chemistry) in terms of reading comprehension ability using an independent sample t-test.

Table 5
Independent Sample T-Test for Comparing the Reading Comprehension Scores of the Students of Humanities and Basic Sciences

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
reading	7.436	203	.000	3.75586	.50512

According to table 5, there was a significant difference between the students of humanities (M= 12.61) and those of basic sciences (M= 8.86) in terms of their reading comprehension ability (t= 7.43, p=.00). This implies that the students of humanities outperformed those of basic sciences in terms of their reading comprehension ability.

To see the relationship between the participants' reading motivation and their disciplines, the following information can be of great help.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Reading Motivation of the Students of Different Disciplines

	discipline	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reading Motivation	Social sciences	34	179.76	6.30	1.08
	Literature	39	161.95	16.04	2.56
	Primary education	39	131.26	28.90	4.62
	Chemistry	24	97.16	5.99	1.22
	Biology	29	89.31	5.19	.96
	maths	40	93.27	7.28	1.15

As demonstrated in Table 6, the students of social sciences enjoyed the highest mean (M= 179.76) while the students of biology were found to have the minimum reading motivation (M= 89.31). According to the statistics in Table 6, it is evident that the students of social sciences (M=179.76), literature (M= 161.95) and primary education (M= 131.26) had stronger reading motivation than students of basic sciences, biology (M= 89.31), maths (93.27) and chemistry (97.16).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Reading Motivation of the Students of Humanities and Basic Sciences

	Field	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reading Motivation	Humanities	112	156.67	28.03	2.64
	Basic sciences	93	93.04	6.96	.72

According to Table 7, the observed mean for the students of humanities (M= 156.67, SD= 28.03) is considerably higher than the students of basic sciences (M= 93.04, SD= 6.96); in addition, the same is true regarding the observed dispersions of the data. This implies a higher but more heterogeneous state of reading motivation among the students of humanities. In order to test the significance of the difference between the observed mean scores, there was a need to check the normality assumption. The results are shown below.

Table 8

Normality of Reading Motivation Data for the Students of different Disciplines

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Discipline	Statistic	df	Sig.
Reading Motivation	Social sciences	.975	34	.605
	Literature	.902	39	.003
	Primary education	.780	39	.000
	Chemistry	.950	24	.265
	Biology	.960	29	.325
	maths	.970	40	.347

According to the statistics in Table 8, the distribution of the data for the students of social sciences (p= .60), biology (p= .32), chemistry (p= .26) and maths (p= .34) were normal considering the fact that the observed p levels were both higher than .05. However, the one for the students of literature (p= .00) and primary education (p= .00) were not normal. Thus, the researchers used parametric test, one-way ANOVA, to compare the groups in terms of their reading motivation levels.

Table 9

Normality of Reading Motivation Data for the Students of Humanities and Basic Sciences

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Field	Statistic	df	Sig.
Reading Motivation	Humanities	.846	112	.000
	Basic sciences	.976	93	.091

According to the statistics in Table 9, the distribution of the data for the students of humanities (p= .00) was not normal considering the fact that the observed p levels were both below .05. However, the one for the students of basic sciences (p= .09) was normal. Thus, the researchers used independent samples t-test to compare the two groups reading motivation levels.

Table 10

One-way ANOVA to Compare the Reading Motivation of the Students of Humanities and different Disciplines

RM	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	250919.229	5	50183.846	214.742	.000
Within Groups	46504.966	199	233.693		
Total	297424.195	204			

The results in Table 10 demonstrated that the difference between the six groups as it was observed in Table 10 was significant (F= 214.00, p= .00). In addition, in order to have a detailed comparison of the groups, they were compared pairwise using a scheffe test. The results are shown below.

Table 11

Scheffe Test for Pairwise Comparison of the Disciplines in terms of their Reading Motivation

(I) discipline	(J) discipline	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
social sciences	literature	17.81599*	3.58685	.000
	primary education	48.50830*	3.58685	.000
	chemistry	82.59804*	4.07560	.000
	biology	90.45436*	3.86416	.000
	maths	86.48971*	3.56590	.000
literature	social sciences	-17.81599*	3.58685	.000
	primary education	30.69231*	3.46183	.000
	chemistry	64.78205*	3.96603	.000
	biology	72.63837*	3.74840	.000
	maths	68.67372*	3.44013	.000

primary education	social sciences	-48.50830[*]	3.58685	.000
	litreture	-30.69231[*]	3.46183	.000
	chemistry	34.08974[*]	3.96603	.000
	biology	41.94607[*]	3.74840	.000
	maths	37.98141[*]	3.44013	.000
chemistry	social sciences	-82.59804[*]	4.07560	.000
	literature	-64.78205[*]	3.96603	.000
	primary education	-34.08974[*]	3.96603	.000
	biology	7.85632	4.21848	.629
	maths	3.89167	3.94709	.964
biology	social sciences	-90.45436[*]	3.86416	.000
	litreture	-72.63837[*]	3.74840	.000
	primary education	-41.94607[*]	3.74840	.000
	chemistry	-7.85632	4.21848	.629
	maths	-3.96466	3.72837	.951
maths	social sciences	-86.48971[*]	3.56590	.000
	litreture	-68.67372[*]	3.44013	.000
	primary education	-37.98141[*]	3.44013	.000
	chemistry	-3.89167	3.94709	.964
	biology	3.96466	3.72837	.951

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As shown in Table 11, the observed differences between all pairs of disciplines, except chemistry and biology (p= .62), chemistry and maths (p= .96), and biology and maths (p= .95), were significant considering the fact that the observed p levels were below .05.

Table 12

Independent Samples T-Test for Comparing the Reading Motivation of the Students of Humanities and Basic Sciences

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Reading Motivation	23.170	127.280	.000	63.62663	2.74613

As shown in Table 12, the results (t= 23.17, p= .00) indicated that there was a significant difference between the students of humanities and basic sciences in terms of their reading motivation, accordingly, it can be concluded that students humanities (M=156.67) had a significantly higher level of reading motivation than those of basic sciences (M= 93.04).

To see the relationship between the participants' reading motivation and their reading comprehension ability the following information can be of great help.

Table 13

Descriptive Information for Reading Motivation of the Participants according to their Reading Motivation Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Low	116	9.1897	3.53101	.32785
Mid	21	11.6190	3.32380	.72531

High	68	13.6324	3.53196	.42831

As demonstrated in Table 13, the observed means of low (M= 9.18), mid (M= 11.61) and high (13.63) motivation groups showed that participants with higher levels of motivation got higher levels of reading comprehension. In order to test the significant effect of motivation levels on reading comprehension ability, one-way ANOVA test was run.

Table 14
One-way ANOVA for Comparing Reading Comprehension Ability of the Participants according to their Motivation Levels

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	857.831	2	428.915	34.787	.000
Within Groups	2490.589	202	12.330		
Total	3348.420	204			

The observed results in Table 14(F= 34.78, p= .00) showed that there was a significant difference between the three groups of motivation levels in terms of their reading comprehension ability. To further analyze the differences between the groups in details, a pairwise comparison was conducted using Scheffe test.

Table 15
Scheffe test for pairwise comparison of the students reading comprehension ability in terms of their levels of motivation

Reading Motivation		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Low	Mid	-2.42939*	.83272	.015
	High	-4.44270*	.53629	.000
Mid	Low	2.42939*	.83272	.015
	High	-2.01331	.87661	.014
High	Low	4.44270*	.53629	.000
	Mid	2.01331	.87661	.014

According to Table 15, the differences between students with low and mid-levels of motivation (p= .01), low- and high levels of motivation (p= .00) and mid- and high- levels of motivation (p= .01) were significant. That is, the differences observed between different groups of a single trait, say motivation, in terms of their reading comprehension ability were significant. It can be concluded that as the students' reading motivation increased, their reading comprehension ability rose. And this showed that motivation levels can affect reading comprehension score significantly.

Table 16
The Correlation between Reading Comprehension Ability and Reading Motivation Components

	Efficacy	Challenge	Curiosity	Involvement	Importance	Social	Recognition	Grades	Competition	Compliance	Avoidance	Reading
Efficacy	1											
Challenge	.705**	1										
Curiosity	.774**	.904**	1									

Involvement	.565**	.864**	.838**	1							
Importance	.561**	.783**	.851**	.801**	1						
Social	.621**	.875**	.858**	.915**	.756**	1					
Recognition	.592**	.803**	.826**	.906**	.858**	.789**	1				
Grades	.645**	.886**	.879**	.963**	.805**	.921**	.883**	1			
Competition	.786**	.827**	.811**	.692**	.685**	.720**	.693**	.729**	1		
Compliance	.730**	.884**	.935**	.847**	.892**	.841**	.865**	.871**	.816**	1	
Avoidance	.748**	.843**	.886**	.744**	.814**	.762**	.771**	.791**	.804**	.917**	1
Reading	.890**	.845**	.810**	.781**	.609**	.575**	.540**	.501**	.473**	.465**	.434**	1

According to Table 16, there were significant correlations between reading comprehension ability and each component of reading motivation, namely, efficacy (r= .89, p= .00), challenge (r= .84, p= .00), curiosity (r= .81, p= .00), involvement (r= .78, p= .00), importance (r= .60, p= .00), social (r= .57, p= .00)recognition (r= .54, p= .00)grades (r= .50, p= .00), competition (r= .47, p= .00),compliance (r= .46, p= .00) avoidance (r= .43, p= .00), , , and. Accordingly, it was argued that each component of the reading motivation as measured in this study were strong, moderate or weak predictors of reading comprehension ability per se.The reading motivation components can be ranked as follows in terms of their strengths of predicting the participants' reading comprehension ability.

Table 17

Ranking Motivation Components in terms of their Contribution to Reading Comprehension

Ranking	Motivation Components	r	Description
1	Efficacy	.890**	
2	Challenge	.845**	I
3	Curiosity	.810**	I
4	Involvement	.781**	I
5	Importance	.609**	
6	Social	.575**	E
7	Recognition	.540**	E
8	Grade	.501**	E
9	Competition	.473**	E
10	Compliance	.465**	E
11	Avoidance	.434**	

Note: Nuttal (2016) found out that all dimensions that are components of intrinsic motivation are followed by (I), and all dimensions that are components of extrinsic motivation are followed by (E).

According to Table 17,challenge, curiosity and involvement which are intrinsic in nature had the highest contributions to the reading comprehension whereas; social, recognition, grade, competition and compliance which are extrinsic in nature had the weakest contributions to the participants' reading comprehension ability.

All in all, considering the positive values of r (correlation coefficients), it was argued that the components of reading motivation had positive and direct contribution to reading comprehension ability, therefore, with regard to the sizes of the observed r, it was concluded that the reading motivation per se was either a strong or a moderate contributor to reading comprehension ability. In another word, the positive correlation coefficients showed that the

relationships were positive, that is, the higher level of motivation contributed to higher levels of reading comprehension. In addition, the results showed that the observed correlation coefficient for intrinsic motivation was higher than that of extrinsic motivation. This meant that intrinsic motivation could be considered a stronger contributor to the participants' reading comprehension ability

Table 18
Chi-Square Test for the Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Motivation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	46.463[a]	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	46.552	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	40.578	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	205		

In order to test the possible relationship between the participants' reading comprehension ability and their levels of reading motivation, chi-square test was run. The results in Table 18 ($X^2 = 46.46$, p= .00) indicated that there was a significant relationship between reading comprehension and reading motivation levels of the participants. That is, the higher the participants' reading motivation, the higher their reading comprehension ability.

4.2. Discussion

The interpretation of findings of the present study denotes important information about the Iranian university students' reading motivation along with its dimensions and types and also their general English proficiency and how they relate to their reading comprehension ability regarding their disciplines. The results support the claims as often reported in the literature (Dornyei, 2006; Grabe, 2009; Hairul, Ahmadi and Pourhossein, 2012;Schutte and Malouff, 2007; Ahmadi, HairulNizam and KamarulKabilan, 2013) that believe, there is an impact of reading motivation on the learners' reading comprehension ability. The high correlation between reading motivation and reading comprehension ability leads to several conclusions. The first of these conclusions is the idea that students who are motivated to read, most likely (or more likely) succeed in terms of comprehension. It is quite evident that the comparison of scores in this study reinforced the idea that motivated students can comprehend the English texts better than non-motivated students. In another term, the participants in this study with high motivation towards reading generally did well on the reading comprehension test just as those students with poor motivation generally did poorly on the reading comprehension test.

The results of this study also support what Morgan and Fuchs (2007) found out. They believed that there is a strong relationship between motivation and reading comprehension proficiency. The results of their study indicated that reading motivation relates to all aspects of motivation and is related to reading comprehension and facilitated reading in different levels of students. Cox and Guthrie (2001) pointed out that students' motivation positively affects their readings; it means that students with stronger reading motivation can be expected

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to read more in a wider range. Accordingly, Schutte and Malouff (2007) discovered in their research that motivation is an important factor which supports students to read more, and it has a significant relationship with reading and understanding texts.

It is evident that motivated students are more likely encouraged to make educated guesses (Nuttal, 2016), better achievement, solve problems or difficulties while reading the text and also reduce comprehending anxiety. Thus, as Ahmadi, HairulNizam and KamarulKabilan (ibid) believed, it can be concluded that considering such reading motivation in teaching curriculum as to be instructed on the regular and disciplined basis could be profitable for the students. In this case, teachers are also encouraged to consider reading motivation in their regular English classes so that their students might become motivated in a reading comprehension situation.

It seems worth mentioning that although all dimensions of reading motivation were statistically significantly correlated with the participants' reported reading comprehension ability, intrinsic goal-related dimensions as Challenge, Curiosity and Involvement, could be considered stronger contributors to the participants' reading comprehension ability in compare with extrinsic goal-related dimensions as Competitive, Grade, Recognition, Social and Compliance. Thus, this finding is in line with what Stanovich, West, Cunningham, Cipielewski, & Siddiqui, 1996; Wang & Guthrie, 2004; Baker &Wigfield, 2009; Coddington& Guthrie, 2009 and Wigfield et al., 2016 found out. They indicated that students who were intrinsically motivated to read have proved that they outperformed their extrinsically motivated peers in reading comprehension.

Work Avoidance as another dimension of reading motivation had the weakest contributions to the students' reading comprehension ability, as would be expected. The student who seeks to avoid reading-related work is not likely to seek outside reading opportunities. As Paris et al. (1991) suggested, Work Avoidance may have related consistently to performance because it is the clearest indication of student disengagement; students who score high on this item care little for reading, and so it is not surprising that they perform less well than other students.

As it was shown in this research, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation coexisted among the students. These two orientations proved not only moderately but also strongly correlated with reading comprehension ability, suggesting that they represent two somewhat orthogonal dimensions of motivation rather than simply the opposite ends of a single dimension. This finding of the present study is in line with the results obtained by Lepper, Henderlong & Iyengar, 2005; Lepper & Henderlong, 2000 and Lepper, Sethi, Dialdin& Drake, 1997. The critical issue is not whether a student is intrinsically or extrinsically motivated but how much intrinsic and how much extrinsic motivation that student displays. In fact, the present results confirm the value of independent assessments of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. That is, it may be quite adjustable for students to look for activities that they find innately pleasurable while simultaneously paying attention to the extrinsic consequences of those activities. Paying attention just to external or internal constraints may substantially reduce a student's future opportunities and undermine his/her interest. All in all, the findings of this study which is in line with Wigfield& Guthrie's (1997) showed that intrinsic reading motivation increases the ability of reading comprehension more than extrinsic one.

This study also found that reading motivation and reading comprehension of the students vary by academic fields. Students of humanities (primary education, social sciences and Persian literature) outperformed those of basic sciences (chemistry, maths and biology) in terms of their reading motivation and also reading comprehension ability. This finding echoes Wang (2019) argument that students' reading comprehension abilities associated with the nature of the academic fields, such as humanities, which belongs to soft-pure category emphasizing critical and analytical thinking skills. It makes sense that students in soft-pure fields had higher level of reading motivation. This finding is also in line with Saraceno's (2019) and Wambach's (1999) results which generally claim that students' disciplines or disciplinary literacy can significantly affect their reading motivation. Therefore, it was concluded that students of humanities because of their nature of fields of study are usually highly motivated to read the texts. This finding is also in line with the announced results by Anderson, 2015 and Wambach(ibid) who found out that the faculty members of humanities usually would like to promote the reading motivation of students and make students clearly understand the reading expectations which can be very helpful to reading comprehension ability. This finding also supports what Hartshorn, Evans, Egbert and Johnson (2017) found out. They concluded that the reading comprehension abilities of students in different disciplines are different. Most probably because, the type of reading in which students engage may vary a great deal across disciplines. For example, whereas the materials in business and psychology may be more conducive for extensive reading, the materials in engineering and computer science may be more intensive and could require more time and learner engagement. Another possible reason for this disparity could be related to different types of course outcomes. For example, expectations could range from various levels of what students must *know* in business or psychology to what students must *do* in fields like engineering and computer science. Engineering and computer science may require much more practice and concrete application of emerging skills in the production of various products, leaving less time for reading new texts.

5. Conclusion and Implications

The ability to read for various goals is a prerequisite of a successful learning in schools, colleges, and universities. Ercetin (2015) believed that reading is regarded as the key element of learning for academic proficiency. Therefore, being able to develop influential reading could have various impacts on learning across the curriculum, motivation to read, attitudes toward life, and performances in the work place.

There are different components that influence on students' reading comprehension. Some of these are vocabulary knowledge, prior knowledge, and knowledge of grammar, metacognitive consciousness, structural knowledge, reading strategies and the most important issue is motivation to read.

The main goal of this study was to examine whether Iranian students' English reading comprehension motivation on the different dimensions vary with their disciplines, their English proficiency and their reading comprehension. To this aim, a total number of 285 participants from different fields of study, social sciences, Persian literature, primary education, chemistry, biology and maths took part in this study. The Language Proficiency Test, the MRQ and the Reading Comprehension Test as the main instruments were administered over a 2-day period.

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Data analysis indicated that reading motivation could have a positive impact on students' reading comprehension. It was also indicated that the students' disciplines play an important role in motivating the students to read and improving their reading comprehension ability consequently. This implied that the students of humanities outperformed those of basic sciences in terms of their reading comprehension ability. Connections between types of motivation (intrinsic vs. extrinsic) and actual reading comprehension had been examined in this research. It was proved that there is a positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and reading comprehension ability. Extrinsic motivation also positively correlated with reading comprehension ability, but generally to a lower average.

Improved reading comprehension is an aspect of learning that cannot be ignored and may lead to even more relationships between learning and motivation. Since reading is a basic and vital part of the learning process at almost every level of education, improved comprehension of what students read must be a major goal of all educators. As Knoll (2000) mentioned, the high correlation between reading comprehension and reading motivation is an indication of students' motivation towards learning which has an important impact on academic success in general. Educators who are able to tap the wealth of reading motivation in their students, will therefore help those students to reap the rewards of improved comprehension and all that it entails.

According to the review of the literature of this research, it can be stated that motivation has a direct impact on the development of reading comprehension. As mentioned, there are several components for reading motivation as efficacy, challenge, grade, competition and some more expressed earlier in this research. Therefore, the teachers are expected to know that the students are motivated differently. They should make the classroom as an enjoyable space to motivate them and increase their confidence, autonomy, and self- stimulation. Ahmadi and Mohseni(2017) believed, teachers need to pay attention to students' interests and their requirements. Students are very much interested in any reading material that is with humor, fun, enjoyment, and pleasure. This means that they prefer reading for entertainment purposes. This implies that teachers need to integrate fun in reading instruction. Motivation is an essential factor to develop English reading comprehension. Teachers should provide appropriate environment to increase students' motivation in not only reading comprehension but also language proficiency which is considered the expression of student knowledge about some areas of language that pertains to teaching and learning: vocabulary, pronunciation, listening, reading, speaking, writing, grammar. Based on the literature review of this study, it can be concluded that the schools, universities, and all of the educational institutions should specifically focus their students' attention on the important role of motivation in learning and academic performance in general and reading comprehension in particular

It seems worth mentioning that students' self-efficacy appeared to be particularly important across English language proficiency levels in this study. The reason behind it may refer to this reality that high self-efficacy can increase students' confidence in language learning. As Hamamura and Heine (2008) found, people with lower self-efficacy tend to use a strategy of avoiding failure in achievement situations. In contrast, those with higher self-efficacy are more likely to make efforts to approach success. Self-efficacy is a key factor for reading comprehension across languages.

The findings of this study are fruitful for both teachers and students. Becoming aware of the students' reading motivation will help teachers utilize reading intervention to involve as many

students as possible in assigned tasks and alter the course syllabus (if needed) in ordered to accommodate students' learning. Studentscan also understand their reading motivation mirrored in this study; therefore, they may better understand how they can become motivated readers.

From the results of this study it can also be implicated that rather than thinking of students as either high or low motivated learners, it is important to realize that many of them have a mixture of motivational characteristics, some of which may facilitate their engagement in reading and others that could lead them to disengage. Best of all, the findings of this study indicated that motivation is a multifaceted characteristic. That is, students should not be characterized as either motivated or not motivated learners. Instead, they are motivated for different reasons or purposes.

The present study suffers from a number of limitations as, lack of cause-effect relation between variables. That is, the collected data in this study were seen correlationally. Therefore, it is recommended to provide the participants with enough treatment on reading motivation and then find out its impact on their reading comprehension ability. The second limitation refers to Although the relationship between reading motivation and English language proficiency were explained, it was not clear whether motivation was the impetus for improved proficiency or whether English language proficiency might be responsible for students' increasing reading motivations. Another limitation with this study is ignoring the role of gender in reading motivation, reading comprehension and English language proficiency. It is also recommended to take the role of gender into account in this regard. Probably female learners and male ones perform differently in reading motivation, reading comprehension and also English language proficiency.

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Contemporary challenges of applying robots in second/foreign language pedagogy

Khadijeh Karimi Alavijeh[14]

Atefeh Abdollahi[15]

Abstract

As the most recent application of technology in second/foreign language education, robot assisted language learning (RALL) means to enhance language educational activities. Despite all its potential capabilities and demonstrated enhancements, RALL has not been adequately integrated into contemporary pedagogical attempts up to the present time. In effect, the researchers' observations of humanoid robots, fabricated and applied in the Iranian academic settings, along with their in-depth review of several papers published in various journals around the world over the past eighteen years revealed that there are series of challenges which have restricted the application of humanoid robots in ELT settings. Since the first step towards removing these obstacles is their recognition, the present study aims to propose the first taxonomy of constraints before RALL. The researchers propose a taxonomy of

[14] Assistant Prof. Al-Zahra University, karimi@alzahra.ac.ir

[15] M.A. Student , Al-Zahra University, atefeh.abdolahi@yahoo.com

contemporary challenges before RALL including hardware design and technical/operational constraints, methodological and pedagogical constraints, psychological barriers, cultural, financial, and ethical limitations along with their subdivisions.

Introduction

Due to the radical technological advancements, robots are being increasingly applied in various fields, such as industry, medicine, education, personal life, and entertainment. Millions of service robots have been sold all around the world in recent years, and it is predicted that personal robots may become part of our everyday lives in not a distant future. Moreover, the development of artificial intelligence has led to defining new roles for humanoid robots in pedagogy to function as teacher's assistant and peer tutoring robots.

Some of the recent studies attach to the application of robots for pedagogical purposes such advantages as enhancing the English vocabulary acquisition by children (Mazzoni & Benveuti, 2015), creating "interactive relationship with learners, particularly with children" (Han, 2012), helping students understand the meaning of unknown words through robots' gestures (Chang, Lee, Chao, Wang & Chen, 2010), and improving young learners' "motivation" and "collaboration in… problem solving activities" (Meghdari et al., 2013).

Despite the continuing developments in robotics, there are many limitations in integrating instructional robots in language education which have rarely been discussed as of yet (Chang, Lee, Chao, Wang & Chen, 2020; Mubin, Stevens, Shahid, Almahmud & Dong, 2013; Cooper, Keating, Harwin & Dautenhahn, 1999; Smith, 2011). Han (2012) briefly mentions some inadequacies of using robots for language instruction including the need for research on the system framework of RALL, for elevating the current status of educational robots, for training expert RALL teachers, for taking the related moral and technological issues into account, and for conducting more field experiments on RALL. In another study, he refers to some benefits and defects of tele-operated and autonomous intelligence in robot assisted learning environments (Han, 2013).

Despite the significance of deciding the status quo of RALL at the present time and recognizing its constraints as pointed out sparsely by researchers over the globe, such studies are missing in RALL literature, to the best of our knowledge. In addition, since most RALL studies declare the *advantages* of using robots, simply ignoring their deficiencies, an unwanted delusion and exaggerated appreciation of RALL in second/foreign educational settings is probable. Therefore, the present study aims at exploring the constraints of applying robots in second/foreign language learning, and providing a classified taxonomy of RALL limitations. Introducing such a taxonomy parallel to a variety of studies which encourage the application of robots would hopefully help the formation of a more balanced view of RALL at the present time. It is noteworthy that introducing the present taxonomy means to facilitate

illustration and investigation of the issue, and there are definitely overlaps among the categories.

Method

Our method for cumulating the information is two-sided: On the one-hand, we have based our claims on the observation of a robot applied to teach English to primary school age children in an Iranian language institute. On the other hand, we have analyzed as many papers as we could access with specific focus on the challenges of applying robots in educational settings. The analyzed papers have been published from about eighteen years ago up to present in a variety of journals around the world. The obtained challenges were categorized in terms of their *underlying constraints* and the related constraints were put under similar categories. As the research proceeded, more delicate aspects of those categories were detected while, at the same time, new categories were recognized. The categories were assigned titles and the taxonomy of RALL constraints was devised out of the present empirical studies and the researchers' personal observations.

RALL challenges

1. Hardware design, technical and operational constraints

1.1. Robot movement

The new generations of robots have been improved to a great extent compared to earlier ones. Particularly, the social robots which are also called humanoid robots are getting more and more anthropomorphized. This is since the more they look like human beings, the more they can interact with others, be it learners, patients, or simply other users. It is argued that educational service robots, with their friendly appearance and physical movements, can establish interactive relationships with learners, particularly with children, making learning more pleasurable by increasing learners' interest (Han, 2010). Now, the new robotic generations have a head, arms, fingers, feet, mobile device and tablet interface like NAO (an anthropomorphized and programmable robot manufactured by Aldebaran Robotics) which has more features of a human. They can speak, walk, sit, stand, and move some parts of their bodies (Meghdari et al., 2013).

In spite of this promotion, there are some limitations in their movements. For instance, they cannot give and take something, because they cannot move their fingers, or they have delay in their movement. Such deficiencies let them look more artificial. This constraint is particularly significant in interaction with young learners because, as it has been demonstrated in some researches, the application of robots has been more beneficial for young learners (Han & Kim, 2009). A robotic learning companion can support children's early language education, helping both the social nature of language learning and the

adaptation which is essentially needed children (Kory & Breazeal, 2014). Since children can rely on robots and interact with them more willingly compared to adult learners, robots should have more degrees of freedom and flexibility in different parts of the body especially head, arms, knees and fingers in order to attract learners, gain their attention, and elicit their response.

Moreover, easy movement is vital in some language teaching approaches such as total physical response (TPR), task-based language teaching (TBLT) and communicative language teaching (CLT). From the standpoint of language teaching techniques, TPR focuses on learning through actions. Similarly, TBLT and CLT emphasize on guiding learners to communicate, encouraging them to perform meaningful tasks using the target language. In all these approaches, robots should be capable of interacting as interlocutors through motions, actions and speech. Robots, however, cannot meet this need fully today.

Besides, movements are important attributes in language expression, particularly when teaching a concept is based on movement. For instance, when learners are taught concepts like rotation, transformation, nodding and the like, robots enhanced with gestures can not only boost their motivation but they can also guide them through using appropriate gestures while speaking. Chang, et al. (2010) stated that "in foreign language learning, this feature can even help students understand unknown words spoken by the robot. Although teachers can also gesticulate, certain comical or exaggerated motions may be difficult to perform"(p. 15). It would be so helpful if robots could help with that though the present robots lack this ability.

Another related concern is that most of the commercially telepresence robots have a functional physical appearance. They have wheels as their base and a display on the top as it is the case in VGo, QB, Texai, Double, and Beam (Tsui & Yanco, 2013). This makes them odd-looking, slow and unnatural in motions. As a compensation for this problem, an instructor needs to do a lot of work to express context-appropriate gestures, and this workload takes time and might increase the teaching load (Han, 2013). It seems significant to improve robot movements in the next generations.

1.2. Gestures and facial expressions

According to human-robot interaction studies, humanoid robots can perform social roles better than earlier generations of robots (Woods, Dautenhahn & Schulz, 2004). The physical appearance of robots can attract users' trust and attention (Schaefer, Sanders, Yordon, Billings & Hancock, 2012). While new robots have some features of a human being, there are still limitations in their facial expressions. They are not capable of demonstrating emotions such as being happy, sad, furious, tired, thoughtful etc. The nonverbal component of a

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massage, communicated through facial expression, is essential to learners, especially the younger ones, because they are sensitive to emotions. It has a great impact on their communication, their acceptance of their instructor, and as a result on their learning. Besides, some basic emotional concepts like happiness, sadness and the like are expected to be displayed and taught by facial and emotional expressions. Another facial communication signal which is crucial in engaging learners is eye contact as a nonverbal cue. Robots are not capable of maintaining eye contact with learners, failing to capture their attention sufficiently. AsTsui and Yanco (2013) state the fact is that "as social interaction is the primary goal of social telepresence robots, failure to design for eye gaze, facial expressions, and nonverbal gestures will result in systems that hinder the ability to achieve telepresence for the user and/or the interactant" (p. 275).

Efforts to anthropomorphicize robots mean to address this deficiency through more natural and communicative robot faces (e.g., Blow, Dautenhahn, Appleby, Nehaniv& Lee, 2006), or through an ironic or cartoon i-pad face (e.g., Han, 2013). More effort, however, is needed to address the demand for more human-like robots.

1.3. Network failure

Technology- enhanced language learning is not new. Utilizing computers to support second language acquisition which is recognized as CALL started in 1960s. When computers developed rapidly, they were expected to be able to act as a tutor, so that they could help teachers in learning environments by integrating various sources, having interaction with students, and adding fun to class (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). Later on, with the advent of smart phones, mobile assisted language learning became the center of interest due to its potentiality for offering personalized, spontaneous, informal and ubiquitous learning. As it is clear, all these services require the Internet. The same story holds true about RALL. "The framework of autonomous robots is based on web-based services because RALL has stemmed from e-Learning. Tele-operated robots are similar to video conferencing, and consist of tele-operated robots and a support system for controlling their multi-modal interface via the internet" (Han, 2013, p. 3). So, if there is a network failure, this service is not applicable at all. Since the web limitations such as unstable or low-speed connections are inevitable at present, an important concern is the waste of class time, and disturbance in the learning process.

1.4. Speech recognition complications

As indicated in RALL studies, autonomous robots are helpful in teaching and learning because they can play the role of an assistant, or a tutor (Kanda, Hirano, Eaton, & Ishiguro, 2004; Han & Kim, 2006). When a robotic medium is applied as a substitute for a native

speaker teacher, it should behave human like as much as possible and recognize speech to a great extent, because speech recognition is vital in language learning. According to some field studies, the slow rate of face and voice recognition hinders the human-robot interaction. Consequently, young learners become disappointed and abandon the experience (Hur & Han, 2009).

Another related complication which is technically and socially difficult to solve is the problem of conversational attention. When some people speak loudly at the same time or while moving around, speech recognition programs in robots can hardly work properly (Tsui &Yanco, 2013). This is a critical issue in language learning because inaccurate recognition might make robot application for language teaching skeptical (Mobin et al., 2012). This is while there is often much sound in a language class and this hinders optimal voice recognition.

Similarly, because of speech-recognition limitations, interactants have to locate near the robot and speak directly to it, which itself leads to other problems. Some children may be afraid of robots, or they may damage them due to their rigidity, i.e., lack of elasticity. Getting close to robots is even more threatening since they often lose their balance very easily plus the fact that getting very close to robots makes communication very unnatural. Thus, teachers may not want young learners to stand too close to the telepresence robot. If robots were able to adjust the audio to remove background sound and scale the people's voice in an appropriate way in the remote places, or even for the distance between the robot and the user, they could function more efficiently (Tsui, Desai, Yanco & Uhlik, 2011).

1.5. Artificial intelligence complexities

Artificial intelligence can be considered the most exciting as well as the most controversial issue in this field. It is agreed that a robot can work in an assembly line, but there's no agreement on whether a robot can be recognized as intelligent. Service robots cannot imitate organic behavior to the extent that we can consider them as intelligent agents. Some people are hopeful that it will happen in future, but due to some serious reasons, it might not come true at least in near future (Uttal, 1998).

Despite the great enhancement in manufacturing social robots, a significant concern is their complex artificial intelligence. Han (2013) emphasizes on the "difficulties in sustaining long-term interaction due to limitations in artificial intelligence and human-robot interaction technology [HRI]" (p. 2). Moreover, the level of intelligence of robots is not enhanced, and this has made their application to little children and infants limited. It seems that more scientific, communal, skeptical, and systematic inquiry in the area of artificial intelligence technology and HRI for educational service robots is needed (Park, Han, Kang& Shin, 2011).

1.6. Voice monotony

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Another concern which can influence the interaction between learners and robots is the lack of voice variety. While human teachers adopt different roles or voices for telling stories or playing games, service robots with a single voice are boring. In addition, as robots are getting more and more anthropomorphized_with the intention of having more natural interactions with users_ different voices, such as an elderly man, a child, or a famous person, can stimulate learners to listen and speak more readily. As a teacher indicated, "it would be better if the robot could play different roles, using different voices. I think it would be interesting if the robot were able to speak like our president" (Chang et al., 2010, p. 20).

2. Methodological and pedagogical constraints

2.1. Lack of sufficient empirical evidence

As integrating robots in language learning is new, there are not sufficient empirical evidences about the topic. There are some studies on utilizing robots for teaching English words to young learners. For example, Mazzoni and Benvenuti (2015) worked on a playful word-picture association task about fruits and vegetables with the help of a humanoid robot (Mec Willy). They suggested that learners can boost their English through a socio-cognitive conflict enhanced by robotic games. In another study, Hong, Huang, Hsu, and Shen (2015) used robot-assisted instructional materials for elementary students, and the result demonstrated an improvement in their reading and listening skills as well as in their learning motivations. There are a few other surveys on using RALL curriculum, however, their results are not generalizable since they have been conducted over a few sessions without a considerable, or even sufficient amount of instruction being reported (Mubin, Stevens, Shahid, Al Mahmud & Dong, 2013).

Besides, few studies have tried to use robots in language teaching." Despite the fact that Kanda & Ishiguro (2005) have been pioneers to use robots in language classroom, it is essential to use robots more comprehensively to enhance language learning and teaching" (Asadi, Alemi, Farjami & Makhdoumi, 2014, p. 8). Chen, Quadir and Teng (2011) pointed out that "though robotic technology has been exploited in a few educational settings, little effort has been attempted to apply it in the context of English learning" (p. 4). Moreover, there is a lack of high quality empirical studies which illuminate the educational procedure and impact. Most studies claim that there is an educational benefit without measuring the factors which cause the benefit in a dependable way. This in turn leads to research methods being still rudimentary. Comparatively, there exist few experiments on how people can learn from social robots (Smith, 2011).

2.2. Lack of RALL methodology

RALL teaching techniques and methodology have not formed. Researchers use a variety of mainstream and innovative techniques and methods depending on their goals and the nature

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of their research in a trial and error manner. There is yet need for compiling the present studies, analyzing their results, extracting the methods which have proved to suit particular settings, goals and participants, and applying the outcomes to new RALL experiences. In particular, studying how students accept and react robot teachers in response to different types of teaching methods can provide insightful results for developing new RALL methodologies (Smith, 2011). Lack of RALL methodology may, to some extent, be due to the postmethod era when prescribing particular teaching methods is no longer welcomed. RALL, however, seems to demand its particular methodological and technical conceptualization and training due to its novelty, multidimensionality, and complexity.

2.3. Pedagogical/instructional constraints

Curriculum development which is a planned, a purposeful, progressive, and systematic process to create positive improvements in the educational environment is regarded as the core stone of any learning system, without which the educational system cannot work. Despite the integration of educational robots into foreign language learning in recent years, the lack of well-presented curriculum and teaching materials is an important concern. One of the first things that RALL teachers need to do is to determine what it is that they want to teach, foreground and measure, when they teach. An appropriate instructional curriculum and the materials it suggest should define the role of the teacher, because in a RALL curriculum the teacher might have the main role with the robot playing the role of his/her assistant, or the teacher is likely to act as a facilitator with the robot taking a more influential role.

In short, this deficiency in applying robots in class according to well-defined curricula is problematic for instructors, because they have to take much time and effort to interlink robots with instructional goals, materials and classroom activities. It is suggested that the RALL models should provide educational templates in order to help the instructors develop robot-assisted teaching programs and main or complementary materials (Hong et al., 2016).

2.4. Lack of consideration for individual differences

Recognizing learner differences including learning styles, strategies, aptitude, affective variables, gender, culture, age, and other demographic variables and implementing them to language methodology is highly influential in language learners' success. In particular, fully individualized programs in which these elements have been considered, as well as learner-centered instructions are popular today.

In general, the individual differences research may put the person firmly in the center and accept his/her uniqueness. It also accepts all the necessary constructs or categories in any pattern for that individual learner (Skehan, 1991). Therefore the robotic behavior and curricula should be flexible and adoptable to the individual learners' differences, and take students' characteristics into account. Although, there has been some works like the Roberta

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project (Redenfeld & Leimbach, 2010) which incorporated girls in technical issues, taking the gender of learners into consideration, it is far distant from a comprehensive RALL curriculum in which these essential attributes of students are precisely minded. Different attributes of the individuals such as gender, age, their knowledge of robotics, and social or cultural background are expected to be included in similar studies (Mobin et al., 2013).

2.5. Insufficient instructional flexibility and innovation

One major problem with RALL is its obsession with prefabricated educational programs, ignoring the classroom dynamism and new events emerging in the classroom which may decide the rest of the program. In RALL, everything has to be fixed in advance and there is little room for creativity and change in classroom affairs, on the part of both teachers and learners.

Moreover, the interaction between learners and service robots may cause some problems in that traditional robotic systems usually have repetitive performances in a restricted environment, while human interactions usually take place in novel, unexpected and innovative manners. Often, the robots' reactions might seem repetitive and boring, especially since they are not based on the collaboration with the robot users and the environments (Lund, 2004).Therefore, students may lose their interests, and communicating with robots may become boring to them. Maintaining learners' interest is more significant for young learners since their learning time span is rather short and fixed robotic programs can hardly create dynamic and exciting learning environments for them.

2.6. High workload for teachers

Although, robots have been integrated to learning institutions with the intention of assisting the teacher and facilitating teaching, they have brought about some extra works for the teachers, because special training and management are required for teachers to know how to conduct robotic curricula and how to cooperate with robots in class. There is high workload for teachers because of both controlling learning contents and robot hardware while they teach English. Chang et al. (2010) explain that "certain language teachers … are skeptical of such advanced technologies and are reluctant to use them. They feel that it is too complicated and difficult to manipulate robots for teaching" (p. 20).

Finally, based on the teachers' comments, teachers who are not a computer professional should spend much time learning the authoring tools to design the robot's movements. In some cases, teachers have to spend extra hours to prepare the robot-assisted materials in order to correct the robot's movements. It is essential for teachers to be proficient in authoring devices, otherwise the robot becomes a distracting toy in the classroom. On the other hand, since robots are of high costs, teachers are always concerned that children may damage them and this is still another burden on their mind.

2.7. Need for persistent assistance of robotics professionals

Due to the complicated systems of robots, such as the artificial intelligence or the hardware frameworks, the persistent presence of professional experts is inevitable. A robotics developer must program the interaction scenarios between robots and learners in the class in advance (Hong et al., 2016). There should also be an expert to incorporate the language learning materials or syllabus to the robot system, and a robotic operator must be present during the class to help the job. In addition, more inquiries are needed to develop the robot system, so that the educationalists and service robot designers can have consistent collaborations. This issue causes some additional cost, and not all learning institutions or schools afford it. Moreover, cooperation between robot operator and teacher in the classroom is difficult, and the time or coordinating management between them might be problematic.

2.8. The Hawthorne effect

The presence of a robot or the assistant to control the robot in the classroom might distract the students, or cause the Hawthorne effect which is likely to have impact on the studies about applying educational robots in a class. The Hawthorne effect is a psychological phenomenon which produces an improvement in human behavior or performance as a result of increased attention from superiors or colleagues. In all cases, observed individuals behave or perform better than unsupervised individuals for a limited time if they suspect or know about the observation. In the long term, however, performance reverts to previous levels unless another environmental change occurs. Based on the Hawthorne Effect, it cannot be confirmed that the robot was the only element to have impact on the learning performance. As this is a limitation of robot-applied studies, some other experiments in which other identical educational device such as puppets has been utilized must be done in order to validate the result (Hong et al., 2016).

3. Psychological barriers

3.1. Lack of acceptance on the part of learners and teachers

RALL allows robots to play the role of an instructor or a native speaker in language instructional contexts (Movellan, Eckhardt, Virnes & Rodriguez, 2009, Park et al., 2011). It is even claimed that robots can enhance the students' motivation since learners are more pleased and less anxious when they communicate with a robot with an anthropomorphized appearance (Han, 2010). Today, effort is made to develop robots which can participate in human society and move and act in settings as complex as human environments, so that they should be able to interact with humans using human-friendly modalities. In a research, the students who had both the robot teacher and the human teacher were compared to students

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who had only a human teacher, and the results demonstrated that the former group of students performed better in terms of factors like sound harmonics and sound quality (Smith, 2011).

In contrast, there is an argument against RALL for it is claimed that robots make learners disappointed and teachers exhausted (Chang, 2010). In addition, some teachers look reluctant to use robots in learning environments. One probable reason for this reluctance is that they want to keep their position as the leader or the focal point of a class, since it seems that these humanoid robotic teachers might endanger their position. Teachers also think that students might trust robots over their teachers, and this may lead to obsessions with robots instead of actual learning practices. If the robot has the main role in a class, it leads the teacher to take the role of a facilitator, which is not pleasant for many teachers (Alimisis, 2009). According to Lee, Lee, Kye, and Ko (2013), teachers who attended their survey were critical of robots at schools for similar reasons. They should be reassured that they are not going to be replaced with robots and robots are used in a class as a teaching aid with the intention of complementing learning and motivating learners.

3.2.   Decrease in learners' motivation

 Motivation can be defined as the learner's orientation regarding the purposes of second language learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). RALL experience is absorbing to learners at their first exposure and boost their motivation rapidly. However, as the time passes, motivation often fades among young, and specially, adult learners. Kanda & Ishiguro (2005) have demonstrated that children's motivation rises significantly when there is a robot in the classroom. They have also mentioned that this stimulation does not last for a long time. The other influential issue can be the lack of adaptation or personalization to individual children. If robots could be adjusted to students' needs, and robots' performances could be changed over time, it would enhance the long term relationship, as well as the learners' engagement and motivation. Not much experiment has been conducted in designing adaptive robots as learning companions (Kory & Breazeal, 2014).

4.   Ignoring cultural differences

 As social service robots have been implemented to people's life in order to have social interaction with them, it is essential to investigate the attitude of users toward robots. Since this attitude depends, to a large extent, to users' culture which obviously depends on the culture, it is necessary to study cultural acceptability of robots in pedagogical settings. The results of the comparison of cultural acceptability of robots can have impacts on developing and designing the suitable content for tutorial robots and world marketing. This is why the robot advancement is influenced by the various points of view about robots (Choi, Lee, & Han, 2008). For example, according to a research conducted on the cultural views towards

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robots hold by people from different nations, eastern countries had different viewpoints from western countries based on their attitude, social background, and their exposure to robots (Bartneck, Nomura, Kanda, Suzuki &Kennsuke, 2005). In European countries, industrial or nursing robots are widespread; in Korea, educational robots like teaching assistants or peer tutors are advanced, and in Japan humanoid or pet robots like Asimo are developed (Choi et al., 2008). A country with a high appreciation of individualism or more advancement in industrial robots might have rigid attitudes towards the social robots. Other experiments indicated that robots which communicated explicitly affect Americans more, but another nation like the Chinese are effected more by the implicit robotic communications. In addition, Chinese people might consider robots as in-group member more than the Americans (Wang, Rau, Evers, Robinson, & Hinds, 2010).

 Moreover, Bartneck's early researches pointed out the impacts of cultural diversities on individuals' negative attitudes towards robots. He also mentioned that different levels of exposure to robots has impact on people viewpoints regarding robots (Bartneck, Suzuki, Kanda & Nomura, 2007). Another study concerning human-robot interaction has proved the key role of cultural effects on human-robot communication in different respects (Li, Rau, & Li, 2010). Americans and Asians have culturally different standpoints towards humanoid and animal type robots (Namura et al, 2008).

By and large, millions of robots have been sold up to now. The point is that manufacturers design and produce the same service robots and export them to different countries. So, robot producers must bear the cultural diversity in their minds. Here engineers should design a kind of culturally adaptive agent which can be considered as an alternative. This adaptive robot is a social agent which can detect users' cultural cues in communicative behaviors and respond to them appropriately. The purpose of designing a culturally adjustable robot is to enhance smooth and fluent collaboration between a robot and an individual (Li et al., 2010). This alternative can lead to positive perception and evaluation, but well-conducted studies are needed to design such a fully adoptive robot. Li et al. (2010) stated that, "In the future, a social robot that functions in a multi-cultural environment should be capable of detecting the users' cultural background as well as adapting its speech and motions to engage the users actively" (p. 11). As a result, one significant issue is perceiving cultural differences in how users understand and react to these intelligent agents. To implement instructional robots as worldwide applications, an attentive cultural acceptability on the part of nations and attending cultural differences on the part of robot designers are crucial (Choi, 2008).

5.   Financial constraints

 One of the major shortcomings in the development of language educational robots is their high cost which is not affordable for most schools, researchers, and language teachers. The

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software, the equipment that you need to use with the robot, the staff training, paying the professional expert, employing the robot operators, designing the appropriate language learning material, and incorporating it to the robot system cost a lot of money. In practice, even most commercial users of robots find it uneconomical to reconfigure robots in any situation because of the programming expenses involved.

One solution to this problem, as it was indicated in a study can be buying remote-controlled and simple function robots from toyshops. These small and low-cost robots are applicable for educational purposes, but the teacher has to control them. For instance, an inexpensive robot called ROBOSAPIEN which can be operated by a remote control, and be purchased from a toyshop, has been applied as an instructional tool for second language learning at an elementary school (You, Shen, Chang, Liu& Chen, 2006). The merit of this solution is lowering the cost of robots for language learning, but they have a major demerit which is not being well-developed for instruction. As a result, teachers would have to develop the link between the robot program and the learning materials which is itself a time-consuming task.

6.   Ethical considerations

Since robots with human-like attributes are being incorporated into our lives to have more and more social interaction with people, unresolved ethical challenges such as moral rights regarding their development must be taken into account. Operto (2011) suggested "roboethics", which are the ethical issues related to present and future applications of robots. He also believed that they should be added to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Treaty of Lisbon (2000), which are concerning the fundamentals of the human dignity for all people. Manzeschke, Weber, Rother, and Fangerau (2013) have published some guidelines for robot and some other assistive technologies. Besides, some ethical guidelines for robotic engineers have been proposed by Riek and Howard (2014).

In any case, there might be the potential privacy problem for learners and the teacher, since they are designed to be more autonomous, and even to learn from the surroundings. In addition to being capable of recording and saving personal information, they can connect to the internet and distribute private information.

Although many experiments concerning the benefits of applying robots have been done in recent years, there is a lack of research on various ethical dimensions pertaining the related violations. For example, Han (2012) indicated that, RALL leads to some constraints, such as sharing the class activity data, the exposure of learners and the class to others from the outside via tele-conferencing, the probable obsession of students with robots, and learners trusting an instructional robot over their own instructor.

Another ethical concern about evaluating social robots is how much they are perceived to be safe and trustworthy. Especially in the human- robot collaborations in which humans have to

accept information provided by the robot and follow its suggestions, trust and, as a result, persuasiveness have the major role.

Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to bring to the fore some limitations and challenges of utilizing humanoid robots in second language education. Integrating these intelligent agents in educational system is claimed to be fruitful to both teachers and learners since they boost the students' motivation and interests (Meghdari et al., 2013). Robots can play the role of a teacher assistant, tutor, and native speaker in class. In spite of these benefits, there are several constraints which should be born in mind before applying robots in language learning programs.

The taxonomy of RALL constraints suggested in this study consists of hardware design and technical/operational constraints, methodological and pedagogical constraints, and psychological barriers, cultural, financial, and ethical limitations. Moreover, there are many other constrains which are the subgroup of the main headings, such as problems with robots' facial expressions, psychological barriers, hardware failures, lack of sufficient empirical evidence and RALL methodology, lack of including cultural and individual differences, decrease in learners' motivation, high workload for the instructors and the like.

On the whole, the results of this study bring us a step closer to understanding the potential constraints of applying tutorial robots in language educational settings. This recognition is hopefully the first step towards developing a realistic view of RALL classes, on the one hand, and towards taking more practical steps to solve the problems raised in such classes due to the afore mentioned constraints. Although many of the robot limitations have been mentioned and clarified, they can be explored and analyzed more deeply in future research studies. In addition, more studies are needed to scrutinize various dimensions of any of the constraints proposed and discussed in the present paper. The findings of the present study can be useful for language educationalists, robot operators, materials developers, syllabus designers, and language learners, especially to come together to design and manufacture more applicable and user-friendly social robots.

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A Comparative Study of Teacher Education in Iran & China: Initial Recruitment & Pre-service Practicum procedures

Jamileh Rahemi[16]
j.Rahemi@cfu.ac.ir

Pooran Khorooshi[17]
poorankhorushi@cfu.ac.ir

Abstract

Teacher education is regarded as one of the crucial elements in the development of education in any country. Undoubtedly, the procedures implemented in the entry recruitment phase, i.e. the qualification requirements needed for attracting teacher candidates in teacher education centers as well as the preparation programs designed and applied in teaching practice courses, i.e., practicum courses, play acritical role in ensuring the quality of teacher education systems. The present paper then aims at describing the teacher education systems of Iran and China in general, and the initial recruitment procedures and their preparation programs in practicum courses in particular to address applicable issues and constructive lessons to be learned from the relevant experiences of the countries. In so doing, the current study, as a comparative and descriptive one, collected its required data via existing documents and reports published by OECD, the international and governmental organizations and previous research done relevant to the target countries. Using the Bereday Comparative framework (1964), first the required data on each country were collected from valid and reliable sources and interpreted respectively. Following this, the data were classified and categorized based on specific criteria. Finally, similarities and differences were analyzed in the final stage. The results indicated that Iran and China bear some resemblance to one another in preservice teacher recruitment requirements and also practicum courses. However, there are several differences which needs due attention and can be the source of learning for either of the countries.

Keywords: Teacher Education, Initial Recruitment, Pre-service Preparation, Teacing Practicum,
Iran, China

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[16] Assisstant Professor, Department of Humanities, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran.

[17] Lecturer, Department of Educational Sciences, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran.

Introduction

It is widely accepted that the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and competencies of the citizens of a country play a determining role in the accomplishments of the country in different areas. Among all educational resources, teachers, as one of the main mediums to transmits knowledge, to shape positive attitudes and to nurture constructive values among students, play a significant role in the achievements of all nations because of the great contribution they make to students' learning. In fact, teachers can be regarded as a key contributor to the achievements and success of any society via the undeniable effect and prominent power they exert on the education of young learners as the future citizens of societies.

Definitely, in order for teachers to do this significant mission successfully, first they themselves should be equipped with the essential knowledge, skills, positive viewpoints, and competencies, and this is where the role of teacher education (TE) programs and the procedures they use to recruit teaching candidates and to prepare and train qualified teachers for contemporary societies are markedly highlighted. There is growing evidence that TE is a significant contributor to teacher quality. As Smith (2005) asserts, the seeds for teacher professionalism are planted and nourished during teacher education programs to develop independently after graduation from pre-service teacher educations. Thus, if the success of both individuals and nations are expected, more attention should be paid to the quality of TE programs and the policies they tend to adopt in training and preparing student teachers (STs). In fact, as an important way to promote teachers' professional ability, specific attention should be paid to pre-service training field because for a country to have quality teachers, there must be a high quality teacher education program.

Many countries have recently increased the entry requirements and standards and stricter certification processes to guarantee the quality of their teacher education programs. In other words, making tangible decisions regarding whom to admit and how to prepare their teacher candidates to become effective teachers must be the concern of all nations (Worrell et al., 2014). In addition, since teachers are actually the principal executors of educational programs in real environments, empowering STs with the essential competencies and developing their professional capacities can be regarded as the main component of any education system (Bibisoltani & Jabalamoli, 2012). This is why teacher training programs should aim at first setting higher standards and tougher criteria for the entry phase, i.e., before the candidates enter the TE programs, and second designing competency-oriented curriculums that can provide the STs with the required skills and knowledge before they enter the real environments of schools and classes. It is undeniable that the fulfillment of the competencies envisaged in competency-based curriculum of TE centers is contingent upon the execution of the internship program (Ahmad Abadi, 2013).

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The present study then makes an attempt to make a comparison between the TE systems in Iran and China in terms of the initial recruitment procedures and the way practicum courses are designed and implemented in the countries. Following, first a short discussion on the significance of teaching practice in TE programs is presented. Then, a rather comprehensive review of developmental trend of teacher education in the target countries is offered. Afterward, the objectives of the paper, the methodology to meet the objectives, the findings and result of the study are reported. Finally, the conclusion are drawn and some recommendations are made for the improvement of the recruitment and practicum procedures in the TE systems of the two countries.

Internship in Teacher Education

TE programs should consider both the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching if they are to achieve the required features of a quality teacher. In fact, the teacher training institutions should be aimed at equipping STs with all the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that might help them in their professional development. Beyond doubt, focusing on internship courses, as the only practical aspect of TE programs, and the way they are designed, organized, and implemented is so critical (Mesiska & Salik, 2016).

Practicum is a field experience when student teachers teach in schools and apply their learnt knowledge in real situations. That is, it is the first connection and transition to real field of teaching (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003). Internship is the pattern of thinking in action in which thoughtful interns are trained (Salerni et al, 2014). Practicum is also viewed as a supervised and guided teaching experience of teaching candidates under an experienced mentor (Chireshe & Chireshe, 2010). For Parishani & Khorooshi (2016), internship is regarded as an opportunity for students to become familiar with the work environment. It not only enhances their capabilities for future employment, but also gives interns a wider choice in their tasks so that they can find about their interests and tendencies better and evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of their work. In other words, theoretical principles can be taught in classes in the best way, but real communication methods can be achieved only through real practice and it is at this action stage that interns are able to increase their verbal and non-verbal communication skills.

For Salvatori (2010), the internship allows STs to integrate theoretical, practical, and experiential knowledge in the understanding of and resolution of professional issues. Emphasizing the importance of apprenticeship, researchers and educators argue that it provides prospective teachers with a chance to observe and work in the real context (Huling, 1997), to engage in teaching, and to achieve the knowledge about their future profession (Shulman, 1987), and to develop their teaching competence (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). Internship also provides a laboratory to validate the choice of career and commitment to it (Daresh, 1990).

As Masoumpanah et al (2016, 2019) assert, all the members of the teaching practice benefit from the practicum courses. While STs use their practicum experiences to link theory to practice and get prepared for their work, teacher educators and host teachers benefit from this experience by widening their views of themselves and the teaching job and deepening their understanding of their profession which can lead to a feeling of satisfaction and pride from their roles.

To provide a clear understanding of practicum and the roles and functions it might have in preparing STs for their future career, Manzar Abbas and Lu (2013)summarize the

major kinds of purposes of internship courses presented in the literature as follows: A well-planned practicum: 1) provides a real field to apply the acquired knowledge (Daresh, 1990); 2) provides a real field to understand the real context of professional understanding (Shulman, 1987); 3) provides feedback for further development and an opportunity to become a reflective practitioner (Yan & He, 2010); 4) integrate/links the theory to the practice (Schon, 1987); 5) provides the prospective teachers to observe and experience diverse contexts and learners (Beck & Kosnik, 2002); and 6) is a transition of roles from a student to a professional worker (Menter, 1989).

Given all the arguments for the role of practical teaching internship in preparing STs to achieve professional development, researchers and educators suggest that the teaching training in general and teaching practicum in particular should be given a universal concern by all the stakeholders of education (Manzar Abbas & Lu, 2013). Definitely, conducting comparative studies, including this one, on different teacher training systems implemented around the world will provide an opportunity to better understand the reasons behind the success or failure of some countries in achieving their teacher training mission. In other words, the findings might be helpful in realizing the strengths and weaknesses of TE programs in the target countries and in finding out how to improve them by implementing effective strategies in the procedures of both initial recruiting teaching candidates and also preparing them during the preservice practicum courses. Before proceeding any further, first a brief overview of the historical development of teacher education over different eras in both countries is presented to better understand the current provisions and the latest challenges of TE in general and recruitment and preparation procedures of the aforementioned countries in particular.

Teacher Education in Iran: Historical Background

Teaching is a profession considered sacred as the founder of Islamic Republic of Iran Imam Khomeini regards 'teaching as prophets' profession'. Iranians celebrate teaching and honor teachers for their sincerity on May 2 as National Teachers' Day in the country on martyrdom anniversary of Ayatollah Morteza Motahari, a notorious intellectual and teacher, who had important influences on the ideologies of the Islamic Republic of Iran and was assassinated in Tehran by gunshot in 1979. Every year, on the occasion, schools around the country mark the day by special ceremonies and students express gratitude to their teachers for their hard work (Wikipedia).

Several Iranian researchers have provided comprehensive reviews of the historical background of TE in Iran. In the following paragraphs, a summary of the developmental trend of Iranian TE, based on Aghazadeh (2005), Masoumpanah (2019), Safari & Rashidi (2015), and Safi (2008) is presented:

Although teachers and their profession have traditionally been respected in Iran, there was no special teacher training center until a century ago. Before the beginning of constitutionalism in Iran, there was no special center for teacher training and early teachers were generally selected from among the interested, studious and talented students of traditional schools called Maktabkhane by their masters. The masters provided these students with a hand-written certificate approving their capabilities for working as teachers in spite of the fact that they had not received any special education. Teaching was a private job named "Maktabdari in Persian" and did not require any formal permit or certificate by the government. The profession was done only by patient people who were interested in teaching

the young. Even some seminarians who had passed the elementary levels in seminary (in Persian Hoze-Elmieh) could do the teaching job.

With the establishment of polytechnic institute (in Persian called Dar-ol-Fonon) in 1849 and the ministry of Sciences as well as the construction of several new schools in big cities, including Tehran, Tabriz, and Isfahan, a great need for teachers and their formal training was felt so that in 1911 about 15 candidates were sent abroad by the government for receiving the required trainings to become teachers. To sum up, here have been five eras for the development of formal teacher training, which are explained briefly as follows:

Formal teacher education in Iran dates back to 1918, when the first teacher training center with two branches called Dar-ol-Moallemin and Dar-ol-Moallemat (Teacher Houses for male and the female candidates respectively), was established following the approval of the legislative assembly. In fact, it was the first time that the theoretical and practical courses were taught over three to four years in special and formal places like colleges. These centers continued to be active till 1933.The central Dar-ol-Moallemat was a public and free school under the ministry of education that trained teachers for the basic (elementary) education and a certain level of high education. Thus it had two branches of Basic and high. The required qualification for studying both at the basic level, which lasted for three years, and the high level, lasting four years, was the certificate of 6-year elementary education.

At the onset of the second era (1933-1978), the national assembly passed a special law for teacher training which made the government to establish a center called Danesh-Sara in Persian (House of knowledge in English) at two levels of basic (two years) and high (3 years). The male and female basic Danesh Saras developed gradually. Training of most and best elementary school teachers was done at these centers. With the development of basic Danesh Saras, Dar-ol-Moalemin and Dar-ol-Moalenat were closed and the responsibility of training teachers for basic and high education was put just on the shoulder of Danesh Sarars.

During the third era, i.e., between 1978 to 2002, the teacher education program was revised and the number of teacher training centers with different names for producing teachers of different levels increased. However, over 2002 to 2008 or the fourth era the number of these centers decreased and many of them limited their activities gradually or even were closed down.due to the emergence of various new approaches to teacher education (for more information see Aghazadeh, 2005; Masoumpanah, 2019, Safari & Rashidi, 2015; Safi, 2008,).

The fifth era of teacher education development in Iran, which is still continuing, started after the approval of the Supreme Cultural Revolution Council in 2011 to aggregate all teacher training centers. In order to merge all teacher-training colleges, the Iranian Ministry of Education changed the name of *Tarbiat Moalem* to *Farhangian* in January 2012 and promoted colleges to the university. Currently, Farhangian University, functioning under the Ministry of Science and Higher Education devolved from the Ministry of Education, specializes in teacher education in different fields and is responsible for preparing would-be teachers for elementary and high school levels (Masoumpanah, 2019|). It is an umbrella organization with more than 60 branches, nearly 40 affiliated centers, about70,000 enrolled student teachers, and more than 5000 teacher educators throughout the country. The branches are teacher education centers that existed long before the university organization took shape. Farhangian University is run by the board of trustees, has legal, financial, and administrative autonomy.(wikipedia).

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The purpose of the founders of the university is to enhance teacher education in Iran. The mission of the university is to educate STs based on the principles of Islamic teachings and domestic settings in order to become competent qualified teachers. Teacher education at this university has expanded very rapidly during the last few years and more courses are held in different campuses which are responsible for training teachers for primary schools as well as high schools. These centers offer four-year programs leading to a BA or BS degree in teaching the relevant subjects. Although some other universities in Iran offer teacher education majors, their graduates, if inetersted in teaching job, must receive one-year training in Farhangian university, which is the primary and the main institution that provides teacher education programs throughout the country. It is noteworthy that, in addition to Farhangian University, there is another specialized TE center in Iran called Tarbiat-Dabir Shahid Rajaee. It is in charge of training teachers for technological and vocational schools. Since vocational preservice education is not the concern of this study, the rest of the paper will focus on Farhangian university as the only center that offers pre-service teacher education for elementary and high school levels.

Teacher Education in China: Historical Background

Teaching has always been a very popularjob in China and the Chinese have a long history of respecting teachers since the very ancient times (Yan, 2013). Even though Chinese teachers are moderately paid, their profession is still popular, particularly in big cities because it is stable and entitled to good benefits. In 1985, the government announced September 10th a holiday named "annual Teachers' Day" (OECD, 2106). Each year this time, some activities like 'The Week for Teachers,' 'Warm Visit to Teacher's Family, "Warm Services for Teachers (particularly by students),' 'Special Gathering for Appreciation of Teachers' Contribution (including retired teachers),' and 'Special Rewards for Outstanding and Experienced Teachers.'are held to appreciate the Chinese teachers; The activities involve students'parents and teachers and students have a very active role in holding them. (UNESCO, 1990). In 1986, it was proclaimed by the Law on Compulsory Education that the whole country should respect teachers. In 1993, the Teachers' Law, codifying protection for teachers' rights and stating their responsibilities, was issued (OECD, 2016).

Chinese Teacher education in China has also a history of more than a century. Unlike the Western tradition, where teacher educationschools were initially established for religious purposes, the Chinese system was set up for political reasons. That is, , a number of politicians and educators realized that teacher education was vital for meeting the political goals of national survival and self-strengthening. Accordingly, modern teacher education came into being and was institutionalized later (Li, 2016). As stated in UNESCO's report (1990), since the end of Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), China has made great attempts to modernize agriculture, industry, science and technology, and national defence, known as the Four Modernization Drive. Education has achieved great success in its restoration, development, and innovation to tackle with this drive, and teacher education has played a strategic role in this regard. It has been recognized that the successful realization of the drive simply will not be happen without effective teacher education. That is why the Chinese government directly addressed the importance of teacher education as a 'machine tool' to achieve the required changes over the country.

As Zhu and Han (2006) explain, in many countries teacher education programs have been gradually promoted from low-ranked institutions to universities, and China is not an exception. With the fast economic growth over the past decades in China, many normal schools where primary school teachers are educated and junior teacher colleges where middle school teachers are trained are being upgraded into universities to meet the growing demand for high quality teachers. The developmental trend of Chinese teacher education is divided by Li (2016) into the four following eras:

Establishment (1897-1911): Duringthis era the first school for training teachers in China, the Normal School of the Nanyang Gongxue (NanyangCollege), was founded in 1897. It happened about two hundred years after the first Western normal school. Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry were the main curriculum offered. Students also had to learn science education, botany, mineralogy, geography and foreign language. 71 students graduated in total, and in 1903, the school was closed. In 1902, an independent teacher education sub-system was included in the first national educational legislation Renyin Xuezhi aimed to create a modern school system based on the model borrowed from Japan. During this period, China's first national licensing system for elementary school teachers was established by theMinistry of Education (MOE) in 1909, and in the following year a similar licensing system was further adopted for teachers of lower and normal and middle schools.

Institutionalization (1912-1949): Renxu xuezhi, the new legislation which was passed on November 1, 1922, radically shifted from the Japanese model of the school system to the American one. Under the new legislation, teacher education was planned at the levels of normal schools, and normal colleges and universities. For elementary schoolteachers, normal schools were generally merged into comprehensive secondary schools. Some provinces began to stop providing subsidies for students enrolled in normal schools, resulting in a decline in enrollment in teacher education. Normal colleges and universities were still positioned as independent institutions on paper. In practice there was only one teacher education institution, the Beijing Higher Normal School; other higher teacher education institutions were merged into comprehensive universities.

Re-institutionalization (1949–1993): The People's Republic of China was founded in 1949, and the new government dreamed of eliminating illiteracy and providing universal education for all school-aged children in the shortest time possible. Teacher education was immediately re-established and was made one of the nation's priorities, in order to catch up with such Western powers. Given the socio-political circumstances, the Soviet model of teacher education was adopted, and remained in place for more than two decades there after. With this model, China relied solely on an independent teacher training system, and teachers were exclusively prepared by normal schools, normal colleges and normal universities, with provincial or regional colleges of education providing in-service education for teachers. By 1953, there were a total of 31 independent normal colleges and universities nationwide.

Professionalization (1993–Present): Since the early 1990s, Chinese leaders have embraced a sweeping wave of reforms, including marketization, privatization and decentralization, pressuredby the intensifying process of globalization. For example, in pursuit of modernization and to catch up with developed countries, the new round of

education reform aims to expand education at all levels while maintaining or improving quality. The rapid expansion of compulsory education and post-secondary education has generated an urgent demand for highly-qualified teachers. The Soviet model of an independent teacher education system no longer meets the demand for a stronger and larger teacher workforce. The national campaign for quality education demanded a process of professionalization of teachers. To respond to these challenges, Chinese policymakers have initiated a retooling of the teacher education system, seeking overall structural adjustment and improvement, as part of restructuring the highereducation system based on the reform strategies for decentralization of the economy and governance. The goals are to give teacher education a new status and bring about the improvement of educational qualifications for new teachers, the establishment of continuing education for teachers, and remarkable improvement in the overall quality of the teacher workforce (MOE, 2002). The goals of the policy action are to produce enough better teachers and to professionalize the teaching workforce; to reform and diversify the teacher education system; and to continuously improve teachers economic and social status

Zhu and Han (2006) also propose a similar conceptual framework that identifies three eras of teacher education development in China: era of shifan, era of post-shifan, and era of professional teacher education. Shifan, literally meaning teacher model, refers to teacher education in Chinese. After the foundation of Peoples' Republic of China in 1949, normal schools, teacher colleges and normal universities where teachers were trained were widely established and called "shifan" schools or "shifan" colleges or universities. Normal schools were four-year institutions and enrolled graduates of junior high schools. They trained elementary school teachers. Teacher colleges had two types: two- or three-year and four-year. Normal universities, the highest rank among the old teacher education system, educated teachers for secondary schools and some junior colleges. However, now there is a discourse change from shifan to teacher education, which seems to distinguish the old teacher training system from the newly reconstructed teacher education system. In the following paragraphs, some of the main points related to each era are summarized based on Zhu and Han's Paper:

Over the era of shifan, normal schools, two- or three-year teacher colleges, four-year teacher colleges, and normal universities constituted a hierarchical teacher education system that received all kinds of resources allocated by governments. Because governments provided tuition waivers, stipends and fellowship for the students who attended the teacher education programs, many top graduates of junior high schools and senior high schools competed hard to get into these centers. Normal schools, normal colleges and universities were public, managed in accordance with the model of the central planning economy. That is, governments were the sole voices that had determinant authority over teacher education programs in the era of shifan. This rigid teacher education structure did not allow teachers to move from the "low-ranked" elementary schools to secondary schools. With the economic growth and educational development, the legitimacy of this hierarchical and monopolised teacher education system was challenged. There were calls for a new era – the era of post-shifan.

In the era of post-shifan, Chinese teacher education programs are getting diversified. That is, normal schools, junior teacher colleges and normal universities of the shifan system promoted into universities, normal schools and teacher colleges were integrated into universities, and non-normal universities were allowed to involve in teacher preparation. In

general, in the era of post-shifan, the traditional teacher education system is being transformed into a new direction. Teacher education programs are not solely housed in normal colleges and universities; instead, more and more comprehensive colleges are being involved in preparing teachers. This indicates an interim from the shifan era to the era of professional teacher education. Locating teacher education programs in comprehensive universities is the long-run goal for the reform of teacher education in China. In the era of post-shifan *who* should prepare teachers becomes one of the major concerns in terms of reforming teacher education.

In the era of professional teacher education, reconstruction of teacher preparation programs is happening Reconstruction refers to educating professional teachers in four-year colleges and universities. Reconstruction does not mean discarding the previous teacher education system; instead, governments need to re-organise teacher education institutions and re-create a new teacher education system. In the era of post-shifan, the old teacher education system – the shifan system consisting of normal schools, teacher colleges and normal universities coexist with comprehensive colleges and universities that involve in teacher preparation. In the era of professional teacher education, a new system will be established while normal schools, teacher colleges and normal universities will be incorporated into or promoted to comprehensive colleges and universities. The aim is to establish teacher education programs at universities where a college of education collaborates with other academic colleges to educate prospective teachers. The reform of teacher education came along with the reform of higher education in China. Recently some research-oriented universities have become involved in teacher preparation. As Li (2016) asserts, the long-term goal of the teacher education reform is to educate prospective teachers in professional schools of education at universities. (For detailed analysis, see Xiaotao, et al., 2019). The following Table summarizes the developmental trajectoryof Chinese and Iranian teacher education.

Table1. The Developmental Trend of TE in Iran & China

Era	Iran	China
1	1918-1933: Establishment of the first teacher training center with two branches called Dar-ol-moallemin and Dar-ol-Moallemat.	1897-1911: Establishment of the first normal school named the Nanyang Gongxue based on Japanese model.
2	1933-1978: Establishment of basic and higher training colleges (Danesh Saras) and some other teacher training centers, passing the law of teacher training by the national assembly; and some improvements observed in teacher education.	1912-1949: Institutionalization: A radical shift from the Japanese model of the school system to the American one. Teacher education planned at the levels of normal schools, and normal colleges and universities; Limitation in the number of teacher education centers.
3	1978-2002: Revision of teacher education program; an increase in the number of teacher training centers.	1949-1993: Re-institutionalization: re-establishment of teacher education, adopting the Soviet model of teacher education; relying solely on an independent teacher training system; teacher education planned at normal schools, normal colleges and normal

		universities
4	2002-2008: The emergence of new approaches to teacher education; a decrease in the number of teacher training centers; limiting or closing many teacher education centers	1993-present: Professionalism: Seeking overall structural adjustment and the reform strategies for decentralization of the economy and governance; attempts to give teacher education a new status and bring about the improvement of educational qualifications for new teachers
5	2011-present: Aggregation of all teacher training centers and merging them into Farhangian university; attempts to professionalize teacher education.	…………………….

As it is clear, the two countries have quested for better teacher education over the history. The first formal establishment of teacher education centers in China (1897) happened only two decades earlier than that of (1918). Both countries have experienced the increase and decrease of the number of TE centers and have gone through reconstruction and reform as a result of social, economic, and political changes. Interestingly, both countries are currently in the era of professionalism which aims reconstructing teacher preparation programs. However, while teacher education in Iran has always followed a centralized system and it still does, China aims at decentralizing education, including teacher education. That is, China amis at decentralising the management of teacher education through allowing institutions of teacher education to have autonomy in enrolment, curriculum design, instructional methods, and job allocation of graduates. In addition, while Iran has aggregated all the previous players in teacher education under one university, i.e. Farhangian university, there are a variety of schools, colleges and universities preparing teachers at different levels in China. As Li (2106) interprets, China's emphasis on diversity of programs as follows: "Regional needs for teachers play a significant role in reforming the institutional structure of teacher education as China is a country with regional diversity, including the different development levels of economy. In economically advanced areas, like the eastern parts of China, normal schools no longer exist, teacher colleges are promoted to universities, normal universities become comprehensive universities, liberal art colleges and comprehensive universities are involved in preparing teachers" (p.8). Thus perhaps the case with Iran that lacks that amount of diversity in china, having a centralized system would work better.

Objectives of the Study

The present study sought to compare teacher training programs in Iran and China to find out their similarities and differences in terms of the procedures they follow in recruiting teaching candidates into the TE programs as well as in preparing STs for their future career. Of special interest for the researchers was to study the teaching internship programs in TE systems of the aforementioned countries. The reason why Iran and China were selected was that both coutries are among the pioneers in developing teacher education systems, and both are experiencing the professionalization phase in their developmental path. Hence, the study was developed to answer the following questions:

1. What qualifications are required at the initial recruitment phase in TE programs in Iran and China?
2. What are the teaching practicum procedures in TE programs in Iran and China?

Research methodology

      This study was a descriptive and comparative one. It is obvious that it is difficult to identify or deal with every single influential component in teacher education programs, so, as stated earlier, the main focuses of the present study were to compare the procedures used for recruiting teaching applicants and the ways they are prepared through internship courses in the two countries. To achieve these purposes, the researchers utilized the Bereday comparative framework (1964) which is carried out in four stages: description, interpretation, proximity, and comparison. Thus, first the available documents and evidence related to teacher training programs and practicum courses in Iran and China were collected from valid and reliable sources, including the existing research papers, books, various data bases as well as some international and national sites hosted by the countries under the study. Following this, the data were classified and categorized based on specific criteria. Finally, similarities and differences were analyzed in the final stage.

Results

Initial Recruitment in Iran

      Sangari and Akasheh (2017) refer to seven main entry criteria in Iran as follows: (1) Candidates must hold a high school diploma; (2) Candidates must be physically and mentally healthy and able-bodied to perform the teacher's professional responsibilities; (3) Candidates must have and submit a clean criminal record and Not-addicted certificate; (4) Candidates should not be over 22 years of age; (5) Candidates must have an over-15 high school average; (6) Candidates must participate in the National University Entrance Examination and be accepted in the examination. This exam is not specifically designed for teaching applicants; Rather it is a standardized test used as one of the means to gain admission to higher education in Iran. In fact, all the high school graduates who want to continue their education after high school diploma in any fields of study must pass this nation-wide test with a certain rank. Similarly, teaching candidates, no matter for which level of education and what kind of school they are going to be trained, must be accepted in this national exam. As for the content of the exam, it covers all subjects taught in Iranian high schools, from math and science to Islamic studies and foreign languages; (7) Candidates must take part in interviews and successfully pass such general and technical interviews. As for the content of the interview, the focus here is on both ideological points of views of students (religious and political attitdes) as well as teaching-related topics. The interview is conducted by a team of experts consisting of some experienced and knowledgeable, usually, PhD holders in the specialized major that the candidate is planning to study as well as some experts in the fields of psychology, religious, and other educational majors. (8) Candidates also should sign an employment contract which makes them committed to the government. The positive point about this commitment is that they are formally hired and paid as would-be teachers from the very moment they are accepted in this university; that is they are considered a member of

teacher community. However, the employment contract requires them to work in any public schools in any city or village that the education office ask them to after their graduation. Finally, the candidates who are recognized as qualified to enter the TE program and have met all the criteri above must takepart in a four-year teacher education program and graduate the program with the stipulated requirements.

Initial Recruitment in China

Since 1993 that the central government has publicized Law of Teachers (1993), Regulations for Qualification of Teachers (1995), and Implementation of Regulations for Qualification of Teachers (2000) regulating the teacher education process, a teacher candidate initially needs to obtain the relevant teaching certificate (Ingersoll, 2007). There are a variety of schools, colleges and universities preparing teachers at different levels and schools in China. Generally, teacher education denotes the pre-service teacher education at the levels of normal schools, junior normal colleges, and normal universities. Normal universities are the foremost form of pre-service training for secondary school teachers. They generally provide four-year Bachelor's programs and three year Master's programs, and many also provide three year Ph.D. programs. Undergraduate students of these institutions are recruited from senior secondary school graduates through the competitive National College Entrance Examination (NCEE), commonly known as *Gaokao* which is an academic examination held annually in the People's Republic of China. This Standardized test is a prerequisite for entrance into almost all higher education institutions, including teacher training ones, at the undergraduate level. It is usually taken by students in their last year of senior high school.

The second level is Junior normal colleges which generally provide three- year sub-degree programs for pre-service teachers for junior high schools. Student tecahers at this level are recruited from senior secondary school graduates with lower scores through the National College Entrance Examination. And the third level is normal schools that generally provide two-to- three year education programs for pre-service teachers for elementary, kindergartens or nursery schoolteachers. Student teachers s are recruited from junior secondary school graduates. Normal schools used to offer the major training path for elementary school. Now these schools are being upgraded into junior normal colleges or being shut down, as elementary school teachers are now required to have a college qualification (Li, 2012).

In China, majoring in teacher education is not a necessary condition for becoming a school teacher. That is, although normal universities offer teacher education programs, students who study in other multidisciplinary universities and who don't major in education may also become school teachers. If a graduate of higher education institutions has gained a teaching profession qualification certificate and also passed teacher recruitment exams organized by local educational authorities, he can be a school teacher then. Subject faculties or departments also can enroll students majoring in teacher education in normal universities. In normal universities in China, things usually happen like this: Faculties or departments of education usually enroll students majoring in early childhood education and primary school education. Faculties or departments of subjects enroll students majoring in subject teaching. In many subject faculties or departments of normal universities, undergraduates are enrolled by discipline category. They don't need to choose their major until the end of 2nd or 3rd academic year. And then whether to study subject teaching majors or non-teaching majors

will be confirmed according to a comprehensive ranking including students' personal will and their academic achievements (Yan, 2013).

Different qualification certificates are required for different types and different ranks of teachers in China. OECD (2016) summarizes the required qualifications as follows: (1) Candidates submit official identification documents, as well as an academic diploma or compliance certification from a teacher qualification examination. (2) An applicant must present a health certificate and reference letters describing his or her moral character; (3) candidates are required to disclose whether they have a criminal record. (4) Candidates must apply personally for the certificates in local educational administration departments at the county level. However, the certificates are issued by different departments according to their categories. As for qualification certificates for teachers in pre-school, primary school and junior secondary schools, they are issued by county-level governments. Qualification certificates for teachers in senior secondary school are issued by educational administrative departments in the upper level. Certificates for practical instructors are also issued by educational administrative departments or by other relevant departments. Teachers at other universities must hold government-approved certificates. Citizens who receive qualification certificates are eligible to teach at schools that accept their teaching certificates or certificates pertaining to lower levels of training.

As Table 2 displays, the main difference between Iran and China systems in terms of their policy for the entry pahse is that in Iran teacher candidates for teaching at primary and high school education (not vocational schools) must be graduates of Farhangian university, the only teacher education center in Iran; otherwise they, along with other qualifications they have to acquire, must participate at least in a one-year training in Farhangian university to acquire the required competencies. In contrast, as stated earlier, in China there are a variety of schools, colleges and universities preparing teachers at different levels and schools. Besides, majoring in teacher education is not a must. That is, even graduates of other universities can enter the job without being have to attend any training courses in specialized teacher training centers. However, they definitely have to acquire the necessary qualifications via other ways.
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Table 2*. Comparison of entry requirements in Iran and China's TE Systems*

Entry Requirements	Iran	China
Holding a diploma	*	*
Clean criminal record	*	
Age limit	*	
GPA	*	
Nation-wide Exam	*	*
interview	*	
Physical and mental qualifications	*	
Formal Study in Teacher Education centers	*	

The entry qualification system in China, which has undergone recent reform, requires the teaching candidates to pass the teacher's qualification examination held nationally. Every certificate applicant has to pass the examination except the applicants for higher education. In

the past, the examination was held at the provincial level mostly, and graduates from dedicated teacher training schools were allowed to skip the exam. Currently, there are separate examinations for pre-school, primary, secondary and vocational education, all of which consist of two parts: the written examination and the interview. The content of qualification examination in different types of education (i.e., primary, secondary, and vocational education) consists of education knowledge and teaching ability. However, for the secondary and vocational education, the candidates' subject knowledge and professional knowledge are tested too. The interview, which is another part of the qualification exam in Chinese system, includes a structured interview and situational simulation. Basic teaching skills such as pedagogy, teaching and assessment, as well as basic attributes like occupational cognition, psychological fitness, manner, expression, thinking and moral quality are the main content of the interview. Interviewers may ask applicants to answer questions from randomly selected topics. Or candidates may be asked to prepare a course, answer questions about it, present the course and create an evaluation for students based on the material (OECD, 2016)

The two countries bear some resemblance to one another in entry recruitment requirements: holding a diploma, passing a nation-wide entry exam are the main common requirements for the entry to specialized teacher training institutions in the two countries. Both in Iran & China, candidates are chosen from among the high school graduates through a National Entrance Exam. Having a non-criminal record, being physically and mentally healthy, and conducting an interview, which are the entry requirements of Farhangian university in Iran are not the required conditions for entrance to schools and universities of teacher education in China. Raher, they are needed for entry to teaching profession for every interested citizen who wants to work as a teacher. As mentioned previously, in Iran the accepted teacher candidates are made to sign an employment contract before their entrance to teacher education programs. This ensures their permanent employment. According to the contract terms, the STs have to work in any place they are needed. In fact, it is a kind of commitment they have with the government, but the Chinese graduates of teacher education institutes must find a school themselves. That is, the kind of job guarantee existing in Iran does not exist for the Chinese student teachers.

Generally, it seems that Iran, has taken a more sensitive stance on the initial recruitments of teaching candidates. For example, in China, the qualifications required to be an elementary school teacher are not as stringent as they are for teaching high school. However, in Iran the requirements for entering Farhangian university and become a teacher is the same for all the candidates, both primary and high school levels. In Iran, some other criteria such as age limit and GPA limit have been added to the requirements. Other requirements that are needed for entrance to teacher training centers in Iran are needed by Chinese teaching candidates at the time of their entrance to schools and before starting their job. In china, applicants themselves should find a school for work and each school might ask for different qualification requirtements. ((Ingersoll, 2007)

Teacher preparation Programs & Internship

After the teacher candidates acquired all the necessary entry requirements and are recruited in the relevant teacher education centers in the two target countries, they have to pass different theoretical and practical courses to graduate as a teacher. Since one of the objectives of the present paper is to make a comparison between Iran and China in terms of the preparation procedures they employ in internship or teaching practice courses, other

theoretical courses they have to pass based on the TE curriculum are not discussed here. That is, only the internship programs of the two countries are described and compared with each other in the remaining part of the article

Teaching Internship Program in Iran:

Enhancing the quality of teacher education has recently become a great concern for the Iranian government. As Rajaeenia et al (2018) report, one of the major initiatives taken by Iranian Ministry of Education was the establishment of Farhanghian University in 2012 with the intention of improving and professionalizing the process of teacher education in Iran. This is supposed to be achieved by employing more experienced and knowledgeable teacher educators and increasing the teacher training period from two to four years. Then, Farhanghian University drew up and ratified the New Teacher Education Curriculum in which core competencies, flexibility, and practicality are the base of all the courses. The Key Competenciesare as follows: competencies related to Content Knowledge (CK), competencies related to Pedagogical Knowledge (PK), competencies related to Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and competencies related to General Knowledge (GK) (Mousapour, & Ahmadi, 2014). In order for Iranian students to achieve these four competencies, some revisions were made in the practicum content and procedures of implementing it too. AS safarnavadeh et al (2019) assert, the internship curriculum of the Farhangian University has been implemented since 2014. The program employs more than 12% of the training time and seeks to provide the opportunity to experience the application of theoretical knowledge in practical situations.

Masoumpanah et al (2109) also provide a rather comprehensive account of practicum courses in Farhangian university as follows: Undergraduate students studying at this university have to attend at 512 hours of practicum courses (almost 15% of the overall educational hours) from the fifth semester to the end of the curriculum. In addition to classroom teaching, observation of other teachers, preparing teaching journals and portfolios, the student-teachers need to involve in multiple teacher development activities: (a) action research by analyzing past practicum reports to identify the themes or issues they need to work on; (b) lesson study, i.e., students are placed into schools in teams of three or four, then partners act as critical friends, available to observe and assist in any collection of information, to observe the partners' teachings, participate in meetings with their partner and keep a journal that documents their investigations into their own teaching; and (c) independent and autonomous work: the cooperating teachers allow students to observe and provide feedback for the peers' teaching. The cooperating teacher oversees the work done by the students and is available if necessary.

Teaching practicum is applied in four subsequent semesters, starting from the fifth term and ending in the eighth term. Practicum courses one to four are provided as 12 credits in Farhangian university (Mousapour & Ahmadi, 2014). The interns have to attend between 14-16 sessions (one day a week through the whole term) in the assigned schools over the semester. In addition, they have to attend a follow-up session, usually on the same day they go to schools, known as 'seminar' in which the interns attend and share their experiences, feelings, and ideas with othet interns and their supervisor. This is a good opportunity for them to discuss and interpret the events observed in their classes. It is noteworthy that the schools are usually chosen by the education office in each city. Their criteria for the school and then

the hosting teacher are both the tendency of the school managers and teachers to accept the interns in their classes along with the experiences and quality of the teachers.

Masoumpanah et al, (2019) describe the four practicum courses as follows: Practicum one is aimed at providing student-teachers with the opportunity to practice what they learn, to broaden their experiences, and to develop their professional competencies. Practicum one is narrative-based and aims at reflective observation. Practicum one mostly includes attending schools and observing classes. That is, the students have to go the classes every week, sit in the classes, and observe attentively all the events happening in the class and then write a daily report in the narrative way for each week they attend at the schools. In their report they have to describe very carefully what they have observed and then submit them to their supervisors. Their supervisors are usually their own university instructors with relevant degrees in teaching and pedagogy, or other relevant majors. They have to read all the reports carefully and provide students with some feedback. The reports are rewritten and revised by the interns based on their supervisors' comments. The comments made by the supervisors aim at making them reflect on their observations so that the student teachers can think deeply about what they have observed and reflect on why such things have happened, and even imagine what they themselves would do if they were in the same situations. This reflective procedure can be very illuminative so the students; it can change their attitudes, and deepen their views toward their future profession.

Regarding the role of narrative writing, Salerni et al (2014) emphasize that internship experience is essential to meet the educational goals and it is a fundamental part of the process of students' professional and personal growth. Thus, an internship report as an epistemic writing can determine the growth of understanding and knowledge. An internship report creates the opportunity for a better reflection both for the interns and also for their teachers. In addition to writing daily reports in practicum one, the interns have to write four comprehensive reports till the end of the semester:

The first report is a thorough description of the physical features of the school they are attending. The purpose is for the interns to reflect on the location of the school, its geographical position, its structural features, the number and sizes of the classes, the facilities of the school such as libraries, laboratories, meeting halls, sports facilities, and etc. Then they have to compare these features with the standards for a good school, and finally reflect on the possible problems the school community, including the students, might face due to these physical features. The second report is a comprehensive description of the organizational structure of the school. That is, the number of all the staff working there and the responsibilities of each member of the school. The aim is to get them familiar with the hierarchical structure of schools which will definitely help them a lot when they start their profession in real contexts. The third report is known as affective report in which the interns have to describe the affective relationship between all the staff of the school they are observing. The kind of interaction the managers have with their staff, the interaction between colleagues, and also between teachers and students can be a good target for their reflection. They can see how interaction and negotiation can influence the atmosphere of the school and also classes, and finally on students' feeling of ease and comfort and of course their learning. The last report is called an instructional report which makes students describe, reflect on, and then interpret the kind of teaching methodology their host teachers use for teaching different contents of the book. Through their reflection on the instructional events in the class, they can

make a link between the theories they have learned in university and the realities of the classes.

While practicum one is just observation-based and includes no teaching by the interns, the three remaining practicum give the interns the chance of teaching in classes progressively. However, writing the narrative and reflective daily reports continues over the four practicum courses. However, in each practicum phase following internship one, some other activities will be added. In practicum two, as Masoumpanah et al (2019) report, the aim is to provide student-teachers with the opportunity to participate in actual teaching and expect them to identify problems through investigating the learning context, and consequently, design, implement, and evaluate learning activities to solve the problems. In fact, practicum two includes both observation and writing daily reports as well as a micro-teaching by the interns. The interns, based on the problems they have observed in the class, choose just a small section of the textbook content and then under the supervision of both their host teacher and supervisor, they prepare a lesson plan to teach it. Their teaching is done under the guidance of their host teacher who is supposed to provide them with their feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching. The supervisor also attends on the teaching day, but if due to any reason he/she can not attend, the intern's teaching is filmed and reviewed in the following seminar.

Practicum three and four include several whole session teachings. They still have to have reflective observations and write daily narrative reports. However, during these two courses they have the chance to experience teaching like a real teacher in the real of classes. Prcaticum three the objective is to do action research based on the experiences that student-teachers obtain from practicum one and two. That is, with the help of their host teacher, they choose a topic form one of textbooks. Then they develop a lesson plan. The lesson plan is discussed in seminar sessions and receives some feedback from other interns and the supervisor. Then similar to practicum two, the host teacher and the supervisor observe the intern's teaching in the real class and provide them with the necessary comments. Finally, practicum four is aimed at educating reflective teachers who attend in collaborative inquiry and undertake action research in group. In other words, practicum four has recently shifted from individual teaching practice toward the concept of "lesson study". That is, the lesson plan is develop in groups consisting of three to four interns, the host teacher, and the supervisor. On the teaching day, the target intern presents his/her teaching in front of the supervisor, the host teacher, and the team interns and even the manager of the school. At the end of teaching, the whole group sits to gether and reflect on the strengths and weakness of the intern's teaching.

Mousapour & Ahmadi (2014) summarize the fundamental activities of practicumk course in Iran as follows:

(1) Introductory activities (familiarity with educational planning, implementation of the curriculum, placement assessment and theoretical education in schools in Iran);
(2) Practical and field study activities (familiarity with schools, observation, collaboration, microteaching and whole session teaching);
(3) End of program activities (Teaching demonstration, reviewing performance and evaluation) (Mousapour & Ahmadi, 2014).

Teaching Internship Program in China:

International studies show that teacher education and teacher training programs in many countries have been gradually promoted from low-ranked institutions to universities. In China, with the fast economic growth over the past decades, many normal schools where elementary school teachers are trained and junior teacher colleges where middle school teachers are educated are being upgraded into universities to meet the increasing needs for high quality teachers. (Zhu & Han (2006). Yu (2013) introduces four different models of teacher education in China at undergraduate level as follows:

▲ "2+2" model: 1st-2nd academic Year: subject knowledge studying; 3rd-4th academic Year: teaching skill training.

▲ "2.5+1.5" model: first 2.5 years: emphasizing on subject theory learning (including some teaching practice);last 1.5 years: focusing on teaching training, practical training is the key point.

▲ "3+1" model: 1st-3rd academic Year: subject knowledge and education theory studying; 4th academic Year: teaching practice.

At postgraduate level:

▲ "4+2" model: 1st-4th academic Year: subject knowledge studying (Bachelor of the subject); 5th-6th academic Year: teaching skill training (Master of education).

As it is clear from the models, the amount of emphasis put on practicum and the credit hours allocated to teaching practice differs in different models. Yu continues that Beijing Normal University uses this model to educate research-based teachers for secondary schools, especially key middle schools. in spite of the differences, the distribution of courses in the in the curricula framework of all the models indicates that subject knowledge (covered through 79-106 units) is emphasized more than pedagogical knowledge (covered through 52 credits).

In order to get a deeper understanding of the practicum procedures in the Chinese TE centers, which is the main focus of the paper too, a breif review of the practicum structure in the University of Hong Kong is provided by Manzar Abbas and Lu (2013) which can be indicative of the position of practicum in the Chineses teacher education curricula. As Manzar Abbas summarizes, the University of Hong Kong offers three practicum experiences throughout the programme. Practicum one is offered in the second year for three weeks which has six credit hours; Practicum two is offered in third year for eight weeks of 12 credit hours; and Practicum three is offered in fourth year for eight weeks of 12 credit hours. See table 7.

As the literature review indicates, timing and duration of practicum experiences in different TE institutes in China differs. For example, in Hong Kong university, the practicum course starts in the second year (third semester), while it is offered in most institutes over the country in the 7th semester (beginning of 4th year). The duration of the practicum is from 8 to 10 weeks (Chen & Mu, 2010). However, as Manzar Abbas (2013) concludes, most of the Chinese Normal universities follow a rationalist (Schon, 1983) model of TE, which contends that first learn the theory and then apply (Ur, 1992) it in the field (Yan & He, 2010). It starts mostly in the month of September, so, at the end of September there are support days and the first week of October is also of National Vacation. Given that, it can be stated that the planned weeks are actually not the true situation in the sense of time allocation for practicum

purposes. According to Chen and Mu (2010) practicum comprises only 4% on the basis of credit hours and less than 6% on the basis of time (assuming 8 to 10 weeks) allocated.

Yiming and Yanping (2011), reviewing the criticisms made against the traditional 8-week teaching practice in pre-service education in China, refer to alternative solutions explored through experiments done by teacher education institutions in recent years. Among them, practicing as Rural Teachers, a new model developed by Southwest University provides a viable solution. To deal with the problem of teacher shortages in the rural areas of Southwest China, Southwest University established practicum schools in rural areas in 2006 where their pre-service students are sent for teaching practice guided by the faculty field instructors. Since then these schools have become long-term stable bases for the university's teaching practice. In the rural schools, the student teachers spend one whole semester to teach their own classes focusing on the following tasks: 1) Planning and observing lessons, doing trial lessons and evaluating teaching, tutoring students after class and marking student work. They teach 4-15 hours per week. 2) Taking charge of the classes they teach by managing students and organizing class activities as class directors or homeroom teachers. 3) Conducting educational research which is combined with the specifics of their disciplinary areas and observing the schools' needs and characteristics to identify and pursue a research topic of their own interest. 4) Assisting the practicum schools' education and teaching reform initiatives. They are encouraged to provide workshops to the school's teaching staff related to their own subject areas, train teachers on using ICT in teaching, and develop teaching kit and repair broken facilities. 5) They also participate in the local communities' culture, science and technology promotion activities.

This type of teaching practice helps shorten the transition needed for preservice teachers to formally enter teaching by combining pre-service training with new teacher induction and, as a result, it strengthens both teaching practice and the induction into real school and actual classroom teaching. This practicum model shows a university taking initiatives in serving for rural schools. It enhances the school-university partnership and by supporting the reform and experiment in the rural schools, it promotes mutual development. Therefore, it has been recognized by China ministry of education and welcomed by rural primary and secondary schools. Such curriculum and pedagogical reforms have, in recent years, both raised pre-service teachers' academic and practical capabilities and their overall quality.

Conclusions & Recommendations

Undoubtedly, teachers are the most significant determinants of students' achievement and they lie at the heart of high-quality education, so there is a great need to ensure they are equipped with all professionally required competencies if reaching and maximizing teaching effectiveness is expected (Morgan and Hodge, 2014). Consequently, the dire demand for qualified teachers has been continuously on the rise all over the world, and because of this, the pre-service teacher education has naturally acquired renewed significance. Pre-service education is viewed as the most crucial stage at which teacher candidates are expected to be equipped with the required professional knowledge, attitudes, skills, and competencies. Thus, the procedures adopted for their initial recruitment, i.e., before their entrance into the training programs, as well as the preparation policies taken in the practical phase of practicum play a key role in achieving the quality teachers.

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As Rajaeenia (2018) report, one of the major initiatives taken by Iranian MOE to enhance teacher quality was the establishment of Farhanghian University in 2012 with the intention of improving and professionalizing the process of teacher education. Currently, Farhangian university is the main center for attracting high school graduates interested in teaching.

In order to achieve quality teacher, great care and sensitivity should be given to the initial requirements and level of qualifications that the candidates must possess if they are to be accepted in such programsat the very beginning before the candidates enter the teaching profession. This can be achieved by setting higher standards and tougher criteria for selecting qualified candidates at the entry stage, i.e. initial recruitment.

The present study set out to give a comparative description of pre-service teacher preparation in the context of Iran and China in terms of three issues: Teaching education programs in general as well as initial recruitment requirements and teaching internship in particular. In other words, the main objective of this paper was to give a detailed account of the pre-service teacher preparation, qualification requirements and certification as well as the procedure of implementing teaching practicum in each system with the aim of coming up with workable solutions and constructive lessons to be learned from each system. Both similarities and differences were discovered in the recruitment requirements and the preparation process during practicum courses between the two systems examined.

One piece of finding to note is that while China is moving to decentralizing education which has also affected its teacher education programs, Iran is still following the centralized system of education in which all the decisions about entry recruitments of teacher candidates, their preparation programs are assigned by ministry of education in collaboration with ministry of sciences, research, and technology.

Another main difference between the two countries is the wide diversity of universities, colleges, and schools in China that are responsible for producing teachers for different types of schools and different levels of education. In contrast, in Iran there are just two main centers are in charge of this mission: Shahid-Rajaee Univertrsity which trains teachers for vocational schools, and Farhangian university (the focus of this paper) that is responsible for training teachers for elementary and high school levels of education. Anyone graduated from other universities and interested in teaching profession should pass a one-year training in Farhangian university.

In addition, majoring in teacher education is not a requirement for being a teacher in China and all the interested citizens can enter the profession by having certain teaching qualification certificates that can be gotten from various way rather than just studying in a teacher training center. However, in Iran, those interested to work as a teacher at primary schools or high schools have to meet the necessary conditions of entrance into Farhangian university and study for four years, and as stated earlier, graduates of other universities who choose teaching as their career have to receive training in this university for one year.

Although the two studied nations have some differences in the entry requirements for recruitment, several commonalities were found between them too. For instance, it was found that in some cases, including high school graduation, holding a diploma, successfully passing their nation-wide exam, the countries are very similar to one another. Iran, however, seem more sensitive towards teaching profession and interviews at the outset of the program. This way, they can assess ethical, social and physical competence as well as motivation, clean criminal record and general abilities of the candidates. In Iran, besides the aforementioned

factors, age, average and the commitment of the candidates are considered and are of paramount importance in acceptance and non-acceptance of the candidates.

The duration of the programs in China ranges from two to four years in China, while in Iran, the study duration in Farhangian university for the candidates of teaching in elementary and high school levels are four-years. At the end of the program, i.e., after graduation, the chinses graduates must find a school themselves, while in Iran, because of the commitment they have to the government and the contract they have signed before starting their study in Farhangian university, they are sent to the schools which have vacancy for teachers. In fact, as mentioned before, the Iranian teacher candidates who meet the requirements of entry into Farhangian university are formally hired by ministry of education from the very beginning. This job guarantee does not exist in China, though.

As for the teacher preparation in internship courses in the two examined teacher education systems, it seems that they are conducted in the form of classroom observation and teaching real classes. However, the number of practicum courses, their timing, duration, the content, and final evaluation are somehow different in the target countries. It is noteworthy that due to diversity of teacher education models in China and the decentralized governing system, the internship courses are naturally diverse too. Generally, it seems that the recent revision made to practicum programs in Iran which requires offering the reflective-oriented practicum courses in four subsequent phases of reflective observation, micro-teaching, whole-class teaching and lesson study is more effective than the Chinese procedure where no division of phases is done and observation and real classroom happen simultaneously.

In spite of the revisions made in Iran and reform phases China has experienced, teacher education programs in both countries are in special need of improvement in certain aspects. Both countries still face serious challenges that should be given due attention. In the final part of this paper, some recommendations are suggested to promote the internship course and meet the challenges facing this course in the two countries. It is noteworthy that the suggestions are based on the writers' experiences as well as their findings from research papers in the literature, including Rajaeenia et al (2018), Parisjani and khorooshi (2016), Ghanbari et al (2018), and etc:

First of all the curricumlum of the two countries needs revision, partciculari in the area of internship. Revising the course objectives of the internship course and making it real in accordance with the actual conditions of student teachers in real contexts of classes, the facilities of the education organizations and offices of the provinces and regions and the human resources of teacher training centers. In addition, the prerequisite courses of the internship course needs revision too; adding the courses related to the new sciences and technologies needed in the internship course can help a lot. As for Iran, while writing narrative reports have been proved successful in enhancing student teachers' views and attitudes (e.g., Khanjani & et al, 2016), the excessive number of daily reports seem to have caused demotivation and creation of a feeling that they are redundant and not useful. Thus, reducing the expectation of filling in the forms, writing reports, and encoding is another recommendation. Both in Iran and China there is a gap in the content of internship and it is lack of enough chances for student teachers to experience classroom ad school management skills. Thus, modifying the content of the internship course in order for the student teachers to experience this important aspect of their profession through participation in Teachers Council Meetings and Parent-Teacher Council meetings, which have been neglected in the new curriculum of the internship course, can be very effective, Revising the teachers' and

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assistants' evaluation procedures in both countries to fit them with the internship course and the curriculum objectives is another thing to consider. Implementing some policies to make the managers and host teachers more familiar with the aims of internship courses encouraging them to promote student teachers' motivation are very important too. Paying more attention and care in selecting schools with an appropriate physical space for student teachers as well as host teachers in terms of experience and knowledge should be another significant point to consider. .

One of the main challenges teacher education in Iran faces is that because of the job guarantee that the candidates have in this country, teacher education has increasingly attracted many high school and even university graduates with Ph D degrees in majors other than teaching. Although this is a positive development, it might affect the quality of teachers graduated from Farhangian university. Many might enter this job without having any genuine interest in teaching profession. That is, they choose this path just because it ensures their job security in future. lack of positive attitude and motivation for being a teacher would definitely bring about negative consequences. Besides, as stated above, teacher candidates in Iran have always been granted a 30-year tenureship the very first day they step into the programs, regardless of how well they do and what they do during their studies. So doing, this policy might have negatively affected the amount of effort they put in pursuit of their education so long as employment status is not affected by making or not making efforts and as long as they do not feel the necessity to enhance their qualifications and proficiency (Nezakat-Alhossainia & Ketabi, 2012). However, as Rajaeenia et al (2018) state, this challenge will hopefully be resolved by the introduction of the new Teacher Education Curriculum and the new pre-service teacher evaluation policy, though.

The two issues relate to time (period of time or duration of practicum) and timing (the point of time, the time when STs are let visit the field both influence in achieving the TE goals (Ure, 2009). As Manzar Abbas (2013) concludes, time allocated for teaching practicum in China is too short to gain mastery of teaching skills and understanding of real context of the schools. The same problem is with Iran internship. Some researchers have recommended one third of the full time duration for the whole programme (Quick & Sieborger, 2005). As for the timing of the practicum, it is not appropriate in China because the practicum experiences are mostly offered in the last year, but this case is less problematic in iran because the student teachers start going to the field from their fifth semester. However, they still believe the practicum course is short. Darling-Hammond and Ducommon (2011) suggest more than 30 weeks for teaching experience with expert mentors which should be linked to course work. American Association of Colleges for TE (2010) also recommended at least one full semester (450 hours) for practice and suggested full year (30 weeks or 900 hours) teaching practice as a typical practicum experience.

Keeping in view all these, it is strongly recommended that the practicum experiences offered during TE should be extended in time duration and these should be divided into different phases. China might use this division of phases from Iran. It is even suggested by Manzar Abbas (2013) that the observation phase of the practicum should start the first year of TE program since one of the objectives of the practicum is to validate the choice of career. Thus by starting the field experience earlier, they acn confirm their choice of career selection experiencing the real field. Howevr, this might not help in iran since here the entrants to TE program are employed and paid and have commitment to the government to continue with this job. This is a problem that should deal with too. As Rajaeenia et al (2018) suggest,

recruitment in Iran should be implemented after graduation and after student teachers have acquired general and professional competencies. Put it differently, teaching certificate must be granted after finishing the educational courses and teaching practice and after the student teachers have successfully passed teacher competency tests. This is the procedure used by China and Iran can use their experiences in this regard.

To enrich teaching practice in the teacher education curriculum of both China and Iran, the experimental schools and innovative educational activities in which the mentor teachers and the personnel have been specifically trained to assist in the professional development of prospective teachers should be utilized. In addition, a team of experts, experienced teachers, principals and supervisors must be formed and coordinated in order to manage and guide student teachers in the practicum courses. That is, a close mutual collaboration and coordination is required to exist among the parties involved in the process of teacher education and evaluation i.e., schools, universities and teacher education authorities.

To conclude, in both systems of TE in Iran and China, one can find some positive points that they can be illuminating and helpful in the improvement of recruitment and internship preparation programs of each country. However, the two systems can also learn from the negative aspects of each in order to face their current challenges. Hopefully, articles including this one can have practical implications for those who are in charge of decisions made for the quality of TE in general and recruitment and preparation procedures in particular.

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