Trends and Applications of English Language Studies in Iraqi Context
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article Titles &amp; authors</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team of this issue</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Message of the Editors</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Study of Irony in Political Discourse</td>
<td>2-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shatha Naiyf Qaiwer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters in Vocabulary Learning</td>
<td>18-31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanan Dhia Alsalihi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatic Deficits in Iraqi Patients with Schizophrenia: A Descriptive Study</td>
<td>32-61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jinan Jassim Abbass &amp; Sabah S. Mustafa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examining the Effect of Listening Strategy Instruction on EFL Iraqi learners’ Listening</td>
<td>62-75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shiva Kaivanpanah, Sayyed Mohammad Alavi &amp; Hussein AL-Shammari</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Impact of Social Media Application in Promoting Speaking Skill of Iraqi University</td>
<td>76-89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learners of English: A Skype-based Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ali Hasan Dirjal &amp; Zargham Ghabanchi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politeness Strategies and Maxims in English for Islamic texts: A Sociolinguistic Analysis</td>
<td>90-110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Quran</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamid Gittan Jewad, Zargham Ghabanchi &amp; Mohammad Ghazanfari</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies by EFL and EAP Undergraduate University</td>
<td>111-120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners’ in the Iraqi Context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohanad Al-Omairi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective Reading Strategies for Generation Z Using Authentic Texts</td>
<td>121-130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nataliia Bilonozhko &amp; Anastasiia Syzenko</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Foreword

Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) is pleased to release the special issue on the overarching theme “Trends and Applications of English Language Studies in Iraqi Context.” This issue is basically intended, though not fully concerned, to strengthen and support research in the field of English teaching and learning in the Iraqi context.

It is quite evident that educators have recently been working on teaching and learning English as a foreign language for quite a long time. Emphasis in the 21st century is shifted towards language systems and curricula that incorporate technology and at the same time work towards that type of education where classroom practices, on the one hand, and language proficiency, on the other hand, are dealt with to reach the necessity of mastering English as an international.

It is our pleasure to inform you that we have received interesting and high-quality research articles related to English language teaching and learning in relation to language skills, digital learners, vocabulary learning strategies, social media, testing, language production and comprehension, and cognition and assessment, for this special issue. Yet, some of the research articles go with language studies such as pragmatics strategies, irony, and politeness, in relation to written and spoken discourse. I am fully sure that these articles will provide some values to knowledge based on the research findings related to the different areas of English language studies.

Finally, I would like to extend my appreciation and gratitude to AWEJ for publishing this issue and to the authors of the published research articles for their great efforts and contributions that are intended to leave some great fingerprints in the field of English language teaching and learning, in particular, and language studies, in general.

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A Study of Irony in Political Discourse

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Abstract
This study examines the ideological and evaluative nature of irony in discourse. It aims to reveal the linguistic constructions involved in ironic utterances and to uncover ideologies underpinning such structures. It draws upon the echo and pretense theories to account for utterance representation along with Wodak’s (2007) framework of self and other presentation strategies. The study examines the incongruous construction of an attitude, and the objectives attempted to achieve by taking a cynical stance. The main research questions center on the role played by ironic utterances and how they contribute to preserving the image of the speaker and to the negative representation of the other. The study reveals the way politicians mark their verbal irony, i.e., to classify and categorize the co-textual markers including hyperboles, and repetitive follow-up commentaries. The findings in this study support Bertuccelli (2018) view that irony is not merely saying the opposite of what one means but instead communicating an attitude. It adds to the existing literature that irony involves not a reversal of evaluation, but a reversal of attitudes about social actors to draw a positive self-image. Furthermore, the study shows that echoing the opponent's utterance involves a representation of acts and speech acts along with free direct and indirect speech.

Keywords: discourse, echo, irony, negative other representation, pretense, positive self-presentation

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1. Introduction
The study argues that the meaning of irony is not always saying something while implying the opposite. It presents instances where the ironic utterance refers to the truth of some previously stated situation, statement, or thought lies in the opposite proposition. The study shows that ironic statements in political discourse help (de) emphasize negative/positive traits attributed to Them/US leading to positive self-presentation and negative other-representation. The fundamental aim is to illustrate the complementary role of both pretense and echo in constructing ironic utterances to emphasize attitudes and to legitimatize the ironic labeling of social actors. Wilson (2013, p. 4) claims that although echoes and pretense seem ‘indistinguishable,’ it is the echoing not the pretense that “explains the distinctive features of irony.” So the researcher argues that communicating an evaluative attitude implied in an ironic utterance is the product of the intersection of both echoing and pretense.

The data used are personal anecdotes as they are means through which speakers provide the audience with information about themselves and their own life (Kalbermatten, 2010, p. 74). Personal anecdotes are “true reports of funny events experienced by the teller” (Norrick, 2003, p. 1339); therefore, they involve speakers’ evaluation in the form of reported speech, hyperboles, understatement, paradox and sometimes ambiguity and an absurd conclusion. Previous studies show that speakers present their propositions with an opposite evaluation of the utterance they produce, while this study examines ironic statements where the evaluation reversal is at the level of the speech produced earlier by the object of irony. For example, in Romney is a very talented person, the intended meaning is the opposite of talented as attributed ironically to Romney based on his previous acts or sayings as in example 2A and 2B. Thus, the attitude is communicated via echoing a thought. In this case, Obama disassociates himself from Romney’s utterance by pretending that he believes him, thereby inviting the audience to notice the inconsistency between his statements as he keeps changing his positions based on his self-interest.

2. Literature Review
Studies investigating irony state it is the opposite of what is said (e.g. Attardo, 2000), and some moved from the notion of oppositeness to suggest it involves contradiction (Alba-Juez & Attardo, 2014; Gornostayeva, 2016) through which speakers communicate a negative evaluation while attacking others. Therefore, we assume the existence of an evaluative gap filled by appealing to the linguistic and social context of the utterance. Studying irony in political campaigning discourse, the researcher suggests that the present definition best illustrates the concept in question within the political context. Irony is an evaluative message communicating an attitude about the opinion and the action of an opponent- the addressee of ridicule- but mainly addressed to a third party independent of the victim being present or absent. Thus, the current study accounts for the various ways relations of power, exclusion and inclusion are manifested via ironic statements.

Gornostayeva (2016) and Nuolijärvi and Tiittula (2010) have shown that irony in political debates serves in aggression and defense represented through several mechanisms, among which is a paradox and reversing the communicative expectation, providing absurd conclusion, and ambiguity. Both studies have illustrated that hyperboles, litotes and understatements as forms of irony while the present study adds to the list repetition and paraphrasing reported utterances for highlighting the speaker’s attitude and his attempt to gain power and legitimating policies. Employing repetition and echoing enhance the strength of the argument and highlight the US /THEM boundaries strategies. In
support of this, Nuolijärvi and Tiittula (2010) state that ambiguity can be exploited for self-display and support the positive self-image. Their findings reflect the speakers’ struggle for dominance by presenting their antagonist self, enhancing one’s position about the opponent, and illustrating that ironic utterances used in conversations involve evaluating a prior turn. Similarly, the present study shows that echoing and pretending function as an evaluative commentary on the opponent’s reported utterances produced previously before the time of the given speech.

Gornostayeva (2016) illustrates that speakers may communicate attitudes with an implicit evaluation of the self or the other. Gornostayeva (2016) suggests the existence of a distinct connection between what is said and what is implied stated in a way that none can replace the other. This finding justifies viewing irony as speech genre presupposing a meaning different from the literal one based on the communicative intention. The reverse is merely part of the contradictory proposition enriched with a complex set of attitudes contributing to inferencing the appropriate meaning. Bertuccelli (2018) explains this point as follows:

if we say p (You are a big help) and communicate –p (You are not a big help), and if p may be explicated like att(p), where att is the set of (positive) mental states and feelings which cluster to conventionally produce the illocutionary force “praise” then by communicating –p we detach the positive attitude from the content, and we transitively turn the illocution into its negative counterpart (“blame.”) (p. 68)

Irony is the outcome of a set of attitudes communicated with paradox or contrast and exhibiting varying degrees of speakers’ involvement understood from “the contextual combination of propositional and non-propositional attitudes with variable components of the communicative act” (Bertuccelli 2018, p. 60).

Following Yus (2016, p. 94), the present study does not merely identify ironic utterances in the selected texts; it attempts to illustrate self-representation in relation to a significant other achieved by communicating attitudes evaluating the acts and the utterances of the opponent, i.e. the identification of the speaker’s feelings and emotions (affective attitude.)

The key research questions addressed in this study are: 1) what role can ironic utterances play in political discourse with a particular emphasis on Obama’s speeches? How can they contribute to preserving self-image and to representing the other? 2) As irony is a form of stance-taking, what are the linguistic resources drawn upon in constructing ironic utterances? Answering these questions, the present study contributes to the available literature through providing an account in which both pretense and echo collaborate to better explain the manifestation of power relations, exclusion or inclusion in discourse and self-selling with regard to the significant other at the discourse level of positive and negative presentation.

3. Theoretical Framework
The framework adopted to achieve the aim of this study triangulates two theories of irony: pretense theory and echo theory along with Wodak’s (2007) model of self and other presentations. Combining these theories resulted from identifying an intricate relation between the echoing and pretense implied within a single utterance which emphasizes the need for a framework involving the two concepts. Pretense means attitude communication as speakers, according to this theory, pretend onstage thoughts regarding the specific acts of the object of irony (Clark & Gerrig, 1984) to attract attention
A Study of Irony in Political Discourse

Qaiwer

not to the act itself but to the speaker’s attitude regarding it (Bertuccelli, 2018, p. 66). According to echo theory, the speaker of an ironical utterance does not necessarily say the opposite of what he/she means, but echoes a thought, i.e. “meaning something different from what he says” (Haverkate 1990, p. 89). More specifically, echoing involves communicating a reaction towards a thought. The thought and the proposition of the ironic utterance need not be identical (Wilson, 2013, p.11).

Pretense theory is suitable for the aim of the present study as attitudes play a significant role in this model (Bertuccelli, 2018). Speakers convey their views through pretending that the interlocutor’s utterance is true as in examples 2A and 2B. Obama, in these examples, pretends to perform an act of assertion, and invites the audience to examine the pretense and detect the implied viewpoint. Wilson (2013) describes the necessity of adopting pretense and echo theories stating:

Several pretense theorists share the intuition that irony is tacitly attributive, but also maintain that irony involves the simulation or imitation of a (real or imagined) speech act, and is therefore a case of pretense. Hybrid echoic-pretense accounts differ from simpler versions of the pretence account by claiming that irony is necessarily attributive, and from the echoic account by claiming that irony also necessarily involves pretense (p. 15).

To account for the way irony functions at the discourse level of self and other presentations, the researcher uses Wodak’s (2007) framework as it involves echoing utterances and labeling social actors. Wodak’s (2007) model proves useful for this study in presenting or labeling the object of the irony and the utterances and actions attributed to him or her. Additionally, one of the discursive strategies in this model is justifying the labeling of social actors which is useful for the goal of the present study.

Wodak (2008) sets the following questions as relevant to theoretical and methodological approaches to inclusion/exclusion. These questions are:

1. How are persons named and referred to linguistically?
2. What are the traits, characteristics, qualities, and features attributed to them?
3. By what argumentation schemes do speakers or social groups try to justify the inclusion/exclusion of others?
4. From what perspective or point of view are these labels, attribution, and arguments expressed?
5. Are the respective utterances articulated overtly? Are they intensified, or are they mitigated? (p. 302).

Strategies for the discursive construction of positive self-presentation and the negative presentation of others (Wodak, 2011, p. 40) provide answers to the above-mentioned questions. Utilizing these questions as a toolkit in analyzing a text, a researcher can approach the representations of social actors and individuals (Qaiwer, 2016), by identifying the speaker’s stance and his evaluative attitude. As systematic ways of using languages, strategies of self and other presentations are means towards achieving a social and political goal (Qaiwer, 2016). See Table.1 from Wodak (2008):

Table1. Discursive strategies of positive self-presentation and negative other presentation (Wodak, 2007, p. 663)
Examining utterances at the local level, the researcher then moves towards studying the surrounding context to identify the role of irony in serving speakers’ aim of exclusion/or inclusion of social actors.

4. **Methodology and Data Collection**

The data collected for this study are narrative extracts of political speeches delivered during the American election campaign in 2012. Identifying narrative extracts, the researcher examined the representation of the political self and the opponent as a significant other. That is to say, in election texts, Obama presents himself as the best candidate in comparison to his rivals. The study aims to show how Obama sells himself as the best candidate by studying his ironic utterances exhibiting his criticism of his opponent.

Following Partington (2013), the researcher used Wordsmith to generate concordances of the word *laughter* as it is usually placed between brackets in political speeches to mark the audience reactions to the utterance. Laughter is a typical response to irony (Clift, 1999; Kotthoff, 2003; Eisterhold et al., 2006); it usually follows ironic comments in television debates, conversations, and political speeches. Moreover, this procedure can reduce the researcher's subjective judgment as episodes are sometimes coded as ironic simply because the author thinks so (Partington, 2006: 203). Wordsmith yielded a small number of concordance lines, the original texts of which are all included in this study. Wordsmith is used only to help identify laughter files to achieve some degree of objectivity by localizing ironic utterances. Then the concordance lines are read to check if the preceding utterance is ironic or not via identifying irony factors and irony markers (Attardo, 2000). To achieve a higher account of objectivity, the researcher followed the verbal identification procedure (VIP) proposed by Burgers, *et al.* (2011). After identifying ironic utterances, the researcher conducts a qualitative analysis to account for linguistic resources drawn upon to construct the unexpected meaning. Ironic statements involve implicit evaluative stance about social actors since speakers narrate stories with evaluative remarks through which people present their ‘selves’ (Ochs and Capps 1996, p. 21-22).
The present study sheds light on the usage of verbal irony in election campaign speeches due to their binary nature, i.e., politicians attempt to praise themselves and undermine their opponents to persuade the electorate to vote in their favor.

5. Analysis

Following the VIP procedure, the researcher identified ironic utterances for further scrutiny. The study shows the representation of ironic statements and the way they contribute to drawing Obama’s positive image.

Example 1:

1. Now, some of you may have heard, last night we had our first debate. (Applause.) And I just flew in from Denver, and I was telling folks there, when I got on the stage, I met this very spirited fellow who claimed to be Mitt Romney. (Laughter.) But I know it couldn’t have been Mitt Romney -- because the real Mitt Romney has been running around the country for the last year promising $5 trillion in tax cuts that favor the wealthy. And yet, the fellow on the stage last night -- who looked like Mitt Romney -- (laughter) -- said he did not know anything about that. It was all news to him.

[Madison, Oct 4th, 2012]

*Very spirited fellow* is ironic labeling referring to Romney who, as the context of the speech suggests, has restated his presidential plans due to the strong wave of criticism he faced. The word *very* is a hyperbolic expression describing the speaker’s claim so that the audience will not take it at face value. It signals the recipient to elicit an interpretation other than the one conveyed by the following adjective *talented*. Carston and Wearing (2015, p. 84) state that hyperbole conveys and elicits mockery towards the thought implied in the proposition. They (2015, p. 88) further state “The excessiveness of the meta-represented propositional content plays a very helpful role in cueing the dissociative attitude of the speaker.”

In this utterance, the reversal of evaluation does not entirely fit because an ironic representation of a speech act verb *claimed* follows it. Obama mitigates the illocutionary force of this verb ironically to intensify his evaluative proposition implied in *spirited*. He reverses his communicated attitude in this context. This reversal is justified argumentatively by the legitimating clause starting with ‘because the real Mitt Romney... ’ Reporting Romney’s previous acts highlights the proposition involved in the ironic statements where Obama pretends that the content of the utterance is exact. Here, Romney’s change of attitude in the reported utterances is evaluated as his voice is foregrounded within an ironic statement *said he did not know anything about that. It was all news to him*. In this statement, the evaluation reversal theory may work as the implication is that Romney knows *about that*. Yet, Obama intends the proposition to ironically re-evaluate the *very spirited fellow* as a man who changes his position according to his interests to negatively represent Romney. Qaiwer (2016) states

“*claimed* implies multiple utterances in which Romney has contradicted himself. Thus, *who claimed to be Mitt Romney* does not mean that Romney claimed who he is in the debate as his identity is already known. The illocutionary force of *claimed* indicates a transparent interpretation that ‘what is assumingly said’ is not identical to Romney’s previously reported policies. Here,… his choice of the verb *claimed* is meant to affect the way the narrative is received and interpreted by listeners.” (p.196)
In this example, Obama employs a set of discursive strategies of positive self-presentation and negative other –representations to enhance his altruistic political self. Firstly, there is a prediction expressed to label Romney as a social actor implying the evaluative attribution of negative traits. Obama further justifies his attribution via reporting Romney’s contradicted utterances about changing political plans and distances himself away from Romney’s to highlight his positive political image.

2. A. But the fellow on stage last night, he said he loves teachers -- can’t get enough of them. (Laughter.) B. The Mitt Romney we all know invested in companies that were called "pioneers" of outsourcing jobs to other countries. But the guy on stage last night, he said he’d never heard of tax breaks for companies that shift jobs overseas. Never heard of them. (Laughter.) C. And he said, if that’s true, he must need a new accountant. So now we know for sure that wasn’t the real Mitt Romney, because the real Mitt Romney is doing just fine with the accountant that he already has. (Laughter.)

A. he said he loves teachers -- can’t get enough of them. The discrepancy is between the literal meaning of the word love and the knowledge shared by participants in the debate and people familiar with his planned policies. Romney’s remark of changing his economic plans about education triggers the irony in this context. Romney previously promised to cut jobs for firefighters, police, and teachers if elected. The ironic utterance cannot get enough of them is an internal evaluative comment reflecting on the semantic proposition of love as the main verb reported in free indirect speech. Here, Obama’s comments on Romney’s claim functions as an assertion of the contradictory proposition and communicates a negative meaning. According to Recanati (2007, pp. 223-227), both irony and free indirect speech are tacitly attributive varieties of mimicry or pretense i.e. “the act of assertion is precisely what the speaker does not perform when she says that p ironically: rather, she plays someone else’s part and mimics an act of assertion accomplished by that person.”

Based on this and other examples, it seems that echoic irony has two forms: repeating the same words, or producing an evaluative comment on the content of the report. These two forms function as an elaboration, or paraphrases of the original message; therefore, “gives way … to the wider and more flexible concept of interpretive resemblance; the echo in an ironic statement now may only resemble an original statement” (Partington 2006, p. 185). The resemblance in this example indicates an implicit negation of the real proposition, i.e., comprehending an ironic utterance involves retention of the literal meaning and text receivers may compare and contrast between two narratives or state of affairs referred to literally. Therefore, in this example, the dictum is: Romney loves teachers while the implicitum is: Romney is a liar. Thus, the semantic proposition of love is already reversed. Obama uses the phrase cannot get enough of them to highlight the shift in position about the economy plans. The humorous effect of Obama’s comment lies in the attitude expressed via echoing an utterance, identifying its source, and highlighting the rejection or disassociation from the stance echoed by the speaker’s comment as supported by (Sperber and Wilson, 1995).

B. Never heard of them is an echoic mention of the reported content in the preceding sentence starting with he said. Here, Obama disassociates himself from the content echoed with ridicule as it contradicts the available knowledge about Romney who is known to have run the Bain. Bain is a company that shifts jobs outside the US (Kessler, 2012). Here, the reported utterance may not be the exact words uttered originally. The echoic mention here functions as an evaluative comment on the truth of the reported content in which Obama distances himself from both believing the utterance and from the action. Repeating the statement here highlights Romney’s actions. By such a reporting,
Obama represents the discourse highlighting his own position about the prediction, and at the same time, the report functions as a justification for the label stated earlier, *the guy on the stage*. The word *guy* usually used to refer to a person whose identity is not known. Yet, it is used in this context to intensify the degree of doubt on Romney’s truthfulness and shift in ideological (attitudinal) positioning (Partington 2006, p. 185). Here is a skillful example where Obama expresses the moral evaluation of his opponent as unreliable personas. The contradiction is between an expected state of affairs and the one reported in the context of the debate, i.e between what is said and what is already known about the object of irony (Attardo, 2000).

It is worth mentioning that the negative markers in this example and the preceding one, *never* and *can’t* are hyperbolic expressions maximizing the level of evaluation reversal. Therefore, the meaning of 2 A and 2 B is the opposite of what Romney has said rather than the opposite of what Obama himself says. This extract illustrates the function of irony in representing the other negatively. It communicates a subjective evaluation of the situation, highlights the incongruity of two narratives and invites the addressees to recognize the attitude behind it. In these examples, Obama is expressing a contemptuous attitude towards his expectations about Romney’s reported utterance regarding creating jobs overseas and education policies. Here, the ironic statement reminds the hearer of Romney’s speech echoed by Obama.

The referential strategy involved in nominalizing Romney in phrases such as *the fellow/ guy on the stage* is an echoic utterance implying a negative commentary in which Obama dissociates himself from the thought echoed. Some scholars, such as Clark and Gerrig (1984, p. 121), Kumon-Nakamura *et al.* (1995), and Recanati (2004, p.77-78), describe them as implicit distancing comment on staged utterance addressed to one’s audience. These phrases, along with others that follow a reported statement, more specifically, *it was all news to him* and *can’t get enough of them* intensify the humorous effect. Fetzer and Weizman (2015) refer to such phrases as follow-ups since they are communicative reactions to the preceding reported statement which becomes, in this context, the object of continuous reinterpretation.

C. *And he said, if that’s true, he must need a new accountant. So now we know for sure that wasn’t the real Mitt Romney, because the real Mitt Romney is doing just fine with the accountant that he already has. (Laughter.)*

‘So now we know …’ appears after an argument that justifies the proposition of the negative phrase *that was not the real Mitt Romney* since there is an implied contradiction between two states of affairs highlighting the ‘inappropriateness.’ This statement performs the functions of the coda that concludes the argument presented about Romney’s change of reports. Here, the irony appears at the presupposition level as the proposition remains unchanged under the contradicting statements *He must need a new accountant, and Romney is doing fine with the accountant.* The negative assertion in *that was not the real Mitt Romney* provokes laughter since Romney’s real identity is intensified by *real* and by the constancy of the presupposition under negation. Presumably, *real* implies the existence of some fictitious character with the same name. In this context, Obama communicates a thought about Romney as the audience shares knowledge about the referent *guy* mentioned earlier in the text. Obama echoes an idea of the norms and shared views about how things should be. Therefore, in this and the above examples, the normative bias of the irony is that Romney should be trustworthy and honest, and Obama is ironically reporting a norm-based expectation. This statement appears in a context justifying the use of the word *guy* in the preceding utterance and, at the same time, attributing
the cause of labeling Romney as an evaluative thought about his reported speech in *And he said, if that’s true, he must need a new accountant*. The evaluation reversal in this utterance is about the ironical attitude about Romney.

Based on the examples analyzed so far, echoes are not always ironic in their interpretation. They may introduce paradoxical statements as a premise representing what can be called echoic irony i.e., speakers repeat the same words followed by a comment on them.

3. We’ve also got to ask the wealthiest Americans to go back to the tax rates they paid when Bill Clinton was in office. And by the way, we can afford it. I haven’t talked to Bruce, but I know he can afford it. I can afford it. Mr. Romney can afford it (laughter).

[Madison, Wis., Nov. 5, 2012]

This example supports the researcher’s hypothesis that politicians use irony to communicate group solidarity and affiliation serving two purposes: inclusive and exclusive one. Bruce Springsteen is a music icon who opened the rally for the president’s speech in Wisconsin the day before the presidential election. In this speech, Obama is trying to legitimize his Buffet rule bill requiring higher tax payment depending on incomes. The goal of the irony is criticizing Romney for cutting tax for the wealthy including himself, as he paid $ 1.9 million in taxes on $13.7 million of income in 2011 for a 14.1 percent rate. Obama distances himself from such acts by adopting the Buffet Rule while depicting Romney as failing to be fair since the middle-class families will have their taxes go up (Rucker, et.al 2012).

On the one hand, the ironic utterance *Romney can afford it* in the underlined phrase builds in-group affiliation by referring to the connection between Bruce, the president I and the opponent Romney. On the other hand, it expresses negative judgment of Romney’s economy plans and at the same time excluding Romney through indicating a shared evaluation of Romney by Obama and the people represented by Bruce. The evaluative expression of this attitude is the “point of using irony” (Attardo 2000, p. 13). This instance involves an ironic inclusion of the opponent to emphasize the negative image drawn throughout the argument presented in the same text. In *Mr. Romney can afford it*, the reversal of evaluation theory does not entirely fit. Instead, it is a reversal of the stance expressed as the audience share knowledge that Romney opposes the bill in question. In *I can afford it. Mr. Romney can afford it*, Obama implies that Romney argues in favor of himself and the wealthy - which is an implicit evaluative comment since Obama as a storyteller “may assume that actions speak for themselves” (Riggen 1997, p. 16). Representing the opponent ironically in this and similar contexts is a narrative shift which takes the audience back to the interactional and/or the story world providing a useful strategy of gaining the upper hand in a discussion.

4. Maybe they’ll say we need a moat. Or alligators in the moat. They’ll never be satisfied. And I understand that. That’s politics.

[Comprehensive immigration in Texas Oct. 5th, 2011]

*They* refers to the Republicans and critics of Obama’s immigration policy. Here, Obama assigns the responsibility for delaying immigration reform to the Republicans as they are the ones blocking the new bill. The dictum is: *We provided more border agents and security equipment along the Mexican border* and the implicitum is: *Republicans remain unsatisfied* (the communicated attitude). Again, a speech report is involved in the form of a hypothetical free indirect speech. The first two examples analyzed involved free indirect speech used in historical present tense. According to Recanati (2007, p. 223-227), both irony and free indirect speech are tacitly attributive varieties of pretense. Here,
Obama echoes a predicated thought while committing himself to it through assertion. With such a prediction again, Obama disassociates himself from the blocking of the immigration reform bill and blaming the other by a hypothetical report of speech. Here, Obama combines a predicated speech act and an echoic account to intensify his attitude towards the predicted thought or precisely towards the kind of people who would perform such an action.

5. Gov. Romney is a very talented salesman and so in the campaign he’s tried as hard as he can to repackage the old ideas that did not work as new ideas. In fact, he’s offered them up as change—saying he’s the candidate of change. [Madison, Wis., Nov. 5, 2012.]

The evaluation in the underlined phrase is a form of intensifying the force of the utterance as exemplified by very, which highlights the contrast in the semantic implication of the adjective talented. In other words, Obama marshals the following information where he justifies the ironic attribution very talented, signifying the difference between the arguments in he’s tried as hard as he can to repackage the old ideas that did not work as new ideas and the evaluation very talented.

Two readings or interpretations are involved in this example:

1. A talented salesman sells new good stuff/ a skilled campaigner sells new good policies
2. Romney sells old and bad ideas the old ideas that did not work (dictum).

Romney is not a very talented salesman (implictum).

Obviously, the readings listed above are in contrast. The humor is triggered by the incompatibility between talented and the shared knowledge about what a political campaigner should offer. Kalbermatten (2010, p. 70) indicates the humorous effect of the irony results from the discrepancy of the two readings or interpretations implied in the text. Therefore, a text is ironic if it matches two scripts opposing each other. More specifically, the irony lies in the opposition implied between the literal and the intended sense of the utterance. Here, the concept of incompatibility is at work since the opposite meaning is justified in the follow-up argumentative commentary repackage the old ideas that did not work as new ideas. The positive propositional meaning talented is incongruently highlighting the reversal of Obama’s evaluative attitude. This expression enhances the possibility of the audience’s perception of Obama’s contradictory proposition since the acts described contradicts with the meaning of a talented salesman. This incompatibility reflects an evaluative gap between the intended and the literal meaning of an utterance and is called inappropriateness (Attardo, 2000); and contrast (Kotthoff, 2003). In this context, the researcher follows Yus (2016) in using the term ‘incompatibility’ due to the incompatible connection between the referential prediction and the argument in the follow-up commentary.

6. Refusing to answer questions about your policies until after the election that’s definitely not change (laughter) that’s the oldest game in the book. [Madison Nov. 5th 2012]

In this example, no reference is made to the object of criticism, so the conclusion is ambiguous without contextual information. Criticizing an opponent becomes more effective if ironic ambiguity is involved which can be understood by those familiar with extralinguistic situations (Gornostayeva, 2016, p.185). Obama refers in this example to an occasion when Romney refused to answer a reporters’ question about how he would handle the Federal Emergency Agency, and he kept ignoring the question (Terkel, 2012). Also, Romney refused to answer questions about his support of Richard Mourdock, an Indiana Senate candidate, and he refused to participate in a Nickeldeno special to
avoid answering questions in that show. He skipped the chance to take part in a ‘kids pick the president’ that included his opponent, while Obama participated. It seems that Obama indicates in a context such as this that Romney is afraid of taking questions from children.

The non-finite verb phrase involves a representation of a speech act i.e. ignoring the question and suppresses the identity of the agent responsible for the implied action of refusing. Obama refrains from naming his rival; instead, he nominalizes Romney’s actions as a strategy of negative-other presentation. Obama does not refer to Romney as it is clear that any campaign is about attacks and defense, and there are only the two of them. The use of nominalization in such a context highlights the negatively evaluated policies that Romney is selling as a candidate of change.

The tacit criticism is indirect, that is, it only informs that a state of affairs exists (Partington 2006, p. 200), and the example reflects “the rhetorical effect of using a form with no personal subject as an actor” (Partington 2006, p. 200). Here, Obama creates a critical gap between two descriptions to formulate a critical argument: refusing to answer questions in a context of marketizing policies and between the narratives of what change in politics means. The audience can infer the contradictory proposition since they share knowledge and background assumptions about Romney. The rhetorical effect lies in the fact that it is not the object of irony that the speaker cares about; it is the attitude communicated that goes beyond the words and their negative integration that attracts the audience to compare between the literal meaning and its inconsistency with the context of the election. The evaluative stance involves a contradiction between an expected state of affairs and the one stated; i.e., inappropriateness in Attardo’s (2000) terms.

7. (a) There is a bad story about me in the New York Times (laughter). (b) I was much more sensitive at that time to bad stories (laughter). I am more accustomed to bad stories.

[Final campaign rally, De Moines Nov 6th 2012]
This instance involves a marker of identity construction as Obama both presents himself positively as a man of experience in this context. Speaking of an unpleasant experience in such a setting enables speakers to “show themselves in control of their emotions” (Dews et al. 1995, p. 347), and hence superiority (Attardo, 2000). The historical present in the existential sentence (a) reflects the time of an unplanned event happening in the midst of habitual activities. The tense shifts into the past and then to present to communicate an internal self-evaluation and to describe different states of being at different times signifying the experience of the political self. Grice (1989, p.53) claims that irony is expressing evaluation, feeling, and attitude while Attardo (2000) supports Sperber and Wilson’s (1986, p. 239) claim that such an evaluation is mainly negative. This example reports positive self-evaluation with a particular reference to a given situation reflecting the ironic stance at the interactional world. The utterance might mean both ‘I was a sensitive sort, but I managed to cope on that day’ and the implicitum ‘I could not care less about criticism.’ Obama’s rhetorical skill appears in showing two states of affairs: one temporary at the story world and the present state where he is an elected president and running for a president for the second time. Therefore, the implicitum can be rephrased to suit the current state in ‘whatever you write, I do not care.’

8. He thought that, in America, the wealthiest should pay their fair share, and he said so. I know that position might disqualify him from the Republican primaries these days -- (laughter) -- but what Ronald Reagan was calling for then is the same thing that we’re calling for now.
Here, there is a narrative representation of Romney’s thought with ironic intention. The predicate is a relative clause with modal expression in italic. Note the combination of thought representation with a speech representation said as a comment emphasizing the epistemic subjectivity. The irony is evident in reporting the thought pay fair share, and Romney’s contradicting policies. Fair is incompatible with ‘real’ Romney’s thought and with Obama’s plan. The modal marker I know is co-selected with predicting a future state of affairs and implies the certainty of one’s governmental competence. The irony lies in the fact that a campaigner needs to marketize his political policies on reasonable grounds. Here, Obama implies that Romney is doing the opposite. Two narratives are involved in this utterance:

The dictum: Romney is a Republican candidate, and his policy is against their ideology

The implicitum: Romney is not calling for the same rule, so he is disqualified.

So the utterance reported is incompatible with the presupposition of the election context; hence, casting doubts on Romney’s worthiness of policies implied by disqualify. Disqualify indicates that Romney does not know what everybody should know and mitigates this representation along with his ironic stance via these days. The reference to Ronald Reagan, as an expertise and role model, is a legitimating strategy to further elaborate on Romney’s negative representation.

6. Discussion

The study has made several far-ranging methodological and theoretical points. At the methodological level, the researcher attempted to achieve a high level of objectivity in data selection and following the generation of laughter files with a theoretical approach of irony identification. At the theoretical level, the study better approaches a careful analysis by triangulating three theoretical models to account for the construction of irony to communicate the speaker’s attitude. It attempts to reveal the complementary role of pretense and echoes in ironic utterance and shows how speakers employ them to emphasize the positive and negative attributes of the Us/Them. It shows that echoes involve pretence, but not necessarily vice versa. Echoes cannot only be ironic themselves but also they can introduce ironic utterances as follow-up comments. As a form of discourse representation, an echo, according to the data analyzed here, can take the form of mere repetition of the content as in 2B, paraphrase as in 2A and as a simple reported speech or a representation of speech act as in 2C. The study shows that echoes and pretense as perspectivation strategies are not the only linguistic resources employed in ironic communication; naming and labeling social actors suggested by Wodak (2007) can be used for a similar effect. This finding indicates the suitability of Wodak’s framework to encompass the other two models for the present study and suggests its restatement to fit ironic communication. Hopefully, this discussion justifies triangulating these models.

Space does not permit a detailed discussion of what the data analyzed can tell us about campaigning discourse, but the findings can provide some powerful indication of their interpretive potential. The present study has advanced the claim hypothesized earlier about the necessary combinability of echoes and pretense in communicating an attitude with a reversed evaluation. Thus, the study shies away from supporting the earlier studies claiming that irony is the opposite of the literal meaning of words.
Furthermore, the present study has necessarily had a focus on the role of irony in constructing in-group and out-groups. Through this practice, an evaluative gap exists between the evaluation implied in the other’s utterances or acts, and the evaluation implied by the speaker’s ironic follow-up comment; hence, inviting the audience (third party) to fill it by appealing to the linguistic and social context of the utterance. The gap can be a paradox as in example 8 and 5, reversing the communicative expectation as in 7, providing absurd conclusion and ambiguity as in 6. The analysis of these examples yielded an agreement with those of Gornostayeva (2016) and Nuolijärvi and Tiittula (2010) and adds that instead of communicating one’s thought with a face-threatening act, speakers appeal to creating an evaluative gap to mitigate the aggression and produce a powerful self-defense and self-image. In line with Bertuccelli (2018), the findings also suggest that speakers express involvement or detachment via reporting discourse or representing actions and by prediction or labeling which result from mental states, feelings, and social representation. So by stating X is positive, we detach the positive attribute and communicate its negative illocution. The discussion presented so far provides an adequate and comprehensive answer to the first question addressed in this study based on what it agrees about and what it adds to the existing literature. Answering the second research question, the researcher presents an argument of a set of linguistic features drawn upon while constructing an ironic message. It includes rhetorical strategies of hyperbole, and understatements, repetition and paraphrase, discourse representation of acts, speech acts and speech, affirmative and negative statements. It is worth mentioning that these features interact to achieve stronger impact; for example, the analysis revealed instances where negation markers, involving hyperboles and affirmative statements, reflect acts represented earlier in a given speech. Affirmative assertion, similar to the negative assertion, as shown in this study, is in an ironic context with a communicative goal “of correcting the hearer’s misguided beliefs” (Givon 2001, p. 372).

The present study illustrates the prominent role of irony in discourse. It proves that ironic phrases can be much better at revealing the discursive practices of inclusion/exclusion and self and other presentations. The analysis has been crucial in highlighting possible associations between discursive strategies, linguistic resources, and attitudinal stance. Thus, the study is an invaluable aid to uncover relations of power and domination through elucidating the phenomenon of irony.

7. Conclusion
This article discusses the significance of ironic utterance from the perspective of critical discourse analysis. It builds on the assumption that ironic meaning is treated as a contextually adjustable meaning filling a gap between an echoed utterance and an observed contradiction between the report and the expected norm.

The study aims to examine the role of irony in Obama’s speeches and draw a conclusion about whether it helps them to create a positive image and achieve their goals. The study shows that echoing and pretense may combine in a context where the speaker reports an utterance and repeats it to highlight the contradiction between the report and actions taken, based on background knowledge shared with the audience, or paraphrases the utterance for achieving the same goal. With repetition and paraphrase as markers of irony, the ironist attempts to communicate his evaluative attitude while justifying the stance he takes and implicitly invites the audience to adopt.

To conclude, the sequential analysis brings out the nature of irony as an evaluative attitude expression for politicians. Irony is an essential rhetorical means for self-presentation as the present
study shows that verbal irony is a form of speech presentation with an evaluative attitude implicating an opposing stance.

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References


A Study of Irony in Political Discourse

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Posters in Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract:
An essential element in English as a foreign language (EFL) learning is vocabulary. There is a big emphasis on learning the new words' meaning from the books or inside classrooms. Also, it is a major part of language teaching as well as being fundamental to the learner but there is a big challenge in vocabulary instruction due to the weak confidence by teachers in selecting the suitable practice in teaching vocabulary or they sometimes unable to specify a suitable time for it during the teaching process. The major aim of this study is to investigate the value of posters in vocabulary learning on the 2nd grade students at Halemat Alsaadia High School in Baghdad – Iraq. It hypothesized that there are no statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups' scores in the post-test. Participants were randomly assigned to two groups out of four groups. Group A which represents the control group are taught without using posters, and group B which represents the experimental group is taught by using posters. The whole number of participated students is 62 students. The control group is (32) , and the experimental group is (30) students. Students were subjected to pre and posttests. The researcher used the T-test for two independent samples to know the equivalent between the experimental and control groups in the pre-test. The researcher used chi-square to find out statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups' variables of mothers and fathers' academic achievement. The results of the post-test shown that there are differences between the experimental and control groups for the favor of the experimental group. It is concluded that teaching vocabulary by using posters proved to be more useful for the students of Intermediate school than through taught without using posters. This adequacy of using posters is clear on developing both memorizing and written achievement. The present study suggests that English teachers in Iraq need to activate their students' minds and memorization through using posters and recommends that other researchers to research the effectiveness of Facebook and social media in increasing English language vocabulary learning.

Keywords: learning, posters, secondary students, visualized teaching, vocabulary

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Introduction

1.1 The Problem of the Study

Learning vocabulary is an essential part of taking in a dialect. As much as words you know, as much you will have the capacity in comprehending whatever you read and hear; and enrich your capacity to state your needs when talking and writing. The vocabulary can be separated into two gatherings inactive and active vocabulary. Inactive vocabulary includes everyone from words that you comprehend through reading or tune in, yet that don't utilize by you (or can't recall) by your particular written and spoked work. Dynamic one is each one of the words you comprehend, in addition to all words that you can recall yourself.

There are certain challenges concerned with understanding vocabularies such as: ploys, the words idiomatic usage, false cognates and distinction homophones, which can be treated through the dictionary and context.

Nearly most of the students face challenges in vocalizing the words, in writing and spelling them, and the correct use of these words in a grammatical pattern. The distinctive linguistic type of a word known as affectations which was one of the reasons for students' trouble in vocabulary learning (Haryanto, 2007). It is contending so far that taking in syntax cannot be isolated from taking in an outside dialect. In certainly, learning foreign dialect wins up noticeably troublesome since the objective dialect has a distinctive framework from the local dialect. Encourage Haryanto includes that even somebody that takes in a remote dialect, he regularly faces impediment when s/he stratifies his/her first language or first dialect structure to structure of the outside dialect which is not the same as his/her local dialect, what is more, the students discovered troubles in picking the proper significance of the words, for instance now and they for the most part cover the significance of the words, for example, the utilization of do and make, the students likewise still befuddle in utilizing the word in light of the unique circumstance. In the end, the students are additionally kept befuddling when they discovered words or articulation that are informal (such as: decide, keep your eye on…).

1.2 significance of the Study

Trying to understand the meaning of words in a foreign language is a big issue in foreign language learning’. Wilkins (1972) write: "if there is no grammar, small portion will be covered, if there is no vocabulary, nothing at all will be covered" (p.111).

The first step to learn a foreign language is vocabulary learning. In order to learn a foreign language, students need first to learn vocabulary before they learn grammatical structures, reading and writing skills.

Harmer (1994) states: "the skeleton of language made up by language structures, and the dynamic organs and flesh made up by vocabulary" (p.153). Therefore, vocabulary is considered as an essential element in the language and all language instructors involve it through teaching different subjects within the four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking.

Teaching vocabulary can be found at all dexterity levels in language learning from the early start and through language courses, providing many homework activities in vocabulary, and finally providing suitable assessments of vocabulary knowledge.
Generally, when we mention the word "vocabulary" it represents a gist of words of their collections in a specific language. However, we should put in mind, as mentioned by Ur (2000: p.60), that a single item of vocabulary can contain more than a single word. E.g. "Post-office" contains two words but still represents one thought. It can be concluded that the most necessary elements of any language class are teaching vocabulary. One essential reason behind that is the fact that it is a medium, which holds meaning; learning to understand and express the meaning is what counts in learning the language.

For these reasons, newly an increased concentration on vocabulary teaching, partly as a result of "the modern approaches and attitudes towards language teaching", which are much more "word-centered" (Thornbury, 2004:, p.VI).

1.3 Aim of the Study
The major aim of this study is to investigate the value of posters in vocabulary learning on the 2nd grade students at Halemat Alsaadia High School in Baghdad – Iraq.

1.4 Hypothesis:
The present study hypothesized that there are no statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups' scores in the post-test.

1.5 Limits of the study
This study is limited to:
1- Halemat Alsaadia High School in Baghdad, Iraq.
2- Two groups from the 2nd grade.
3- The textbook's title: "English for Iraq" for 2nd intermediate (both students' book & activities book).
4- The second term from the academic year 2017-2018.

Theoretical Background
2.1 What is Vocabulary Learning
Vocabulary: is defined as "all the accumulation of words known and used by a specific person". To Know a word, however, is not a simple as only having the ability to recognize or use it (Barnhart, 1968). According to Hubbard et.al. (1983), vocabulary can be defined as a powerful carrier of meaning. It is the knowledge of words and their meanings (Diamond & Gutlohn, 2006).

Learning: can be defined as any change in the human act or acts potential and this change can be attributed as a result of the learner's experience and interaction with the world (Driscoll, 2000: 11). It is also can be defined as: "is the process of gaining knowledge and expertise" (Knowles,1984). Learning also means: "A process that leads to change, which occurs as a result of experience and increases the potential of improved performance and future learning" (Susan et al, 2010).

Vocabulary learning: is the process of building blocks of second language acquisition (Restrepo, 2015).

Knowledge of vocabulary is often shown as a ticklish device for second language learners due to a restricted vocabulary in a second language block successful communication. By
emphasizing vocabulary procuration necessity, Schmitt (2000) asserts that “knowledge of lexicons is the core of communicative competency and to the procuration of a second language” (p. 55).

2.2 Teaching Vocabulary in General
Recent research indicates that teaching vocabulary might be dangerous in light of the fact that many instructors are unable to select or create the suitable practice in vocabulary teaching and how and when to start in building the frame or the body of an instructional confirmation on word learning (Jennifer & Camille, 2008).

Teaching words is a critical perspective in realizing a dialect as dialects depend upon words (Thornbury, 2002). It is relatively difficult to understand an accent without words; also, communication between individuals relies on words. The two educators and students pull together that assuring of the vocabulary is a central factor in instructing a dialect (Walters, 2004).

A good teacher should prepare himself or herself with different and up and coming procedures. The teacher should be able to shoot the material with a specific end aim to be understood by students and be seized and pleased during the instruction and learning process inside the classroom. The teacher's choice of vocabulary is somehow infected with a specific rate by being limited to the coursebook and supplementary materials they employ. But still the role of, "Teacher to determine on which individual items should be emphasized" (Gairns and Redman, 1992, p.54).

2.3 The Importance of Vocabulary in Language learning
Teaching vocabulary is an essential territory deserving of exertion and examination. As of late methodologists and linguists assert and prescribe vocabulary teaching as a result of its significance in dialect educating. It is required for communication meaning and in utilizing. The open (listening and reading) and profitable (speaking and writing) skills. "If language structures considered as the skeleton of language, then vocabulary considered as the core organs and the flesh" (Harmer, 1991, p. 153).

It is not the end when we mention vocabulary and not the last by itself. But well knowledge of it will simplify performance of other skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing so when you're functioning memory is not stacked in dithering in choosing the right spelling, pronunciation and relevant utilization regarding suitable words, you can focus on completely larger amount pats of dialect, for example, utilizing exact framework of the sentence and proper articulations related to the sort of discussion which is going on (Nation, 1994).

2.4 Benefits Behind Learning Vocabulary
Vocabulary knowledge was seen as a major tool for students’ second accent is when addressed to the fact that a mannered vocabulary in a moment dialect hinders useful communication. Underlining the efficiency of vocabulary possession, it is Schmitt (2000, P:55) consists that "knowledge of lexical is central to communicative competence as well as the acquisition of a second language " (p.55).

Vocabulary learning is a vital objective in proficiency, maybe more vital than is for the most part recognized by analysts and instructors. Well known books regarding the matter have since a long time ago larded the temperance of rich vocabulary e.g., (Funk and Lewis, 1942; Nurnberg and Rosenblum, 1961).
Psychometric investigation recommends that vocabulary is a focal factor in perusing capacity, alongside other specific factors, for example, translating, understanding and rate (Carroll, 1993; Davis, 1944; Rosenshein, 1980).

Vocabulary instruction should aim to connect with the students in currently pondering word implications, with connections among words, and how we can utilize words in various circumstances. This kind of rich, deep instruction is well on the way to impact understanding (Graves, 2006; McKeon and Beck, 2004).

2.5 Posters
A poster is an ancient rarity that depicts visible recognition, such as, a photo or a picture with two-dimensions, which shows comparable appearance to some subject-ordinary a physical question or a man, along these lines giving design for it. In literature, the poster is a "mental picture" which appeals to the senses. It can both be figurative and literal (Chris, 2008:165). Posters can be defined as an instrument that related to use the visual aids inside the classroom to support students' learning. When reviewing the cognitive science found that it fosters the visual show of information as being useful for student learning; specifically, dual coding theory which shows the advantages of both verbal and non-verbal processes for key components of cognition (Clark & Paivio, 1991).

Also, posters supply the learner with the chance to connect the learning through visual representation and textbook reading, lectures, and conventional homework duties. Many students were asked to create posters which can be considered as a significant and useful course project, developing research, or a particular perspective for class activities. Posters have typically been adopted in different courses of study, but still in humanities subjects are considered highly effective teaching techniques (Manarin, 2016).

Poster-making, and all the more especially are making are considered as manage based exercises in which certain basic control sets will undoubtedly low-level psychological procedures. ARROW, a computer-program, models few parts of poster-making conduct through the activity of these tenses, and creates in result, to great degree vast arrangement of exceedingly suggestive "freehand" drawing.

2.6 The Advantages of using Posters in Teaching
According to Latuheru (1988), posters have a few capacities in the teaching and learning process. In the first place, posters can make an interpretation of unique thoughts into more sensible structures. Second, posters are effortlessly acquired, e.g. from textbooks, daily papers, and magazines. Third, posters are usable in various types of scholarly levels. Fourth, posters can spare the instructor's opportunity and vitality. Also, Raimes (1983), posters in succession prepare variety of guided and free written work workout. A photo grouping, such as, a humorous cartoon, gives the topic past the photos in the strip. An arrangement of paralleled photos in a poster form give materials that offer guidance on vocabulary, sentence structure, and association, and after that let the students expound on a new topic.

In the interim, Latuheru (1988) states that there are a few preferences of posters. First, the photo is economical, well-known medium correspondence. Also, the picture can be organized in grouping and can be adjusted to many subjects. Moreover, the poster has an assortment of...
employments by the singular student, on notice sheets and on fireboard. Moreover, the poster can aid the aversion of, and adjustment of, misguided judgments. Plus, the poster can intercept word images, record occasion, clarify the process, broaden encounters, draw a correlation, demonstrate differentiate, indicate progression, center considerations, and create a basic judgment.

2.7 The Importance of Using Posters in Teaching
A visual product is justified regardless of a thousand words through which a mind-blowing thought can be based on with only a solitary still poster. Posters make it conceivable to assimilate a lot of information rapidly. Utilizing photos, images, or posters for clarifying complex marvels is one of the showings helps of present-day training framework everywhere throughout the world. As the world is charging step by step so are strategies for guidelines as the cutting-edge educational modules require calculated elaborations. Visual guides tend to emerge the considerations of students as design to give contemplations a solid edge of references, utilizing of the photo is essential for students since they will probably trust discoveries when the discoveries are combined with shaded posters depicting complex circumstances amid learning rather than other illustrative information, for example, complex book content. Poster presentations scores a significantly higher value compared to standard presentations (Lane, 2001).

2.8 Using Posters in Vocabulary
Posters meets with the fact that all employed in delivering a comprehensive variety of acquiring vocabulary, as well as in many different parts of outside dialect educating. It was presented by Wright (1990:4-6) that this reality on a case when he applied one arranged poster and outline the possibility of exercising in five very different language areas. The case dissects using posters in showing the structure, vocabulary, function, situation as well as the four skills. Moreover, he called attention to that "potency of posters in so great that only a taste of their full potential can be given" in his book (Ibid:6). In other words, even if posters were used in lessons as the main point, they might be used only as a "motivation for writing and discussion, as a clarification of something being read or talked about, as background to a topic and so on" (Hill, 1990:2).

2.9 Previous Studies
There are researchers who studied using visual materials in teaching such as:
- A study by Al Mamun (2014) searched the benefits of using audio-visual materials for both learners and teachers. An observation and interview methods were used and found out that using both audio-visual materials is useful believing that they were effective for the teaching-learning process. The results of the interview showed that teachers agreed on the importance of such materials as being useful in the classroom in teaching language four skills.
- In Bangladesh, research by Zerin and Khan (2013) investigated the efficiency of activities based on a poster at the primary level. They discovered the positivity and efficiency of making posters part of the class routine. Also, they discovered that language proficiency was improved with the help of posters.
- A study made by Osa and Musser (2004) showed the importance of applying posters in education and they found that by using posters, the learning environment becomes motivating and attracting learners' minds.
Methodology

3.1 Experimental Design

The experimental designs are plans and strategies. The experimental design involves two tests, and they require not to be taken in the request in which they soured well to me and the request for their introduction here. The general design includes which configuration ought to be utilized to ponder point. Informing this design should be the perspective suspicions the scientist conveys to the examination; techniques of request (called strategies); and particular strategies for information accumulation, investigation, and translation. The determination of experimental design is additionally in light of the idea of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experience, and the students for the study (Volt, 1999, p. 93). The experimental design which the researcher followed in this study is the pretest-posttest design to explore the effect of the suggested strategy "posters" on Secondary school students' achievement in vocabulary.

3.2 Population and Sample

3.2.1 Population:

It was known that the population are any group of individuals that have one or more characteristic that will be researched (Fraenkel and Wallen 2008:10). The population of the study is represented by the 2nd- grade students at Halema Alsaadia High school in Baghdad/ Iraq. The population's total number is (120) students distributed in four sections.

3.2.2 The Sample

The sample is a part of the population that will be researched. The sample of this study is two groups randomly selected from the whole population. The sample consists of 62 students of the second intermediate. These two groups are group A which consists of (32) students and group B which consists of (30) students. The control group is represented by group A and the experimental group is represented by B one respectively as shown in table (1).

Table 1. Sample of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample's groups</th>
<th>Students' number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A) Control</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B) Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Equivalence of the Sample Subjects

3.3.1 Age of Students:

Table 2 shows to the equivalent of the two groups experimental and control group in age variable.

Table 2. Groups' statistics in Age Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Calculated T-value</th>
<th>tabulated T-value</th>
<th>Degree of Freedom</th>
<th>Level of Significance at 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.7159</td>
<td>4.83157</td>
<td>0.356</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.7083</td>
<td>11.0123</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results showed that there are no significant differences between the experimental and control groups which means that the groups are equal in the age variable.

3.3.2 The Parents' Level of Education

3.3.2.1 Mother's Academic Achievement

Table (3) shows that the students in both groups are statistically equivalent in mothers' academic achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Primary / Secondary</th>
<th>Intermediate/Diploma</th>
<th>Bachelor/Postgraduate</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>The Value of Chi-square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Calculated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control: count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental: count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher used chi-square to find out statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in the variable of mothers' academic achievement. By comparing the calculated value of chi-square which was (0.723), with the tabulated value which was (5.99) at degree of freedom (2), the calculated value is smaller than the tabulated one, it means that there are not statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in mothers' academic level of achievement.

3.3.2.2 Father's Academic Achievement

Table 4 shows that the students in both groups are statistically equivalent in fathers' academic achievement.
The researcher used chi-square to find out statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in the variable of fathers' academic achievement. When comparing the calculated value of chi-square which was (1.019) with the tabulated value which was (7.81) at a degree of freedom (2), the calculated value is smaller than the tabulated one, it means that there are not statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in fathers' academic level of achievement.

### 3.4 Instrument

The instruments were used for collecting the data in this study are pre-test and post-test. A pretest is given to the students at the early time of the researcher's teaching period which started at the second term of the academic year 2017-2018 in the class at the first meeting with the students on 18th, February 2018 after Spring holiday. This test was used for measuring the students' abilities and their achievement in English lesson and vocabulary items in specific, see appendix (A).

The researcher used the T-test for two independent samples to know the equivalent between the experimental and control groups in the pre-test. The mean value of the control group was (8.37) at standard deviation (3.05). While the mean value of the experimental group was (7.70) at standard deviation (3.10). The calculated T-value was (0.862) which is smaller than the tabulated value (1.98) at the degree of freedom (60), and the level of significance (0.05) that means both groups are equal in the pre-test performance as shown in table (5).

### Table 5. Equivalence of the control and experimental groups in the pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Calculated</th>
<th>Tabulated</th>
<th>Level of Significance at 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.3750</td>
<td>3.05593</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.7000</td>
<td>3.10894</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The researcher taught both the control and experimental groups. She taught the control group according to the traditional teaching method without using posters in vocabulary items while she used different types of posters in teaching different vocabulary items included in their textbook such as: "encyclopedia, atlas, Internet café, radio, screen, the meaning of active and passive, using pictures to tell a story, recycling, self-care, adjectives like: (kind, loved, tough, strong, respected, amazing, brave, cared for, understood, special, important, intelligent), drink more water, and time management, and many other vocabularies related to their lessons", by using posters. At the end time of the experiment which was on the 1st of May, 2018, the researcher applied the post test on both groups in order to test the efficiency of using posters in teaching vocabulary items and to measure the progress of students' English coverage of vocabulary.

3.4.1 Test Validity
Bergman (1981, p.150) defined validity as "the extent to which it measures what it is designed to measure". The test has been exposed to a jury to check if it is suitable. The jury includes specialists in teaching methods, they give their judgment whether the items are representative or not and all of them showed their agreement on the instrument items.

3.4.2 Test Reliability
Reliability as applied to education measurements, defined as the level of internal consistency of the measuring device over time. If the research different between the control and experimental group on a variable measured by a test, it means that the user of posters is useful. The researcher used Cronbach's alpha to discover correlation among test items which showed correlation value (0.80) and it is a good rate for reliability.

Results' Analysis, Conclusion, Suggestions and Recommendations

4.1 Analysis of Results Related to the Aim of the study and Verification of the Null Hypothesis
The researcher used the T-test for two independent samples to discover the statistical differences between the experimental and control groups in the post-test. The control group mean value was (8.0) at standard deviation (2.07) while the experimental group mean value was (10.33) at standard deviation (3.36). The calculated T-value was (3.306) which is bigger than the tabulated T-value (1.98) at (60) degree of freedom and level of significant (0.05). Therefore, there are significant differences in favor of the experimental group with the highest mean value (10.33) which means that using posters in vocabulary was an effective strategy for improving students' coverage of English vocabulary, as shown in table (6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Calculated</th>
<th>Tabulated</th>
<th>Level of Significance at 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.0000</td>
<td>2.07908</td>
<td>3.306</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.3333</td>
<td>3.36650</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. T-Test for Measuring Statistical Differences between the Control and Experimental Groups in the Post-test
4.2 Conclusion

Considering what has been discussed in this research, the researcher draws a conclusion about the value of posters in vocabulary learning on 2nd intermediate grade students at Halemat Alsaadia High School in Baghdad – Iraq. It is concluded that teaching vocabulary using posters proved to be more useful for the students of secondary school than through taught without using posters. This adequacy of using posters is clear on developing both memorizing and written achievement of students. Several points in the value of posters in vocabulary learning can be concluded as follows:

A- The lessons that use posters can be more enjoyable.
B- Posters make students memorize faster.
C- Posters increase vocabulary retention in secondary schools.
D- Posters can create learning situations that motivate active participation and self-esteem.

4.3 Suggestions and Recommendations

The present study suggests that English teachers in Iraq need to activate their students' minds and memorization through using posters and other visual instruments that motivate learning environment and engage the learner with the learning process with enjoyable strategies and techniques in teaching and try to get rid of all traditional, passive teaching procedures. This study recommends that other researchers to research the effectiveness of Facebook and social media in increasing English language vocabulary learning.

About the Authors:

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References:


## Appendices

### Appendix A Pre-Test – Post Test Forms

**Pre-Test**

1. Name: ____________
2. Date: ____________

**Q1/3** Choose the correct meaning:

1. *emphasized*:
   a) to feel tired  
   b) to feel shy and silly  
   c) to feel lill
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

2. *loaf*:
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

3. *sneeze*:
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

**Q2/3** Underline odd one out.

1. Car, Bus, Horse, Bicycle.
2. University, College, School, Hospital.
3. Horse, Cat, Ant, Dog.
4. Businesswoman, Doctor, Editor, Chef.

**Q3/3** Choose the correct meaning:

1. *emphasized*:
   a) to feel tired  
   b) to feel shy and silly  
   c) to feel lill
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

2. *loaf*:
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

3. *sneeze*:
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

**Q4/3** Read and complete the sentences. Choose the best word from the box (article, picture, joke, poetry, report, well-known, team)

1. Our teacher told us a __________ in the morning and we all laughed loudly.
2. nanop has written a __________ for the school magazine.
3. Our football _________ team played well in the match yesterday.
4. We need to interview a __________ person in our town. Can you suggest someone?
5. I didn’t like sitting stories, but I love writing __________

**Q5/3** Match the words with the pictures below:

1. Drive  
2. Angry  
3. Listen  
4. Light

---

**Appendix B** Final Test – Post Test Forms

**Final Test**

1. Name: ____________
2. Date: ____________

**Q1/3** Choose the correct meaning:

1. *emphasized*:
   a) to feel tired  
   b) to feel shy and silly  
   c) to feel lill
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

2. *loaf*:
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in

3. *sneeze*:
   a) make up   
   b) make a liquid flow out
   a) a big grass
   b) a well
   c) glass you can see in
Post test

01/4/ Draw lines connecting the pairs of opposites:

A            B

first
cheap
male
adult

inside
child
last
expensive

02/ Which of the words in column (A) can combine with column (B) to form a complete word:

A

tear

B

water
mound
flour

03/ Let's find the synonyms:

1. Happy

2. Angry

3. Listen

4. Light

04/ Read and complete the sentences. Choose the best words from the box:

people, cartoon, joke, funny, sport, walk, listen, write

1. Our teacher told us to ............... the morning and we all laughed loudly.
2. He has written an ............... for the school magazine.
3. One football ............... didn’t play well in the match yesterday.
4. We have to interpret a ............... poem in our lesson. Can you suggest something?
5. I don’t like writing stories, but I love reading ...............
Pragmatic Deficits in Iraqi Patients with Schizophrenia: A Descriptive Study

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Abstract
Patients with schizophrenia often experience impairments in several cognitive domains. One domain of particular interest is pragmatics, i.e., the ability to match language to context. This study aims at (a) investigating the pragmatic abilities of Iraqi patients with schizophrenia on both the production and comprehension level; (b) identifying which Grice's (1975) maxims do those patients most frequently violate; and (c) determining which of the demographic variables (gender, education, and age) has an influence on both the production and comprehension performance and violations. To this end, thirty patients were required to orally perform six pragmatic tasks using the Assessment of Pragmatic Abilities and Cognitive Substrates (APACS) (Arcara & Bambini, 2016). Results revealed that first, patients' performance in comprehension is worse than that in production. Secondly, the most frequently violated maxim is that of quality. Thirdly, there were statistically substantial differences among patients on the comprehension level for education and age only, whereas results of violations of Grice's maxims recorded significant differences for all the three variables. The study concluded that people with schizophrenia might suffer from pragmatic deficits, particularly on the comprehension level, and that the degree of the difficulty of the task assigned along with the three variables could play a vital role in the degree of their performance. The findings of this study may be applied to the development of effective treatment strategies in schizophrenia.

Keywords: APACS, Grice's maxims, Iraqi patients, pragmatic deficits, schizophrenia

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/elt2.3
Review of Literature

Schizophrenia and pragmatic deficits

Schizophrenia listed by World Health Organization (WHO, 1990) into the top ten medical disorders causing disability is a uniquely human mental disease characterized by bizarre organization and miscommunication of complex thought and language (DeLisi, 2001). According to Cardella (2018), schizophrenia is "a disease of language" (pp. 80-81), i.e., delusions are fed and grown by language. Despite the various studies over time, it remains bewildering since it is a multifactorial disorder, i.e., not all patients equally suffer from the same symptoms, nor do they collectively correspond to the remedy, nor is the disorder itself always caused by genetic reasons. However, the result of these various clinical studies is one, i.e., dementia (Shorter, 2005). On the other hand, schizophrenia falls into three types of symptoms: positive symptoms (e.g., delusions, hallucinations, and disordered thoughts), negative symptoms (e.g., poverty of speech and action, abnormal behavior, social withdrawal, etc.), and cognitive symptoms (e.g., problems with attention, memory, understanding information, and focusing) (Mitchell et al., 2015).

It is well-known that people with schizophrenia suffer from significant deficits in the pragmatic use of language, i.e., the ability to integrate language to context to figure out the speaker's meaning (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). Through studying language in general and pragmatics in particular, one can detect any dissonance or deficits in the human thinking, mainly if one focuses on the pragmatic phenomena that are inseparably related to the cognitive thinking (Cummings, 2017). From this conviction, researchers have studied pragmatic deficits through a relatively new discipline that occurs on the surface of pragmatics and clinical linguistics, i.e., clinical pragmatics, which is an "offshoot of linguistic pragmatics" (Cummings, 2017, p. V). Clinical pragmatics’ interests lie in the observation, assessment, and treatment of pragmatic impairment found in patients with mental disorders, including people with schizophrenia. It concentrates on the patients’ cognition, production, and comprehension of the conversational settings (Cummings: 2008).

Grice's Conversational maxims

According to Grice (1975), our conversational process would not be rational if it were disconnected and uncooperative; that is, there is a cooperative tendency between interlocutors during a conversation. Based on this idea of common purpose, he derives Cooperative Principle (CP) which runs as follows: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice, 1975, p. 45). He further lists his four conversational maxims to achieve successful communication, namely the maxims of quantity, quality, relation, and manner which run as follows:

(1) The maxim of quantity requires interlocutors to provide a suitable amount of information, and it has two submaxims:

   (a) "Make your contribution as informative as is required."
   (b) "Do not make your contribution more informative than is required."

(2) The maxim of quality requires interlocutors to make a true contribution, and it has two submaxims:

   (a) "Do not say what you believe to be false."
(b) "Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence."
(3) The maxim of relation requires interlocutors to "be relevant."
(4) The maxim of manner requires interlocutors to be perspicuous, and it has four submaxims:
   (a) "Avoid obscurity of expression."
   (b) "Avoid ambiguity."
   (c) "Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)."
   (d) "Be orderly" (Grice, 1975, pp. 45-46).

All in all, the maxims simply enjoin interlocutors to cooperate by telling the truth obviously, briefly, relevantly, and precisely; otherwise, violations might occur. Thomas (1995, p. 64) cites the following example, which clarifies the observance of the four maxims:

   Husband: Where are the car keys?

   Wife: They are on the table in the hall.

The wife has answered in a clear, direct, and truthful manner, besides she has given a suitable amount of the information required, thus observing all of the conversational maxims.

However, interlocutors cannot follow the maxims all the time; therefore, they are violated every now and then (Levinson, 1983). One of the reasons for violating maxims is to express figurative language; for instance, violation of the maxim of quality occurs whenever interlocutors use metaphorical, idiomatic, or ironic expressions (Chapman, 2005). Violations may also occur by abnormal interlocutors. To be specific, patients with schizophrenia provide good examples of the impaired decoding of the maxim violations because they face difficulties in recognizing the communicative intentions behind violating them. These difficulties might in turn lead to incoherent discourse and abnormal use of language (Dua, 1990). Bloom et al. (1999) confirm that Gricean pragmatics has offered a useful framework for exploring the discourse of people with communication impairments. Moreover, through his journey of analyzing the language of patients with schizophrenia, Frow (2001) concludes that he has not found a more useful model than Grice's maxims because they suppose that language is a transparent, economical, truthful, and precise system.

Previous research
So far, several studies have examined many aspects of language impairments experienced by people with schizophrenia. The most impaired communicative domain is pragmatics (Tényi et al., 2002; Mazza et al., 2008; & Colle et al., 2013). Hence, pragmatic deficits, which are the focus of our study, have been extensively researched and well documented in the literature of schizophrenia (Andreasen, 1986; Covington et al., 2005; & Kayi et al., 2018). Some of the studies focused on specific aspects of pragmatic performance, whereas other studies only included broader assessments. For instance, researchers pointed out that the performance of people with schizophrenia significantly differed from that of controls in the comprehension of indirect speech acts (Corcoran, 2003) and other figures of speech such as idioms, proverbs, and metaphors (Schettino et al., 2010 & Moro et al., 2015).

On the other hand, Tényi et al. (2002) examined the schizophrenics’ awareness of the Gricean implicatures, their violations, and their intended meanings. The sample consisted of 26
paranoid schizophrenic subjects and 26 healthy controls. The task was composed of four questions and four answers that violate the relation maxim. The intended meaning had to be identified by the subjects in each case. This experiment concluded that patients with schizophrenia had more errors and less ability to identify the communicative intentions behind the violations of the conversational maxims than the controls.

Another study done by Varga et al., (2014) on ten schizophrenic patients matched with 19 control subjects investigated the effect of the Intelligence Quotient (IQ) on the subjects' performance in the comprehension of nonliteral language, including metaphors (conventional and unconventional) and irony, the Gricean maxims, implicatures, and semantics. Patients with schizophrenia were of two types: a lower-IQ group and a higher-IQ group. The results affirmed that both groups experienced impairments in comprehending implicatures. However, patients with higher-IQ were able to perceive irony and conventional and unconventional metaphors, unlike patients with lower-IQ who were unable to comprehend unconventional metaphors and irony.

In the same vein, Bosia et al. (2015) applied the APACS test on 39 Italian patients with schizophrenia in comparison with matched 32 control subjects. Their study explored the pragmatic abilities of schizophrenic patients and the effect of their symptoms on performance. The results reported that the patients' performance was significantly worse than the control subjects on both the production level (in the Interview task) and the comprehension level (in the Narratives, Figurative Language 2, and Humor).

In a more recent study based on the Assessment Battery for Communication Test, Bosco et al., (2019) observed the cognitive processing of 32 schizophrenic patients with much focus on their Theory of Mind and Executive Functioning abilities. The test fell into four categories: linguistic comprehension, linguistic production, extralinguistic comprehension, and extralinguistic production. The sample had to watch a given video that contained different communicative acts expressed with true, false, and ironic intentions, and then to select one of them. The results pointed out that the patients had impairments in all tasks except for the acts expressed with sincere intentions because they were the easiest ones to recognize.

Although researchers have widely discussed this topic in the literature across different types of populations, the evidence is still sparse and unclear in the Iraqi context. Hence, the novelty of the current study lies in exploring the ability of a sample of clinically stabilized Iraqi patients with schizophrenia in comprehending and producing different types of pragmatic tasks and determining the frequency occurrence of the nonobservance of maxims detected in their speech. Such a study will hopefully fill the gap in the literature.

**Research questions**

This study attempts to answer the following questions:
1. Are there significant differences among Iraqi patients with schizophrenia in the production and recognition of the tasks investigated?
2. Which Gricean maxim violation occurs most often in their utterances?
3. Do the demographic variables (gender, education, and age) have a significant influence on the patients' APACS performance and violations?
Methodology

Participants
Thirty Iraqi patients who were diagnosed by qualified psychiatrists in Ibn-Rushd Hospital for Psychiatric Training in Baghdad Province using the criteria of the Tenth Version of International Classification of Diseases (ICD-10) (WHO, 1993) participated in this study. Even though ICD-11 was released, the hospital followed the tenth version. The patients were all submitted to antipsychotic medication for at least six months. The clinical population whose native language was Arabic consisted of 15 males and 15 females, ranging in age from 25 to 55 years (mean = 41, SD = 7.72) and fell into two categories: patients whose ages ranged from 25 to 40 years, and those whose ages ranged from 41 to 55 years, and who underwent 6-12 years of formal education categorized into primary (completed six grade school) and secondary educational level (completed high school).

Data collection
This study is a quantitative descriptive study based on collecting data. The collection process conducted by the authors was officially approved by the Ministry of Health and Environment of Iraq and supervised by the staff psychiatrists at the said hospital. We adopted the APACS test in data retrieval. After taking the patients' oral consent, we orally administrated the test to each patient in a single session of approximately 30-40 minutes. After the interview, scoring data was accurately done, and patients' responses were transcribed into Arabic (see Appendix A.) and then translated into English by the authors. Then, we analyzed the transcribed data in the light of Gricean maxims with an intense highlight on investigating patients' nonobservances of the maxims during the performance of the six tasks investigated. All statistical analyses were conducted through the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS), version 23. Ten experts, including five linguists, four psychologists, and one psychiatrist, approved the content validity of the test after making some suggestions and modifications. The reliability of the test was evaluated using Cronbach's (1951) alpha, which showed a high-reliability value in all tasks (see Table 1).

Table 1. Reliability statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narratives</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figurative language 1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figurative language 2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.865</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APACS Instrument
Arab World English Journal
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ISSN: 2229-9327
APACS is "a new tool to evaluate pragmatic abilities in clinical populations with acquired communicative deficits, ranging from schizophrenia to neurodegenerative diseases" (Arcara & Bambini, 2016, p. 1). It can be described as a comprehensive multifunctional battery designed to detect impairments in verbal abilities that could be utilized for research and clinical purposes as well (Arcara & Bambini, 2016). The APACS test sheds light on two essential pragmatic domains: discourse and non-literal language. It consists of a total of six tasks (see Figure 1); two dedicated to production (Interview and Description in the blue section) and four to comprehension (Narratives, Figurative Language 1, Humor, and Figurative Language 2 in the orange section). The time limit for each session to test each patient ranges from 30-40 minutes, depending on the patient's characteristics. The test is applied in a clinical setting; therefore, the tasks are conducted in a fixed order starting with the Interview task and ending with the Figurative Language 2 task (see Appendix B.).

**Figure 1. Structure of the APACS test and derived scores (Arcaca & Bambini, 2016, p. 4).**

**APACS Tasks**

**Task 1: Interview** (time limit: approximately five minutes)
This task aims at assessing the patients' ability in discourse organization and conversation engagement through a semi-structured interview based on four autobiographic topics, namely family, home, work, and organization of the day. To assess these topics, we use a checklist that consists mainly of three dimensions of discourse: (1) linguistic communicative difficulties evaluated at the contextual-pragmatic level include: (a) speech (e.g., coprolalia, repetition, incomplete utterances, and echolalia); (b) informativeness (e.g., difficulty in answering yes/no questions, over/under-informativeness, and loss of verbal initiative); and (c) information flow (e.g., misuse of cohesive ties, missing referents, wrong order of elements, and abrupt topic shift).
(2) Paralinguistic communicative difficulties which include altered speech speed, impaired intonation, loss of eye-contact, fixed facial expression, and abuse of gesture. (3) Other communicative difficulties contain errors in grammar, errors in vocabulary, semantic paraphasia, phonemic paraphasia, and circumlocution. The frequency of each type of communicative difficulty is annotated (always/sometimes/never) and then transformed into scores of (0/1/2) depending on the frequency of each communicative difficulty, i.e., a score 0 when there is no occurrence of the communicative difficulty, a score one when it occurs once or twice, and a score two when it occurs three or more times. (Maximal score: 44).

Task 2: Description (time limit: approximately five minutes)
This task aims at assessing the patients' ability to produce and share information on everyday life situations through a traditional picture description task considered in pragmatic perception. Ten pictures (retrieved from Matti, 2018) of daily life (e.g., a man riding a bicycle in the street) are presented one by one to each patient to describe and to recognize the main items that feature the scene, notably: agent(s), location, and the activity of agent(s). Each item in each picture receives either 0 or one. A score 0 is assigned when the item is missed, misidentified, or described by using gestures only. A score one is assigned when the patient identifies the element correctly. A further score one is assigned for each picture when the patient mentions the items without productive mistakes similar to those considered in the Interview task, but if there are production errors and when the responses are unintelligible, or when the patient uses gestures only, the patient receives 0. (Maximal score: 40).

Task 3: Narratives (time limit: approximately 10 minutes)
This task aims at assessing the patients' ability to apprehend the significant discoursal elements of a narrative text. Six stories composed of 4-8 sentences each and taken from real Arabic newspapers (Al-Sabah Newspaper, 2018) are read at a regular rate to each patient. Then s/he is required to (a) give the global topic of the story, i.e., what the story is talking about which scored 0, one, or two depending on the patients' accurate responses. A score 0 is assigned when the patient misidentifies the topic of the story, when s/he gives only one element of the story, or when s/he is unable to summarize the text. A score one is assigned when the patient provides the topic with slight errors, when s/he is partially able to summarize the content of the story, or when s/he gives the topic with lexical errors that provide a partial understanding instead of an accurate understanding. A score two is assigned when the patient identifies the topic correctly, even when there are slight errors. (b) Answer two yes/no specific questions on some aspects of the story, whether main, detailed, stated, or implied (Ferstl et al., 2005). A score one is assigned when the answer is correct and 0 when it is incorrect, when the patient does not remember, or when the question is left unanswered. (c) Explain two given non-literal expressions in the story. A score 0 is assigned when the patient provides literal explanations or paraphrases, or when s/he does not know how to explain them. In the case of an incomplete answer, the patient receives one, whereas, in the case of explaining the figurative expression correctly, s/he receives two. (Maximal score: 48.)

Task 4: Figurative Language 1 (time limit: approximately eight minutes)
This task aims at assessing the patients' ability to infer nonliteral meaning through multiple-choice questions. We provide each patient with 15 items (five highly familiar idioms, five novel metaphors, and five common proverbs) used in contextualized sentences taken from available
databases (Attia, 2004). For each sentence, we provide three possible (correct figurative, incorrect literal, and unrelated) interpretations. Each item is scored either 0 or one according to the accuracy of interpretation. Thus, responses are rated one when the patient selects the correct figurative explanation, and 0 when choosing the incorrect or unrelated interpretation, or when not responding at all. (Maximal score: 15).

Task 5: Humor (time limit: approximately five minutes)
This task aims at assessing the patients' ability to comprehend verbal jokes through multiple-choice questions. We provide each patient with seven brief humorous stories taken from Fearman (2014). Then, we provide three choices (correct funny, incorrect unfunny straightforward, and incorrect unrelated ending) to complete the end of each joke, and the patient should select the correct funny one. Each item receives either one when the patient chooses the correct funny punchline or 0 when s/he selects the unrelated or unfunny response or when s/he does not respond at all. (Maximal score: 7).

Task 6: Figurative Language 2 (time limit: approximately seven minutes)
This task aims at assessing the patients' ability to infer the nonliteral meanings of some figurative expressions by explaining them verbally. We provide each patient with fifteen items (five highly familiar idioms, five novel metaphors, and five common proverbs) retrieved from available databases (Attia, 2004). Then, we ask him/her to explain the meaning of each. Responses receive two when the patient provides a good explanation of the figurative expression, one in the case of providing an incomplete answer, and 0 when the patient only paraphrases the figurative expression, provides a literal or unrelated explanation, or does not respond at all. (Maximal score: 30).

Data analysis
The patients' general performance and the differences between those who got high scores and those who got low scores in both the production and comprehension of APACS pragmatic tasks irrespective of the three variables were calculated using (mean ± SD). To show differences among patients' performance concerning the three variables, we used the t-test method (Munro, 2005). To investigate differences among patients' violations of Grice's conversational maxims during the performance of each APACS task concerning the three variables, their frequencies, percents, and their totals were statistically calculated.

Results
The patients' general performance in APACS tasks regardless of the three variables was calculated using (mean ± SD). This method showed that patients' performance in comprehension (mean= 57.60) was worse than that in production (72.73). Significant differences were also recorded only at the comprehension level by patients who got low scores (percent= 20), as reported in Table 2.

The results of patients' performance in APACS concerning the three variables were calculated by the t-test method (t= 2.05, 28 df [degree of freedom], p= 0.05). This method showed statistically significant differences in all the variables (gender: males/females, education: primary school/ high school education, and age: (25-40/41-55) (see Table 3). The gender variable recorded insignificant differences; all of the values of the six tasks were less than the t-value (2.05) (see
Figure 2). The variable of education (high school education) recorded the highest significant differences in the tasks of Fig. L. 2 [Figurative Language 2] (t=-3.08, p= 0.01) which represented the highest significant difference, Narratives (t=-2.70, p= 0.01), and Figurative Language 1 (t=-2.41, p= 0.02) (see Figure 3). The age variable (41-55) recorded a significant difference in the Figurative Language 1 task (t=-2.18, p= 0.04) (see Figure 4).

Concerning patients’ violations of Grice's maxims during the performance of each APACS task, frequencies, percents, and their totals were calculated statistically (see Table 4). The most violated maxims were those of quality (38.9), and relation (30.3), followed by the maxim of quantity (24.7), while the less violated maxim was that of manner (6.1). Note that the Humor task recorded zero violations of the maxim of manner. The tasks that recorded violations were ranked as follows: Narratives (quality, quantity, and relation), Figurative Language 1 (quality, and relation), Humor (quality), Interview (quantity), and Figurative Language 2 (quality, quantity, and relation). The category that recorded the highest violations was those patients who had primary school education (55.9), followed by the category of males (53.2), and then the category of age 25-40 (50.6), as reported in Table 5.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the patients' performance in production, comprehension, and APACS total.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APACS level</th>
<th>percents</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Scores ranges</th>
<th>level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td>72.73</td>
<td>9.78</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29-55</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>79-91</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>57.60</td>
<td>19.29</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18-34</td>
<td>Low</td>
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<tr>
<td>APACS total</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>159-172</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>130.33</td>
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<td></td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>47-107</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of means, SD (Standard deviation), and t-tests comparing patients’ performance in APACS tasks according to gender, education, and age.
• Each slash in the columns of each table separates the two categories of the three variables: gender (male/female), education (primary/secondary), and age (25-40/41-55), respectively.

Figure 2. Effect of gender on APACS tasks.

Calculating the means of the patients' responses revealed no significant differences between males and females.

Figure 3. Effect of education on APACS tasks.

Calculating the means of the patients' responses showed significant differences between primary and secondary education.
Calculating the means of the patients' responses revealed significant differences between patients whose ages range from (25-40 years) and those whose ages range from (41-55 years).

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of the frequencies, percents, and totals of the four maxims in each APACS task concerning the variables gender, education, and age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>Gender frequencies</th>
<th>Gender percents</th>
<th>Education frequencies</th>
<th>Education percents</th>
<th>Age frequencies</th>
<th>Age percents</th>
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The maxim of quality

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### The maxim of relation

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### The maxim of manner

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<td>52.8/47.2</td>
<td>72</td>
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Table 5. The total violations for each demographic variable.

<table>
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<td>Age</td>
<td>595/580</td>
<td>50.6/49.4</td>
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### Discussion

**Research Question 1:** Are there significant differences among Iraqi patients with schizophrenia in the production and recognition of the tasks investigated?

Investigating the production and comprehension of patients' performance in the APACS test regardless of demographic variables indicated that while there were significant differences in patients' comprehension of the pragmatic tasks investigated, the study found no significant differences in their production. That is to say, patients' performance in comprehension was significantly worse than that in production, and patients who got high scores outperformed those who got low scores. These results go in line with the study of Marini et al., (2008), which pointed...
out that patients' macro-linguistic processing is more impaired than their micro-linguistic processing.

**Research Question 2: Which Gricean maxim violation occurs most often in their utterances?**

A pragmatic analysis of patients' responses that violate Grice's maxims pertaining to the three variables considered revealed that the violations were ranked as follows: (a) the quality violation, the highest violated maxim, occurred by making literal, false, and miscomprehended interpretations; (b) the relation violation occurred by providing unrelated and incoherent utterances; (c) the quantity violation occurred by either being over or under informative; and (d) the manner violation, the less violated maxim, occurred by being unclear and verbose. However, these results contrast with Jati et al.,'s (2017) in the range of violation in which they found that the most violated maxim is that of relation and not quality.

The tasks that recorded most violations were Narratives since they included Arabic examples with different connotations, a case which required focus thinking, concentration, and a good memory on the part of the patient, followed by Figurative Language 2, and Figurative Language 1, and both of which required abstract thinking and general knowledge that patients lacked. The category that profoundly violated maxims was patients who had primary school education, which indicates the importance of education in following and understanding the maxims that reflect fluent communication. The results support those of Corcoran and Frith (1996), which pointed out that patients with schizophrenia violated all of the maxims due to different types of impairments.

Furthermore, data analysis based on Grice's four maxims demonstrated that the maxims were not only violated by selecting the wrong choice, but also by keeping silent, or by providing false or unrelated types of information. Such kinds of violations indicated that patients failed to recognize the required question. Here are some extracts taken from the interviews between the interviewer and patients to identify the patients' nonobservances of the maxims in each task:

**Task 1: Interview**

المحاورة: كيف تنظم يومك؟

مرضى 16: أعيش كأعلم المساهير... الآن لا يوجد عمل في بغداد... والدي أستاذ في الكلية... أنا أستمع إلى كاظم الساهر أو أستمع إلى مشاري العفاسي المقرئ الكريم... و لدي طموح أن أصل إليه وإن شاء الله... و أنا أحفظ آشاد به... أنا مستعد أن أكسب صداقة 100 شخص... و أنا لدي أصدقاء... و أنا أدعو للشعب البغدادي يارب إحفظ الشعب البغدادي... و عندي دعاء لبر الوالدين أيضاً أرقف بي و بوالدي و أدعو للامة الإسلامية و أدعو للوطن العربي يارب أصل الشيام أصل الفنانين...

Interviewer: How do you organize your day?

Patient 16: I adore Kadhim Al-Sahir… now there is no work in Baghdad… my father is a professor at the college… I listen to Kadim Al-Sahir, or I listen to Mishary Alafasy, the Kuwaiti reciter of the Quran… and I have the ambition to reach Mishari Alafasy and Insha'Allah… and I memorize his chantings… I am ready to have 100 persons' friendships… I have friends… and I even pray for the Baghdadi people… Oh God, save the Baghdadi people... and I have a prayer for parents' obedience... have mercy on me and my parents... and I pray for the Islamic nation, and I pray for the Arab World Oh God straighten the Young straighten the artists…
Patient 16 violated the maxim of quantity by being over informative, which in turn resulted in violating the maxim of relation since he made irrelevant statements and gave unrelated information.

Task 2: Description

Interviewer: Describe this picture for me.

Patient 15: Just like them, he looks at somebody and watches him.

In describing picture 3 (a photographer holding his camera and shooting a photo), patient 15 violated the maxim of manner by being completely ambiguous, suggesting that the photographer was not taking a typical shot and that he was like (them) watching others. He spoke as though the hearer had known who he was talking about, and instead of saying that this guy was shooting a regular photo, he accused him of watching people.

Task 3: Narratives

Interviewer: I will read the following story and ask you some questions, for example, suggest a title for the story, explain some of the words and so one, so you need to focus on and listen carefully to what I will read:

Baghdad is known for its big clocks with high towers that are parallel to the lighthouses in the Ottoman reign. Al-Qishla is one of the archaeological clocks whose history is associated with the military barrack and the Sarai Government Building. It is still standing and present before our eyes up to now.

Interviewer: Suggest a title for the story.

Patient 9: Clocks

Patient 9 violated the maxim of quantity because the title he provided was less informative than was required, yet, adding some information like "Baghdad's Clocks" would make it a more suitable title.

Interviewer: Is Al-Qishla a new or an old clock?

Patient 18: new

Patient 18 violated the maxim of quality by providing inaccurate information, i.e., saying that Al-Qishla was a new clock. At the same time, it was clear in the story that it was an old clock.
Interviewer: What does 'the history of the clock is associated with the military barrack' mean?
Patient 9: It became together.
Instead of explaining the expression figuratively, patient 9 violated the maxim of manner by making an obscure utterance. He was about to understand the intended meaning, or he partially understood it. Yet, he could not explain it in a correct grammatical way, i.e., using "they" instead of "it." The focus here is indeed on comprehension more than on grammar. Still, such a grammatical mistake reflected the patient's misunderstanding and consequently caused a misunderstanding on the part of the listener.

Interviewer: What does 'the clock is still standing before our eyes' mean?
Patient 18: It will be at 12 O'clock.
Patient 18 violated the maxim of relation by making an irrelevant response. The question was not about time; instead, it was about explaining its figurative meaning.

**Task 4: Figurative Language**

Interviewer: Select the appropriate figurative explanation for the following idiomatic expression: Mohammed told me the story from A to Z.

a. He told me the story from its beginning to its end.

b. The alphabet letters.

c. Reading is joyful.

Patient 8: Mohammed… letter M.
Instead of selecting the right figurative expression (choice no. a), patient 8 violated the maxim of relation by providing an unrelated response to the expression suggesting that it referred to letters and neglecting the choices read for him.

**Task 5: Humor**

Interviewer: "Didn't you feel the pain of the exchange?"
Student: "Yes, Madam.
"I didn't tell you to change it?"

Patient: "I asked you to change it?"

Interviewer: "Didn't you feel the pain of the exchange?"
Student: "Yes, Madam."
"I didn't tell you to change it?"

Patient: "I asked you to change it?"
Interviewer: Complete the following joke by selecting one of the choices that I will read:

Teacher: 'Didn't you promise to behave well?'

Student: 'Yes, ma'am.'

Teacher: 'And didn't I promise to punish you if you didn’t?'

Student:

a. 'Yes ma'am. But since I didn’t keep my promise, I don't expect you to keep yours.'

b. 'Forgive me, from now on; I will behave well.'

c. 'I'm eight years old.'

Patient 4: She is malicious…she makes him drink pills and irritates him and makes him angry, and curses, and witchery and conjuration… [It was not Solomon who disbelieved, but the devils disbelieved]… he fulfilled his promise, but she is malicious and did not fulfill her promise.

Instead of completing the joke’s punchline (choice no. a), patient 4 violated the maxim of relation not by selecting the unrelated option at all, but by talking seriously and angrily about an irrelevant and incoherent topic which talked about a teacher who practiced witchery and forced others to take medication. It was much far away from the joke and the choices he was required to make.

Task 6: Figurative Language 2

المحاورة: إشرح التعبير التالي مجازياً و ليس حرفياً:

المحادثة: "اللّه إن النّتائج الأثريّة.

مرضى 11: حَرَّب.

Interviewer: Explain the following idiom figuratively, not literally:

The lion's share.

Patient 11: A gazelle

Patient 11 and some other patients responded in the same way by saying that the lion's share was a gazelle, which denoted its literal meaning, thereby violating the maxim of quality that reflected their inability to recognize the figurative sense of this utterance.
Research Question 3: Do the demographic variables (gender, education, and age) have a significant influence on the patients' APACS performance and violations?

Examining patients' performance in APACS regarding the demographic variables indicated that while there were no significant gender-related differences among patients, the study found statistically significant differences concerning education and age. However, such significant differences in the tasks performed can be ranked as follows: Figurative Language 2, Narratives, and Figurative Language 1. That included patients who had a secondary education level and those whose ages ranged from 41 to 55 years, which demonstrated that, unlike gender, education and age play vital roles in patients' mental understanding. These results are consistent with the study of Bosia et al. (2015), which revealed that patients' performance is much more affected by education and age rather than by gender.

All in all, the findings indicate that there is a correlation between the results of the APACS test and the violations of the maxims. The same categories made significant differences in APACS performance and violations. The only difference is that males most likely fail to observe Grice's maxims in comparison with females, while in APACS, gender recorded insignificant performance. The findings also reveal that patients suffer from a prominent impaired comprehension in comparison with their production, specifically in comprehending figurative language, the hidden or implied meaning, which even the Narratives task required. Besides, the hardest the task is, the highest the maxims might occur; i.e., patients seem to be unable to follow the maxims or even recognize that they are violated in humor or figurative language. Thus, they do not have the skill nor the mental consciousness that helps them to make a fluent comprehensible speech. Moreover, most patients in most tasks respond according to their understanding and to what they have in their mind, not according to the presented question or the context in which they occur.

Conclusion
Investigating the pragmatic performance of a sample of Iraqi Patients diagnosed with schizophrenia based on the APACS pragmatic tasks revealed their impaired performance in all tasks along with violations of Gricean maxims, albeit to varying degrees. As far as the production and comprehension performance is concerned, the results concluded that the patients' performance in comprehension tasks was significantly worse than that in production and that variables of education and age in contrast to gender positively affected their degree of performance. That is to say, the higher a patient's education level is and being older, the better his/her comprehension performance would be, and the fewer violations might occur, and vice versa.

Finally, despite its limits, the findings of this study have several implications in that they might help linguists, clinicians, and psychologists to work together to improve their understanding of the types of pragmatic abilities and their breakdowns. They can also contribute to the development of rehabilitation strategies and programs in schizophrenia that might enhance patients' communicative performance. Hence, conducting further research on this topic from other perspectives can be recommended.
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References


**Appendix A.** List of Arabic symbols and their equivalences in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic symbols</th>
<th>English equivalence</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
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Appendix B. APACS test materials

Task 1: Interview

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<th>Linguistic communicative difficulties</th>
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<td><strong>Speech</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Incomplete utterances</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Informativeness</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Difficulty in answering yes/no questions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Over-informativeness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Under-informativeness</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Information flow</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misuse of cohesive ties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing referents</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wrong order of elements</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paralinguistic communicative difficulties</th>
<th>score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impaired intonation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Altered speech speed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Loss of eye-contact</td>
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<td>Fixed facial expression</td>
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<td>Abuse of gesture</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other communicative difficulties</th>
<th>score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Errors in grammar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Errors in vocabulary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Semantic paraphasia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Phonemic paraphasia</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>circumlocutions</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Task 2: Description

(1)
Pragmatic Deficits in Iraqi Patients with Schizophrenia: A Descriptive Study
Abbass & Mustafa
Task 3: Narratives

1. The Parliamentary Legal Committee confirmed that it is about to pass a law under which each family can get a residential plot of land. It stated that this step differs from the residency initiative lately suggested by Prime Minister Adil Abdul-Mahdi. The Committee also drew attention that this law would see the light before the end of the current legislative term. One of the members of the Legal Committee . . . mentioned that "this suggestion would solve many residential and social problems, and it would be valid before the end of this term."

Score

a. Suggest a title for the story.
b. Is the law of granting land plots ratified?
c. Is this law similar to the suggestion of the residency initiative announced by the Prime Minister?
d. What does the sentence 'the Committee drew attention' mean?
e. What does the sentence 'the law would see the light' mean?

2. Although the General Directorate of Traffic and the offices concerned made specific procedures such as opening closed streets, and forwarding and delaying the working hours in some offices,
universities, and colleges, it could not reduce traffic jams' intensity caused by random importation of vehicles from the neighboring countries that made Iraq an area of out-of-date vehicles.

Score

a. Suggest a title for the story.
b. Is the number of vehicles increasing?
c. Did the directorate make procedures to reduce traffic jams' intensity?
d. What does 'reduce traffic jams' intensity' mean?
e. What does 'made Iraq an area of out-of-date vehicles' mean?

3. The curtains were brought down at the successful end of "Al-Nahj" fifth cinematographic festival activities. The activities were rounded off in the hall of Visitors City in Holy Karbala province. Zahra Ridha Zada, an Azerbaijani director, ravished the best narrative film reward for her film 'The Winged Miracle'. And Suroor Abdullah, an Iraqi Kurdish director, reaped the first documentary film reward for his work 'Facing the Barbed Wires.'

Score

a. Suggest a title for the story.
b. Was the festival made in Baghdad?
c. Were there non-Iraqi participants?
d. What does 'the curtains were brought down at the end of the festival activities' mean?
e. What does 'the director ravished the best narrative film reward' mean?

4. Hanaa Mohammed, an artist, is preparing for the second part of the "Vacation Days" series. This work gathers her with Mohammed Hussein Abdul-Raheem, an artist, and is hopefully shown on Al-Iraqia channel on next Ramadan along with a short-term role in "The Hotel" series that she will participate in with Sami Qaftan, an artist. Hanaa Mohammed has recently been a guest in Babylon province, where Ishtar Women Cultural Club invited her.

Score

a. Suggest a title for the story.
b. Is Hanaa Mohammed an actress?
c. Will the series be shown after Ramadan?
d. What does 'short-term role' mean?
e. What does 'she has been a guest in Babylon province' mean?

5. Baghdad is known for its big clocks with high towers that are parallel to the lighthouses in the Ottoman reign. Al-Qishla is one of the archaeological clocks whose history has to do with the military barrack and the Sarai Government Building. It is still standing and present before our eyes up to now.

Score

a. Suggest a title for the story.
b. Is Al-Qishla clock located in Baghdad?
c. Is Al-Qishla a new or an old clock?
d. What does 'the history of the clock has to do with the military barrack' mean?
e. What does 'the clock is still standing before our eyes' mean?
6. The Ministry of Youth and Sports carries out some of the ambitious projects to promote athletic programs in Iraq. One of the most vital projects is establishing athletic schools specialized in different games. Their task is to discover, develop, train, and qualify the talents according to the advanced scientific methods that aim at supplying our clubs and stadiums with stars. The project started with thirteen schools supervised by an elite of the best professors and international sports stars.

Score

a. Suggest a title for the story.
b. Is the Ministry of Defense the executor?
c. Did the project start with thirteen schools?
d. What does 'to promote the athletic programs' mean?
e. What does 'an elite of the best professors' mean?

Task 4: Figurative Language 1

Idiomatic expressions

1. He told me the story from A to Z.
   a. From the beginning of the story to its end.
   b. The alphabet letters.
   c. Reading is joyful.

2. Son of Adam.
   a. A good and respectable person.
   b. Son of Prophet Adam (PBUH).
   c. Son of another city.

3. A war of nerves.
   a. There are anxiety and nervousness.
   b. War of nerves is one of the types of wars.
   c. Nerves are of different kinds.

4. His hand is long.
   a. He is a thief.
   b. His hand is very long.
   c. He has hands and feet.

5. He plays with fire.
   a. He risks with something.
   b. He considers fire as a game.
   c. Winter is cold.

Metaphors

1. Faith may budge a mountain.
   a. Faith removes worries and troubles.
   b. Faith can move mountains from their places.
   c. Faith is human innateness.

2. Fortune's wheel never stops.
   a. Fortune's wheel refers to life positivity that shows up from time to time.
   b. Fortune's wheel goes nonstop.
   c. Fortune's wheel is massive.

3. A good tongue is a good weapon.
   a. Man can defend himself by his excellent speech.
   b. Man can kill people with his tongue.
   c. Man likes using weapons.
4. Hatred is blind, as well as love.
   a. We see only negatives when we hate, and positives when we love.
   b. Hatred and love are blind.
   c. Hatred and love are not alike.
5. Heaven helps those who help themselves.
   a. God helps the hard worker, not the lazy.
   b. Heaven is just like humans; it can help others.
   c. Heaven is blue.

Proverbs

1. An accidental meeting may be better than a fixed date.
   a. A pleasant, unexpected, and unplanned surprise.
   b. Meeting by coincidence may be better than an intended meeting.
   c. Let us meet after a thousand dates.
2. All roads lead to Rome.
   a. All the means, whether easy or difficult, lead to one result.
   b. Any open road will lead you to Rome.
   c. Let's go to Rome.
3. All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.
   a. Do not work all the time, have a rest for a while so that you don’t get bored.
   b. Set the time, an hour for work, and another for play.
   c. You should always wear a watch.
4. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
   a. Seize the available chance, and do not wait for an opportunity that may not come.
   b. The bird that you are holding now is better than the birds that are not in your hands.
   c. The bird in your hand is white.
5. Haste brings regret; patience brings safety.
   a. Be patient, and do not haste in anything so that you don’t regret it.
   b. Don’t drive fast.
   c. This machine works slowly.

Task 5: Humor

1. A doctor made a terrible mistake and left a sponge inside the patient after surgery. There were no side effects, except the patient was always:
   a. Thirsty.
   b. Queasy.
   c. Sleepy.
2. Teacher: 'If you had 17 dollars and you asked your father for two more, how many dollars would you have?'
   Student: 'Seventeen.'
   Teacher: 'You don't know arithmetic very well.'
   Student: 'You don't know my father!'
   b. 'On the contrary, I'm good at Mathematics.'
   c. 'I'm tired.'
3. A mother takes her seven-year-old son to the doctor. The boy says, 'It hurts when I press here (pressing his side), and here (his other side), and here (pressing his leg), and here, here and here (pressing his other leg and arms). The doctor examined him and finally discovered that he had a broken:
   a. Finger.
   b. Body.
   c. Hair.
4. Timmy: 'Teacher, would you punish me for something I didn’t do?'
   Teacher: 'Of course not.'
   Timmy: 'Good, because:
a. I didn't do my homework.’
  b. I am lazy.’
  c. I forgot to have my breakfast.’

5. **Teacher:** 'Didn't you promise to behave well?'
   **Student:** 'Yes, ma'am.'
   **Teacher:** 'And didn't I promise to punish you if you didn't?'
   **Student:**
   a. 'Yes ma'am. But since I didn't keep my promise, I don't expect you to keep yours.'
   b. 'Forgive me, from now on; I will behave well.'
   c. 'I'm eight years old.'

6. **Two women are talking. Do you ever wake up grouchy?’**
   a. 'No, I usually let him sleep.'
   b. 'No, I always wake up happy.'
   c. 'No, I will travel tomorrow.'

7. **Did you hear that NASA has established a new restaurant on the moon?**
   It has excellent food and low prices, but no:
   a. Atmosphere.
   b. Gravity.
   c. Mirror.

**Task 6: Figurative Language 2**

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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Idiomatic expressions</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Take into account</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>For each period is a book revealed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>His hand is clean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Crocodile tears</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The Lion's share</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Metaphors</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A good book is a great friend</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fear gives wings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Angels have pens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A guest is the captive of the host</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hide not your light under a bushel</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Proverbs</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>As you sow, so shall you reap</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do not judge a book by its cover</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Patience is a key to relief</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Like father, like son</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Defer not till tomorrow what may be done today</td>
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Examining the Effect of Listening Strategy Instruction on EFL Iraqi learners’ Listening Anxiety

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Abstract
The present study examined the effect of process-based listening strategy instruction on decreasing the learners’ listening anxiety level, and the relationship between listening anxiety (LA) and listening comprehension (LC). The participants consisted of sixty sophomore Iraqi learners who were studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the Department of English at the University of Kufa, Iraq. They were divided into experimental (n=30) and control (n=30) groups. The experimental group received explicit, and integrated listening strategies instruction based on Siegel’s model of process-based listening strategy instruction (2015). The control group received the conventional teaching of listening without receiving any training in strategy process-based instruction over a semester (ten weeks). A modified version of the Foreign Language listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) developed by Elkhaifaifi (2005) was taken by the participants once before and once after the intervention to measure their LA. The listening section of the Preliminary English Test (PET) used to measure the learners’ LC before and after the intervention. Findings showed that listening strategy instruction could decrease learners’ LA. Furthermore, a negative relationship found between LA and LC. The paper concluded with some useful pedagogical implications, and suggestions for further research are discussed based on the findings for researchers, teachers, and educators within the constraints of the Iraqi context.

Keywords: Conventional teaching, EFL Iraqi learners, listening anxiety, listening comprehension, listening strategies, listening strategy instruction, process-based

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/elt2.4
Introduction

Language acquisition happens when learners provide with comprehensible input. Input must be linguistically and cognitively appropriate to the learners’ language proficiency level (Krashen, 1982; Vandergrift, 2003). For increasing the comprehensibility of the texts, direct and explicit instruction of the processes and strategies underlying the listening skill is beneficial (Vandergrift & Cross, 2018). Therefore, listening strategy instruction is of much importance as it increases learners’ awareness of the strategies they can utilize to comprehend texts (Graham & Santos, 2015; Siegel, 2015).

With no optimal model to teach listening and no training course for teachers of language, listening is felt to be a difficult skill to teach and hard to learn by learners (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Teachers have to make immediate decisions about their method of instruction of listening and modify it from one context to another (Graham & Santos, 2015). This view is supported by Siegel (2015), who notes that “This lack of understanding and attention likely applies to learners and teachers alike.” (p. 236).

There have been few research studies in the literature of language learning strategies to date that have explored the effect of listening strategy instruction on LA (Zhang, 2013). The present study aims to fulfill this gap by considering the impact of a listening strategy instruction course on Iraqi learners’ LA. Although few research studies examining the relationship between Listening Comprehension (LC) and LA in different learning contexts (Chow et al., 2017; Golchi, 2012), no study has examined this relationship in the Iraqi context. Therefore, more studies are needed to address the relationship between LA and LC. Thus, the present study addresses how process-based listening strategy instruction can decrease the LA level of Iraqi EFL sophomore at low-intermediate level English major learners. It also examines the relationship between LA and LC. Examining this relationship could provide language teachers with insights into what learners are doing when performing a listening task. Also, the results of the present study will add to the growing body of research on listening strategy instruction, particularly in the Iraqi context.

Listening Strategies Framework

Listening is an active skill in which a listener is actively engaged in the construction of meaning. Listening is vital since it is one of the primary sources of second language input for learners. Based on the premise that comprehensible input acts as a facilitator in the language acquisition (Krashen, 1985), listening instruction has become an essential component of language teaching methods such as Communicative Language Teaching and Strategy-based Approach (Graham & Santos, 2015). There are two pedagogical approaches to teaching listening: listening to learn (product-based pedagogy) and learning to listen (process-based pedagogy). In listening to learn pedagogy, learners listen to the listening text multiple times. Then they are asked to answer the follow-up (or during) questions to enable teachers to know how well learners have comprehended the oral text. This type of teaching focuses on testing learners’ LC ability; its advocates argue that listening is a passive skill and consider it easy to pick-up due to similarities it shares with learners’ native language (Flowerdew & Miller, 2010). The second approach, learning to listen, aims to help listeners obtain awareness of the strategies and processes involved in comprehending the oral texts. Teaching listening as a process rather than a product helps Foreign Language (FL) listeners regulate their learning and therefore increases their awareness of the strategies needed for
comprehension (Graham & Santos, 2015). Focusing on listening as a process rather than a product also reduces learners’ anxiety because they can use different strategies to compensate for the gaps in their comprehension (Vandergrift & Cross, 2018).

A shift from a product-based approach to a process-based approach necessitates explicit or implicit instruction of listening strategies. Researchers (e.g., Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) argue that good language learners use a more extensive, more comprehensive, more full range of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) compared to the less successful learners. It suggests the possibility of utilizing these strategies to raise learners’ awareness of their thinking and learning process. Stern (1975) listed ten LLS, which describe the characteristics of good language learners. Descriptive and correlational inquiry of strategies and factors affecting the choice of strategies (e.g., age, gender, learning style, personality trait, motivation, learning context, and language proficiency) form the foundation of the theoretical background of LLS.

Different classifications of LLS proposed by Rubin (1975, 1981), O’Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990) and Vandergrift (1997) reflect the disagreement among researchers on the definition and classification of strategies. This disagreement is echoed by Stern (1992) when he refers to “a certain arbitrariness in the classification of learning strategies” (p. 264). Oxford (1990) also argues that “there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are, how many strategies exist, how they should be defined, demarcated and categorized” (p. 17). Models of LLS also differ due to the nature of research in terms of the following three aspects. First, the design of the strategy instruction can be either explicit or implicit (Chamot, 2004). In explicit instruction called ‘strategy-based instruction’ (Cohen & Weaver, 2006), the teacher informs the students about the aims of teaching strategies. The teacher presents the strategy in groups and models them so that the students become aware of their thinking and learning process. In implicit instruction, which is called ‘Self-regulated strategy instruction’ by Oxford (1990), the teacher embeds strategies in lesson activities without explaining them (Chamot, 2004).

Second, they differ regarding the language of instruction. Whether the guidance should conduct in learners’ first language (L1) or an FL is a matter of controversy (Graham & Santos, 2015). Since the aim is to discuss the strategies and evaluate them, learners may use their first language. The low proficiency level and commonality of L1 use among learners are two reasons for learners’ L1 in listening strategy instruction.

The third difference concerns whether instruction should be integrated into the listening activities or offered separately (Graham & Santos, 2015). Incorporating strategies into the lesson plan of listening course is more beneficial because it can help learners raise their metacognitive awareness about the procedures, directly evaluate the strategies used in activities, and eventually facilitate LC (Rubin et al., 2007). If listening instruction is not being part of teaching, listening activities will primarily use for providing vocabulary or background knowledge for subsequent tasks such as writing or speaking (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). In this case, listening activities use to serve other skills rather than themselves. Therefore, integrated instruction is a more preferable to help the listening lesson than offered separately in programs to teach strategies. Strategies explained within the lesson plan of the existing textbook can make students more aware of the strategies and could be transferred to similar tasks or situations (Siegel, 2015).
Theoretical Perspective of Listening Anxiety

Psychologically, anxiety is as a personal feeling of unease or fear towards certain situations (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012), which may impede or interfere negatively with learners’ input, processes, or performance in academic circumstances (Krashen, 1982). FL learners have reported many sources of comprehension anxiety problems such as listening input that can hinder comprehension (Vogely, 1998). Most of the LA problems stem from the characteristics of oral input data. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) defined anxiety as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system” (p. 125). They developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to identify learners with debilitating anxiety in the FL classroom. The scale consists of 33 items that reflect communicative apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation in the FL classroom (Horwitz et al., 1986). Drawing on these three conceptual anxiety dimensions, Horwitz et al. (1986) defined FL anxiety as a “distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128).

More definite shreds of evidence of language skill-specific anxiety reported concerning LC. Vogely (1998) identified the sources of LC anxiety and the solutions for them in a university-level Spanish course. She stated that LC anxiety could influence speech production directly since anxious listeners find it difficult to comprehend what said in the FL. The sources of LC anxiety put into four general categories, namely: a) characteristics of the LC input, processing-related factors to aspects of FL, b) anxiety associated with FL instructional factors, c) FL anxiety associated with learners, and d) teachers’ characteristics. Vogely asserted that 81% of LC anxiety sources are related to two factors. The first factor is the nature of language input (i.e., lack of clarity, lack of visual supports, and repetition of input data). The second factor is the processes associated with LC (e.g., inappropriate use of strategies, lack of time to process, lack of rules to study LC., and the lack of ability to check answers).

The first study differentiated general FL learning anxiety from FLLA, and examined the effect of general FL learning anxiety on learners’ achievement in Arabic course and their LC conducted by Elkhafaifi (2005). The participants were (n=233) Arabic learners from 10 US universities who completed an adapted version of (FLCAS) and Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) adopted from the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) developed by Saito, Garza, Horwitz. (1999). The results found that FL learning anxiety and LA were separate, but related measures; both correlated negatively with learners’ achievements. Learners with higher LA or classroom anxiety levels had lower LC levels (Elkhafaifi, 2005).

In a similar study, the relationship between self-efficacy and anxiety and their relation to reading and listening proficiency investigated by Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2006). They used a modified version of Betz’s (1978) Mathematics Anxiety Scale (MAS) to measure reading and LA. The participants were (n = 95) learners enrolled in third and fourth semesters French courses. Significant gender differences reported about self-efficacy and LA. The results showed that there was a negative relationship between listening self-efficacy and LA. Similarly, a negative correlation between LA and listening proficiency reported by the researcher.
In another study, Bekleyen (2009) aimed at finding out the relationship between the FL Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS), and listening achievement levels. The Participants are 71 first-year students majoring in English language teaching at a University in Turkey who took Kim’s FLCAS and FLLAS. The results indicated that FLCAS had a moderate positive correlation with FLLAS, suggesting that participants with higher levels of FL classroom anxiety tended to have a higher level of FLLAS. A negative correlation appeared between FLLAS and FLCAS with the participants’ listening achievement, suggesting that participants with high LA or language classroom anxiety levels tentatively attained lower final grades in the listening course.

In a longitudinal study, Zhang (2013) investigated the causal relationship between LA level and listening performance. In this study, Elkhafaifi’s (2005) FLLAS divided into the following three dimensions using principal component analysis: LA, self-belief of listening skill, and listening skill. Next, structural equation modeling (SEM) used to measure a possible relationship between LA and listening performance. The participants were 300 freshmen English learners in China. First, they complete an online survey of the FLLAS, and then they were asked to complete the IELTS listening test twice during the study. The results indicated that FLLA was a situation-specific and differed from FL classroom anxiety. He also provided a piece of statistical evidence that FL anxiety could be a cause of poor performance. He states that IELTS scores cannot have a systematic effect on the FLLA.

To measure the relationship between the Second Language (L2) LA and a range of tasks, listener characteristics (such as working memory), and LA, many of university graduates and postgraduates (n=93) in the United Kingdom participated in Brunfaut and Revesz’s study (2015). An adapted version of Elkhafaifi’s (2005) FLLAS was used to measure their LA. The findings suggested that LA levels correlate negatively with listening performance.

In a more recent study by Chow, Chiu, and Wong (2017), the relationships between EFL learning motivation, EFL language strategies, and EFL performance with FL reading and LA examined. The participants were (n=306) Chinese undergraduate students, and their LA level is measured using Elkhafaifi’s FLLAS (2005). Highly anxious students exhibit lower levels of listening and reading performance. Language performance indirectly affected their reading and LA through the mediation of EFL learning motivation.

Drawing on the literature review on LA, there is a general argument that LA correlates negatively with LC in different contexts. Besides, the effect of listening strategy instruction on reducing LA is not adequately address in various settings. There have been very few studies in the literature of language learning strategies to date that have explored the effect of listening strategy instruction on reducing LA. Thus, the present study aims to examine the impact of a listening strategy instruction course on Iraqi learners’ LA and explore the relationship between LC and LA in different learning contexts (Golchi, 2012). Therefore, the present study addresses the following questions:

1) Does a listening strategy instruction have a significant effect on decreasing learners’ listening anxiety?
2) Is there any relationship between the learners’ listening anxiety and their listening comprehension?
Method

Participants
The participants of this study consisted of (n=60) sophomore Iraqi EFL learners, between the ages of 19 and 20, studying English in the College of Education at the University of Kufa, Iraq. They were all native speakers of Arabic and had learned English at previous primary and secondary schools for nine years with the same English experiences. All of them had passed a compulsory course for one year in listening and speaking in their Freshman Year. Their English proficiency levels assessed through the Preliminary English Test (PET). Their listening proficiency level appeared to extend from Basic User (Level A2) to Low-intermediate level (Level B1) in accord with the Common European Framework of References levels (CEFR) (Cambridge English, 2019).

Instruments
Two instruments used to measure learners’ LC and LA before and after the strategy instruction. The first instrument was the listening section of the PET to measure the listening proficiency level of both groups at pre-test, and post-test phases. Preliminary English Test listening part selected from Cambridge Preliminary English Test (Cambridge Preliminary, 2008) used during the pilot, pre-test, and post-test phases. The test consisted of four parts and 25 questions. Each item carried one mark. Before Listening to tracks, participants provided with an illustrative example. Then, they listened to seven short neutral or informal monologues or dialogues accompanied by illustrative pictures. This part had three-option multiple-choice items for each section. In the second part, there were six long monologues followed by six three-option multiple-choice questions. In the third part, learners listened to a long monologue and filled the six gaps with one or two words from the track. In part four, learners selected the right answers for six items by deciding if the statement is correct or incorrect. Learners asked to circle the correct answers on the answer sheet and write two or three words from the track. Learners listened to each part twice and completed the test in about 35 minutes.

The second instrument used for examining the LA level of the participants was a modified version of the Foreign Language listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS), developed by Elkhafaifi (2005). It was administered to the participants to measure their degree of LA before and after the intervention. This questionnaire administered immediately after the completion of the listening test. It consisted of 20 items on a Likert Scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Learners’ scores on the scale could vary between 20 (the lowest degree of LA) to 100 (the highest degree of LA). Three items (12, 13, and 18) were reverse scoring. This questionnaire displayed high internal consistency in previous research studies (Brunfaut & Reveész, 2015; Chow, Chiu & Wong, 2017; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Zhang, 2013). Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the FLLAS in the present study was equal to (0.80).

Procedures
Before the beginning of the listening strategy instruction course, the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) and the Preliminary English Test (PET) piloted with (60) sophomore volunteers who were similar to the participants of the main study in terms of proficiency and language learning experience. The results of the pilot study indicated that their language proficiency level was low-intermediate according to the CEFR levels; therefore, the PET listening part was considered suitable for measuring their listening proficiency. A modified FLLAS was
developed based on the feedback of the learners concerning the difficulty of word meanings; difficult words were replaced by more accessible synonyms to facilitate their comprehension of the questionnaire (Appendix 1).

The listening part of the PET used to homogenize learners in terms of LC. Learners were randomly assigned to two groups (Group A and Group B) by the Department administration. Group A received explicit instruction in listening strategies (henceforth called the experimental group), and Group B received the conventional education on listening without any explicit teaching of strategies (henceforth called the control group). Both groups were taught by the researcher to ensure the control of the contribution of the teacher variable.

Intervention course lasted for ten sessions, held once a week for about an hour. The experimental group explicitly taught cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies. The listening strategies taught were planning, monitoring, focussing attention, evaluation, prediction, interference, elaboration, listening for gist, listening for details, phoneme discrimination, and word segmentation. These strategies taught in an orchestrated manner and elicited from the listening texts of the coursebook ‘Real Listening and Speaking 3’ by Graven (2008). This book was used as a coursebook to teach LC and to introduce and practice listening strategies. Strategies trained according to the following plan:

1. The teacher introduced the topic, and the type of listening text with words expected to hear during the lesson. Learners asked to view the pictures in their books before listening. The teacher reviewed the strategies from previous lessons before introducing the new ones. Reviewing strategies helped in raising the learners’ awareness of their past experiences about similar topics, making them focus on specific information while listening, and activating their schemata before listening.

2. The teacher sample performed a think-aloud for the learners; he explained his thinking processes before approaching a listening text and during listening. He first focused on top-down strategies used and then introduced bottom-up strategies. The teacher modeled the cognitive processes by playing the audio text in short pieces. This process would set a model for students to emulate by describing how they could prepare for the processing of the input and monitoring of their processing progress. Also, it could draw learners’ attention to how phonemes’ segmentations, the parsing of the words, and the intonation of the sentences.

3. Strategies explicitly named and reviewed with useful examples taken from the text and then combined with other strategies to be recycled in new listening texts and with different tasks. The recycling helped learners to transfer the strategies covered during the course to new listening events, encouraging strategy retention for future use, and promoting strategies coordination. Recycling of strategies accomplished by providing the learners with a different text from the same genre in which they could recycle the strategies (Siegel, 2015).

4. Learners asked to apply the same strategies while listening to another text with the same topic; this provided an opportunity for them to practice strategies they had just learned. Before attending to listening, they told to note down their expectations of what they might be listening to and how
they could monitor their comprehension. After the first listening, they looked at a few questions and tried to think of possible answers before listening again to the same audio. Thinking of possible answers could enable them to focus on what was needed and set a plan to follow while listening.

5. Learners reflected on their learning and practice of the strategies. They asked to keep a diary to reflect on the successful and unsuccessful strategies use. The researcher gave Hand-outs of the taught strategies to them for review purposes.

6. Learners received short listening tasks as homework. They provided with a coursebook, *NorthStar3 Listening and Speaking* (Solórzano & Schmidt, 2009), to practice what they had learned in the class.

The control group received the standard conventional procedure for teaching listening texts, usually called Listen-Answer-Check (Vandergrift, 2004). Learners listened to many listening texts, followed with LC questions, and answered the comprehension questions. After that, the teacher shared the correct answer with the students. The same procedure repeated in different texts. No explicit strategy instruction, whether direct or indirect, delivered to this group.

### Results and Discussion
First, the mean scores for both groups at the pre-test compared using Independent Samples t-test to ensure that participants were similar at the outset of the study. No statistically significant difference found between the groups at the pre-test phase, indicating that the two groups were at similar levels of LA. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for both groups at pre-test and post-test phases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>M</strong></td>
<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td><strong>M</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>68.73</td>
<td>7.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>68.26</td>
<td>6.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To address the first question, regarding the effect of listening strategy instruction on decreasing learners’ LA, the mean scores of the experimental and control group at pre-test and post-test compared. The descriptive statistics indicate that the LA of the learners in the experimental group decreased after the intervention, while no significant change perceived in the anxiety level of participants in the control group, suggesting that the conventional teaching of listening is not effective in reducing the LA. The results of the independent samples t-test for both groups in Table 2 indicate that while there was no significant difference between the LA of both groups in the pre-test (*t*= .025, *P*=.79), in the post-test the difference between the two groups was significant. This difference points to the effect of instruction.
Table 2

**Independent-Samples t-test comparing both Groups in the Pretest and Posttest**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest of FLLAS</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest of FLLAS</td>
<td>-2.42</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 presents the results of the Paired Samples t-test for the experimental group before and after the intervention. A significant decrease in the anxiety level of learners in the experimental group after the strategy instruction implies that listening strategy instruction was effective in decreasing learners’ LA levels.

Table 3

**Paired Samples t-test for the Experimental Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre and Post-test</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient used to examine the relationship between the learners’ LA level and their LC in the experimental group. The results pointed to a negative correlation between the overall LA and LC ($r = -0.550$) suggesting that LA could negatively affect LC (Appendix 2).

The negative relationship between LA and LC in the present study can lend support to the findings of previous studies concerning negative correlation between LC and LA (e.g., Elkhafafi, 2004; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Bekleyen, 2009; Zhang, 2013; Brunfaut & Revesz, 2015, and Chow, Chiu & Wong, 2017). This negative relationship was a good indication that a decrease in anxiety level could increase learners’ LC. Low LA among learners enables them to perform better on the PET Listening part.

**Conclusions**

This study investigated the effect of listening strategy instruction on the Iraqi EFL learners’ LA level and examined the relationship between the learners’ listening performance and LA level. Concerning the effect of listening strategy instruction on decreasing the learners’ LA, the findings revealed that listening strategy instruction had a positive impact on reducing learners’ FLLAS of the experimental group. This finding could expand the current understanding of the Iraqi listening instructors on how to measure and find solutions to the learners’ LA.

The results indicated that there is a close connection between listening and anxiety in an FL, and the level of anxiety changes depending on different internal or/ and external factors such as language proficiency or emotional reaction to language learning. The teacher’s role is to keep
learners’ LA at a low to a moderate level to allow them to focus on the process of listening and increase their attention.

The results revealed a negative correlation between LC and LA, suggesting that learners with a higher level of LA tend to have lower levels of LC. Therefore, teachers should help learners feel more relaxed during listening; this relaxing-decreased setting achieved through different means, such as familiarizing them with listening strategies. The present study suggested that listening strategy instruction reduces the anxiety of Iraqi learners. There are some limitations to the current study. First, in this study, learners were not assigned to the control or the experimental group randomly. The university policy would allow the researcher to teach and test LC only if the classes remained intact. Second, there was no delayed post-test to examine if the effects of listening strategy instruction could remain constant in decreasing LA. Finally, further studies can observe the impact of other listening strategy instruction models on LC and LA of learners at different levels of language proficiency.

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References


**Appendix A: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS)**

Statements (1) through (20) describe how you feel about listening to English. Please indicate whether you (1) Strongly Disagree (SD), (2) Disagree (D), (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree (N), (4) Agree (A), or (5) Strongly Agree (SA). Please read each statement carefully, give your first reaction to each statement. Circle the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I get upset when I’m not sure whether I understand what I’m hearing in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When I listen to English, I often understand the words but still can’t quite understand what the speaker is saying.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When I’m listening to English, I get so confused I can’t remember what I’ve heard.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I feel <strong>intimidated</strong> (afraid) whenever I have a listening passage in English to listen to.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am nervous when I am listening to a passage in English when I’m not familiar with the topic.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. I get upset whenever I hear unknown grammar while listening to English.  
7. When listening to English I get nervous and confused when I don’t understand every word.  
8. It bothers (annoys) me to encounter (meet) words I can’t pronounce while listening to English.  
9. I usually end up translating word by word when I’m listening to English.  
10. By the time you get past the strange sounds in English, it’s hard to remember what you’re listening to.  
11. I am worried about all the new sounds you have to learn to understand spoken English.  
12. I enjoy listening to English.*  
13. I feel confident (assured) when I am listening to English.*  
14. Once you get used to it, listening to English is not so difficult.  
15. The hardest part of learning English is learning to understand spoken English.  
16. I would be happy just to learn to read English rather than having to learn to understand spoken English.  
17. I don’t mind listening to English by myself but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to listen to English in a group.  
18. I am satisfied (pleased) with the level of listening comprehension in English that I have achieved so far.*  
19. English culture and ideas seem very foreign to me.  
20. You have to know so much about English history and culture in order to understand spoken English.

* Items were reverse scoring.

Appendix 2: FLLAS items with numbers and percentages of learners who selected each alternative (n = 60).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I'm hearing in English.</td>
<td>2/3.3</td>
<td>4/6.7</td>
<td>9/15</td>
<td>15/25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When I listen to English, I often understand the words but still can't quite understand what the speaker is saying.</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>7/11.7</td>
<td>15/25</td>
<td>18/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When I'm listening to English, I get so confused I can't remember what I've heard</td>
<td>2/3.3</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
<td>15/25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I feel intimidated whenever I have a listening passage in English to listen to.</td>
<td>7/11.7</td>
<td>15/25</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am nervous when I am listening to a passage in English when I'm not familiar with the topic.</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>6/10</td>
<td>11/18.3</td>
<td>22/36.6</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I get upset whenever I hear unknown grammar while listening to English.</td>
<td>4/6.7</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>13/21.7</td>
<td>18/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. When listening to English I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word.</td>
<td>4/6.7</td>
<td>7/11.7</td>
<td>11/18.3</td>
<td>11/18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. It bothers me to encounter words I can't pronounce while listening to English.</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>6/10</td>
<td>16/26.6</td>
<td>20/33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I usually end up translating word by word when I'm listening to English.</td>
<td>7/11.7</td>
<td>15/25</td>
<td>12/20</td>
<td>18/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. By the time you get past the strange sounds in English, it's hard to remember what you're listening to.</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>5/8.3</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I am worried about all the new sounds you have to learn to understand spoken English.</td>
<td>5/8.3</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>13/21.7</td>
<td>21/35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I enjoy listening to English.</td>
<td>19/31.6</td>
<td>20/33.3</td>
<td>11/18.3</td>
<td>6/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I feel confident when I am listening to English.</td>
<td>11/18.3</td>
<td>16/26.6</td>
<td>16/26.6</td>
<td>10/16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Once you get used to it, listening to English is not so difficult.</td>
<td>4/6.7</td>
<td>14/23.3</td>
<td>15/25</td>
<td>22/36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The hardest part of learning English is learning to understand spoken English.</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>21/25</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I would be happy just to learn to read English rather than having to learn to understand spoken English.</td>
<td>7/11.7</td>
<td>14/23.3</td>
<td>9/15</td>
<td>20/33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I don't mind listening to English by myself but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to listen to English in a group.</td>
<td>1/1.6</td>
<td>15/25</td>
<td>18/30</td>
<td>18/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am satisfied with the level of listening comprehension in English that I have achieved so far.</td>
<td>8/13.3</td>
<td>13/21.7</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
<td>12/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. English culture and ideas seem very foreign to me.</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>12/20</td>
<td>21/35</td>
<td>10/16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. You have to know so much about English history and culture in order to understand spoken English.</td>
<td>9/15.0</td>
<td>7/11.7</td>
<td>17/28.3</td>
<td>18/30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Politeness Strategies and Maxims in English for Islamic texts: A Sociolinguistic Analysis of Quran

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Abstract
This research tackles two chapters from the Holy Quran, the sura of Prophet Yusuf, and the sura of the Cave (al-Kahf) to find out whether the theories of Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987) can be applied to find out the positive and negative politeness strategies and the politeness maxims. The Leech’s model (1983) consists of six maxims, and for Brown and Levinson (1987), consists of two major politeness strategies. It consists of two principles of politeness, where one of them is positive, and the other is negative politeness. This study aims at investigating politeness strategies, and politeness principle linguistically in two Suras from the Holy Quran, how politeness strategies and politeness maxims used within the Holy Quran. This study tries to investigate the image of the main characters in the most sacred book. A qualitative approach is employed to provide interpretations of selected verses. In this paper, we will discuss the politeness strategies, positive and negative politeness strategies, and politeness maxims. The study falls into two parts. It begins briefly to overview the theoretical framework underlying politeness, in particular discussing some definitions of politeness and politeness principle and its maxims, exploring the face theory and its strategies by Brown and Levinson, and how far these strategies affect polite style then, dealing with politeness maxims by Leech. The other part displays a practical application of what has presented theoretically. Also, the researcher examined the politeness strategies, and politeness maxims of two Suras (Yusuf and Al-Kahf). Moreover, the study observed that approximately the majority of negative politeness in two suras then positive politeness, and the last one is politeness maxims.

Keywords: negative politeness, politeness, positive politeness, politeness maxims, the Holy Quran

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1. Introduction

This research motivated a general concern for the study of the politeness strategies, and politeness maxim in two Suras from the Holy Quran. The concept of face, as in losing or saving face, can be seen as a positive social value that one can claim during a particular social interaction (Goffman, 1967). Also, this study inspired the work of Brown and Levinson (1978), and Leech (1983) exploring mainly their distinction between 'positive' and 'negative' politeness and politeness maxims.

According to Brown and Levinson’s (1978) theory of politeness, a face can distinguish two components: positive face and negative face. Positive face occurs when the individual desires to be liked, approved of, respected, and appreciated by others. In contrast, negative face is the individual's desire not to be impeded, and to have the freedom to behave as one chooses (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

Lakoff (1975) proposes that "politeness is developed by societies to reduce friction in personal interaction" (p. 64). Similarly, Leech (1980) defines "tact" as "strategic conflict avoidance," adding that it "can be measured in terms of the degree of effort put into the avoidance of a conflict situation" (p.19). For Holmes (1995), linguistic politeness means “recognizing the autonomy of others and avoiding intrusion (negative politeness), as well as emphasizing connectedness and appreciation (positive politeness)” (p. 24).

Several researchers in the 1970s and 1980s argued that “politeness” was a particular driving force in how people determine language choice and negotiate relational meaning. The previous researchers count the approaches by Lakoff (1973), Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), and Leech (1983) among the early and influential contributions to the study of politeness. Working within a framework of pragmatics in the broad sense—the study of language in use—these researchers argued that there are not only syntactic rules in establishing grammaticality of sentences but also pragmatic rules that determine the appropriateness of language use (Locher, 2012).

Politeness is a commonsense phenomenon that has been dealt with by many scholars, the first of whom is Lakoff. Lakoff (1973) and Eelen (2001) describe Lakoff, is the mother of modern politeness theory because she is the first who has tackled it from a decidedly pragmatic angle. For Lakoff, politeness is “a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange” (Lakoff, 1977, p. 88). Watts (2003) comments that Lakoff’s view of politeness is developed by societies to reduce friction in personal interaction, which leads one to conclude that conflict in personal communication is undesirable. As such, communities develop strategies, that is, politeness, to reduce that friction. Courtesy, thus, ends up as being a set of norms for a cooperative behavior (Mirza, 2017).

1 What is Politeness?

Different definitions are offered for politeness by linguistic researchers. Lakoff (1990, p.34), and Leech (1983, p.82) had defined politeness as “the forms of behavior which facilities personal and social interaction to obtain an atmosphere of harmony between interlocutors via minimizing the inherent inner conflict in all human interactions.” The linguistic modal of...
politeness had been set forward by Brown and Levinson (1987). They had defined politeness as "forms of behavior used to maintain and develop communication between potentially aggressive partners” (p.61). They maintain that positive and negative strategies are employed to minimize threat and to accomplish linguistic politeness (Kadhem, 2008). Mills (2003) hardens the previous definition to define politeness as “the employing of a certain behavior to lessen the imposition between the parties in social interaction” (p. 6). Moreover, Holtgraves and Yang (1992) define politeness as “phrasing one’s remarks to minimize face threat” (p. 246). It can say that Mills and Holtgraves and Yang’s definitions differ from Spencer-Oatey ones in that they concentrate on the negative face rather than on the positive one. Fraser (1990, p. 232) and Watts (2003, p. 20) have a similar viewpoint about politeness. Fraser (1990) claims some obligations and rights, which are considered by the addressee, and the addressee of any conversational contract. These obligations and rights govern the negotiation of that contract. Also, there is always a possibility to renegotiate during the course of time as regards the situational context progressing.

1.2 Research Questions
1) What have positive politeness strategies used in the Suras (Yusuf and Al-Kahf) under investigation based on Brown and Levinson’s theory?
2) What have negative politeness strategies used in the Suras under investigation based on Brown and Levinson’s theory?
3) What have politeness maxims have used in the Suras under investigation based on the Leech’s model?
4) What are politeness strategies used in the discourse of the Holy Qur’an when the Holy prophet is addressed, based on Brown and Levinson’s theory?
5) What are politeness maxims used in the speech of the Holy Qur’an when the Holy prophet is addressed, based on leech’s Model?
6) What are politeness strategies used in the discussion of the Holy Qur’an when humanity, in general, is addressed, based on Brown and Levinson’s theory?
7) What are politeness maxims used in the speech of the Holy Qur’an when humanity, in general, is addressed, based on leech's Model?
8) What are politeness strategies used in the discussion of the Holy Qur’an when men discussed other, based on the Brown and Levinson’ Model?
9) What are politeness maxims used in the discourse of the Holy Qur’an.

2. Literature Review
2.1 Introduction
As a research object in linguistic pragmatics, politeness has stated a rather short history. The desire for the study of courtesy has come from H.P. Grice's seminal paper ‘Logic and conversation' (1975), in which he had suggested a Cooperative Principle, and four maxims underlying transactional discourse ("maximally efficient information exchange"). Grice observed that to account for other aspects of language use, and additional, maxims may be needed, such as a politeness maxim. This suggestion was taken up and elaborated in early reports of linguistic politeness by Lakoff (1973, 1979), Leech (1977, 1983), and Edmondson (1979, 1981). The common denominator of these proposals is that they view politeness in terms of maxims or rules, thus underscoring their conceptual link to the Gricean maxims.
A different approach to politeness was proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978/87), who derive politeness from Goffman’s (1971) notion of face. According to Thomas' view (1995, p.149), impoliteness is the opposite of courtesy in orientation to Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987). To date, this has proven to be the most essential proposal, extremely powerful in its generation of research and controversy. Most theoretical contributions and empirical studies adopt Brown and Levinson's work as a reference point, debating, in particular, the universality of their theory (Östman & Verschueren, 2009, p. 157).

It is having specific worth reminding that the greatest interlanguage pragmatic studies have been used in understanding and inspecting the various speech acts. Consequently, studies on speech acts seemed to be justifiable. A majority of recent studies have been carried out across languages to examine various speech acts: such as complaints by (e.g., Farnia, Buchheit & Binti Salim, 2010), congratulations (e.g., Gomez, 2016), compliment (e.g., Sharifian, 2008), apologies (e.g., Chang, 2018), corrections (e.g., Pishghadam & Norouz Keramanshahi, 2011), suggestions (e.g., Pishghadam & Sharafadinin, 2011), and requests (e.g., Abdolrezapour, & Eslami-Rasekh, 2010).

Regarding the studies on speech acts, Eslami and Fatahi (2004) compared Persian speakers' use of face-saving strategies in reaction to complaints with American English speakers' performance. They discussed them in terms of different cultural concepts.

The study by (Zakaria & Syukri, 2016) is concerned with politeness strategies that were used by male students and male teachers at Pondok Pesantren Salaf Al-Qur’an Sholahul Huda Al-Mujahidin Malang. Male students gave the politeness strategies responses, and male teachers based on the hypothetical situation provided. The sample, five teachers, "male teachers" of Pesantren Salaf Al-Qur’an Sholahul Huda Al-Mujahidin, and 20 students selected as the participants. Additionally, a qualitative approach by giving a questionnaire used as the method of the study. To know the phenomenon, Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness strategies employed in analyzing the data. From the analysis, it figured out that all types of politeness strategies were realized both in students' and teachers' answers. In a formal situation, students 'male students' had been tended to use negative politeness strategy with 40, 58%, whereas male teachers tended to use the off-record politeness strategy with 44, 00%. In an informal situation, still, male students managed to use a negative politeness strategy with 60,14%, while male teachers tended to use a positive politeness strategy with 48,00%. It recognized that there were three social factors of power, social distance, and ranking of imposition that triggered the students and teachers to perform such strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed the theory of these social factors.

In another study on speech acts, Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, and Ongino (1986) examined cross-cultural evidence for a common factor, Discernment, systems of politeness. The authors also propose a complementary operates, volition, differences in the weighting of the two factors afford one way to characterize the sociolinguistic study of requests, for a pen in Japanese and American English provides observed, which they hypothesize factor, in all sociolinguistic speculating that systems of politeness in different languages. The results of the further study suggested practical support for Brown and Levinson's theory and Leech's theory. The review was an empirical investigation of certain aspects of linguistic politeness in Japanese and American English. The
study aimed to find quantitative evidence as a basis for comparing the systems of sociolinguistic courtesy in making requests in the two languages. This study examines the overall policies of courtesy in the two different cultures and identifies the common elements and strategies, as well as to characterize the essential differences.

2.2. Politeness Strategies
According to Brown and Levinson (1978), individual acts may damage or threaten another person's face. Brown and Levinson view politeness primarily as a complex system for softening face-threatening acts (FTAs). However, a "Face-Threatening-Act" (FTA, for short) is one that would make someone possibly loses face, or damages it in some way (Erbert & Floyd, 2004, pp. 325-327). Elen (2001, p.45) argues that politeness and impoliteness are two sides of a coin. Face threatening acts include acts of criticizing, disagreement, interrupting, imposing, asking a favor, requesting information or goods, etc. (Sandberg, 2010, p. 345). Thus, "communication is seen as a fundamentally dangerous and antagonistic endeavor" (Kasper, 1990, p. 194). FTAs can come with four strategies: 1. Do the FTA without redressive action: badly on record. 2. Do the FTA with redressive work: positive politeness. 3. Do the FTA with redressive work: negative politeness. 4. Do the (FTA) off-record. 5. Do not do the FTA "On-record" means directly 'saying something unambiguously,' while "off-record" means expressing it indirectly. It can be interpreted ambiguously as a way to minimize the extent to which the addressee's face would threaten.

On-record FTAs can be committed with redressive action, which is an action that 'gives face' to the addressee, that is, the attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA. According to Khattab (2010) in her thesis mentioned that Brown and Levinson (1976, pp. 106-30) list fifteen positive politeness strategies, which appeal to the hearer's (H's) desire to be liked and approved. Positive Face: “the consistent positive self-image or ‘personality’ (crucially including the hope that this self-image be appreciated and accepted of) claimed by interactants”(Fraser, 2005). The wants of every member that to be desirable to at least some others”. This strategy, in contrast with the bald on-record policy, looks for minimizing the FTAs via viewing the addressee some respect. This strategy tries to reduce the social distance between those who know each other very well like, friends. They involve the following:

Strategy 1: Notice, attend, to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)
Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)
Strategy 3: Intensify interest to H.
Strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers
Strategy 5: Seek agreement
Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement

For Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 66), disputes are positive-face threatening acts because the speaker conveys to the addressee that he or she is wrong, misguided, or unreasonable about an issue, thus revealing a lack of concern for that person’s feelings and, or wants. To redress such threat, Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 112-113) propose the positive politeness strategy “avoid disagreement.” Likewise, Leech (1983) identifies “a tendency to exaggerate agreement with other people, and to mitigate disagreement.”
The common ground includes shared or mutual knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs (Stalnaker, 1978).

Plan 8: Joke
Plan 9: Assert or Pre-suppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants
Plan 10: Offer, Promise
    Plan 11: Be optimistic
    Plan 12: Include both S and H in the activity
Plan 13: Give (or ask for) reasons
Plan 14: Assume or assert reciprocity
Plan 15: Give gifts to the H (goods, sympathy, and understanding cooperation).

In negative politeness strategies, “the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, right to non-distraction – i.e., to freedom of action and freedom from imposition.” The want of every competent adult member that his action is unimpeded by others”. Speaker (S) shows that he respects H's territory and that he does not want to hinder his freedom of action. This strategy displays some social distance between the addresser and the addressee. Like relations between teachers and students, boss and employees, father and son, etc., there is an imposition on the addressee. Brown and Levinson (1978, pp. 106-30) list ten negative politeness strategies:

Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect
The notions of indirectness and politeness show a crucial role in the negotiation of the face during the realization of speech acts, such as requests. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), and Leech (1983), higher levels of indirectness may result in higher levels of politeness.

Strategy 2: Questions, hedge

Strategy 3: Be pessimistic (assume H is unlikely to be willingly/able to do any acts predicated of him)
By being pessimistic, or modest (Gu, 1992) about his expertise, he tried to lower his power and authority over the hearer and reduce the negative face threat to the hearer.

Strategy 4: Minimize the imposition. Brown and Levinson (1987) defined the degree of imposition as “a culturally and situationally defined ranking of impositions by the degree to which they considered to interfere with an agent’s wants of self-determination or of approval (negative and positive face wants)” (p. 77). Holtgraves and Yang (1992) demonstrated a clear and positive relationship between the degree of imposition, and overall politeness of language used.

Strategy 5: Give deference.
According to Scollon and Scollon (1983), deference is in line with negative face, and doing respect is a politeness strategy commonly adopted by interlocutors with asymmetrical power relationships. Usually, people with relatively lower power status are significantly most polite, showing respect for the face of the higher status person.
Strategy 6: Apologies
By apologizing for doing an FTA, the speaker can indicate his reluctance to intrude on H’s negative face and thereby partially redress that impingement.

Meier (1995b), concerned about whether a speech act works as an FTA or a politeness strategy and, if the latter, is a negative or positive strategy, writes: Apologies were categorized by Brown and Levinson as negative politeness strategies, could be seen as requests for exoneration (e.g., please forgive me, please excuse me), and as requests, would threaten H’s face, which would bring their status as politeness strategies into question. Additionally, although the appeal is considered to be FTAs, one could well imagine a context in which they could be a sign of solidarity, this would then qualify them for positive politeness status (Meier, 1995b, p.385).

Strategy 7: Impersonalize S and H Strategy 8: State the FTA as a general rule.

Strategy 9: Nominalize

Strategy 10: Go on record as incurring debt, or as not indebting H A politeness strategy is employed by assessing the 'weightiness' of FTA. The weightiness will calculate by speakers (Ss) from the social variables such as power difference between S and H (P), the perceived social distance between speaker and hearer (D), and ranking of imposition (R). Mainly, the selection of strategy will base on the speaker's evaluation of the size of the FTA. Thus, weightiness can calculate as follows: Wx = D (S, H) + P (S, H) + Rx. Where Wx represents the "weightiness" of FTAx, which estimates the risk of face loss. Wx, in turn, determines the degree of politeness the speaker needs to attend in performing x. The three variables determine the degree of weightiness (W) are: D (S, H), the social distance between the speaker, and the hearer; P (H, S), the relative power of the speaker concerning the hearer, and Rx, the absolute ranking of imposition of an act x in the particular culture in which x performed. Brown and Levinson's D, P, and R factors are comparable to Leech's social distance, authority, and cost-benefit scales, respectively, which determine the type and degree of politeness. Because people tend to act more politely when they have less power and less politely when they have more power, they may make the inference that people whom they observe are also following similar rules. It is possible that the relationships that have found to exist between power and politeness also extend to the relationships between power and interpersonal justice, because politeness and interpersonal justice appear to be overlapping constructs.so, these social variables, distance, power, and ranking of imposition affect the degree of politeness between the interactants.

2.3. Geoffrey Leech’s model of politeness
Research on linguistic politeness came into its own with the publication of Brown and Levinson's study in 1987. Since then, this phenomenon has received widespread scholarly attention. Researchers have approached politeness from different viewpoints, showing it as a means to conflict-avoidance (Leech, 1983), as a distancing and solidarity-building practice (Holmes, 1995; Scollon & Scollon, 1995), or as behavior that expresses positive concern for others (Holmes, 1995). These conceptualizations agree with Brown and Levinson's (1979,1987) notion of politeness as a rational behavior aiming to reduce an imposition or threaten an interlocutor's face(Geyer, 2008).
Brown and Levinson (1987) stated that "all competent adult members of a society" have "face," which is a public self-image. Face comprises two related aspects: negative face (the claim to freedom from imposition) and positive face (an interactant's positive self-image, including the desire to be appreciated). According to the authors, a speaker's face is subject to threats at every point of interaction.

Leech's (1983) approach to politeness also bases on Grice's maxims. His work locates politeness within the broader framework of interpersonal rhetoric, which has tied to social goals (what social position a speaker assumes) rather than illocutionary goals (what a speaker tries to convey through a speech act). Within the domain of interpersonal rhetoric, Leech (1983) founds three groups of maxims, which associated with three principles: (1) the cooperative principle (CP), (2) the politeness principle (PP), and (3) the irony principle (IP).

Next, Leech’s cooperative principle bases on and corresponds to Grice's. He states that the general function of the politeness principle is to "minimize the expression of impolite belief (Leech, 1983, p. 81). Later Leech limits six maxims associated with the politeness principle that is used to explain the relationship between sense and force in daily conversations.

2.3. 1. Politeness Principles
According to Geoffrey Leech (1983), there is a politeness principle with conversational maxims alike to those formulated by (Grice, 1975). He lists six maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy. The first and second form a pair, as do the third and the fourth. These maxims differ from culture to culture: what may be considered polite in one culture may be strange or downright rude in another. As the politeness principles mention below:
The six maxims; Tact maxim, Generosity maxim, Approbation maxim, Modesty maxim, Agreement maxim, and Sympathy maxim, diverge of their value concerning the considerable effect on the situation at hand (Terkourafi, 2001, p. 56).

2.3.1.1. The tact maxim states: “Minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to others; maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to others.” This maxim found in utterances that express the speaker’s intention in future action. Then, they are expressions that influence the hearer to do an activity. The first part of this maxim fits in with Brown and Levinson's negative politeness strategy of minimizing the imposition, and the second part reflects the positive politeness strategy of attending to the hearer's interests, wants, and needs. For example:
Could I interrupt you for a second?
If I could clarify this, then.
Would you hand me that screwdriver? (G. N. Leech, 1980).

2.3.1.2. Generosity maxim states: 'Minimize the expression of beliefs that express or imply benefit to self; maximize the expression of beliefs that express or imply cost to self' (Leech, 1983, p.132). Unlike the tact maxim, the maxim of generosity focuses on the speaker and says that others should be put first instead of the self. For example:
You relax and let me do the dishes.
You must come and have dinner with us.
2.3.1.3. The approbation maxim states: 'Minimize the expression of beliefs which express disdain of others; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of others.' It is preferred to praise others and if this is impossible, to sidestep the issue, to give some minimal response (possibly through the use of euphemisms), or to remain silent. The first part of the maxim avoids disagreement; the second part intends to make other people feel good by showing solidarity. For example:

I heard you singing at the karaoke last night. It sounded like you were enjoying yourself!

Gideon, I know you're a genius – would you know how to solve this math problem here?

2.3.1.4. Maxim of modesty is one of the six maxims proposed by Leech (1983) in his PP (politeness principle) meaning to minimize praise or to maximize the dispraise of self. In the modesty maxim, the participants must reduce appreciation of themselves and maximize the dispraise of themselves. This maxim is similar to the approbation maxim. The approbation maxim, and the modesty maxim concern with the degree of good, or bad evaluation of others, or self, which is uttered by the speaker. The approbation maxim exampled in courtesy of congratulation. On the other hand, the modesty maxim usually occurs in apologies. The sample of the modesty maxim is below. "Please accept this small gift as a prize for your achievement." In this case, the utterance above is categorized as the modesty maxim because the speaker maximizes dispraise of himself. The speaker notices his pronouncement by using a "small gift." The modesty maxim states:

"Minimize the expression of praise of self; maximize the expression of the dispraise of self" (Leech, 1983, p. 132). For example:

Oh, I'm so stupid – I didn't make a note of our lecture! Did you?

2.3.1.5. The agreement maxim runs as follows: 'Minimize the expression of disagreement between self and others; maximize the expression of the agreement between self and others.' It is in line with Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategies of 'seek agreement' and 'avoid disagreement,' to which they attach great importance. However, it doesn’t claim that people avoid disagreement. It observed that they are much more direct in agreeing, rather than argument. For example:

I don't want my daughter to do this; I want her to do that.

Yes, but ma'am, I thought we resolved this already on your last visit.

Consider the following answer for this tag question:
(a) No, they are straightforward topics. (b) Yes, they are. (c) Yes, but pragmatics is very interesting. (a) Displays obvious and direct disagreement with the addresser. While (b) Exhibits agreement with the addressee. The third answer (c) Reflects a partial argument with the addressee. So (b and c) are more polite than (a)

2.3.1.6. The sympathy maxim states: 'minimize antipathy between self and others; maximize sympathy between the self and others (Leech, 1983, pp. 134). The sympathy maxim includes a small group of speech acts such as congratulation, commiseration, and expressing condolences –
all of which is following Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategy of attending to the hearer's interests, wants, and needs. For example, I am sorry to hear about your father. Retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politeness_maxims.

Leech (1983) proposes several scales involved in determining the type and degree of politeness: cost-benefit, optionality, indirectness, authority, and social distance. The complex interrelation between maxims and scales creates the nuances in politeness style and level (G. Brown & Yule, 1983).

Also, Leech (1983) worked on the distinction between relative and absolute politeness. The former means courtesy within a particular setting or culture; the latter discusses to politeness inextricably linked to specific speaker actions. The perfect courtesy indicates that speech acts are intrinsically polite or impolite based on their illocutionary force. Leech stresses the importance of ideal courtesy, affirming that "general pragmatics may reasonably confine its attention to politeness in the absolute sense."

Leech lists four main illocutionary functions, which are competitive, convivial, collaborative, and conflictive, and links them with the types of politeness. For instance, competitive illocution (e.g., ordering), which is undoubtedly impolite, requires mitigation. On the other hand, convivial illocution (e.g., thanking), which is naturally polite, calls for politeness to enhance the positive impact.

The conversational-maxim view of politeness, which is dependent on the Gricean notion of the cooperative principle and its maxims (El-Samir, 2014), offers a frugal (i.e., Lakoff's) and a comprehensive (i.e., Leech's) model of politeness, and gives rules, strategies, maxims, and scales of courtesy. Politeness, never explicitly defined, is treated within the domain of Interpersonal Rhetoric, which contains at least three sets of aphorisms: those falling under the terms of Grice's Cooperative Principle (CP), those associated with a Politeness Principle (PP), and those associated with an Irony Principle (IP). Each of the interpersonal principles has the same status in his pragmatic theory, and associate maxims with the cooperative principles used to explain how an utterance may interpret to convey indirect messages. The politeness principle (PP) with its maxims used to explain why such indirectness might be used (Fraser, 1990).

3. Methodology
3.1 Material
The Glorious Qur’an, which is translated from Arabic to English by Arberry (1955), was chosen to be analyzed. The researcher explains two Suras (Yusuf and Cave).

3.2 Instrumentation
Two models were employed in this study, i.e., Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness and Leech's maxims of courtesy. The researcher in this study was required to read these suras carefully.

3.2.1 Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness
According to (Levinson, Brown, Levinson, & Levinson, 1987), they state their Politeness theory accounts for the redressing of affronts to a person's 'face' by face-threatening acts. The
concept of the face was derivative from Chinese into English in the 19th century. Erving Goffman would then continue to introduce his theories of ‘face’ and ‘facework.’ Though politeness studied in a variety of cultures for many years, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory has come to be very influential. In 1987, Brown and Levinson offered and stated that politeness was a universal concept, which has had some disagreement within academia. Courtesy, in its nature, is the expression of the speakers' intention to mitigate face threats carried by firm face-threatening acts toward the listener, or another definition of politeness that Foley (1997) defined it as "a battery of social skills whose goal is to ensure everyone feels affirmed in social interaction" (p.270). So, politeness is the speaker’s attempt to save his/her face or the face of the person he or she is talking to.

Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness (1978, 1987) is a detailed and large scale work that endeavors to explain and predict polite language behavior in all languages and cultures. It is, therefore, a theory with great importance not only for pragmatics but also for other areas of language study such as cross-cultural understanding, communication, and language education. It has, inevitably, been the subject of considerable controversy amongst international scholars (Brown, 2007).

3.3 Procedures

English data gathered from the Holy Quran, which was translated by Arberry as the representative sample. The selection of verses based on their availability to the researcher, and also, because these suras have different politeness strategies, and maxims. The researcher will read these suras carefully more than one time and begin to extract the verses which contain the politeness strategies, positive and negative strategies based on Brown and Levinson’s theory and extract the politeness maxims based on Leech’s theory. English data gathered from the Holy Quran, which was translated by Arberry and the online Arabic version, which was available on the website. The data collected from two suras (Yusuf and Cave) in the English language and analyzed in qualitative and quantitative methods. The texts were selected and transformed into tables displaying the frequency, percentage, and the tables were analyzed qualitatively.

3.4 Data Analysis

The first procedure for analyzing the data in this study was comparative. The politeness strategies and politeness maxims of the two suras from the Holy Quran, which was translated by Arberry. The frequency and percentage of each strategy, and maxim calculated, and “Maxqda 2018.2” was run to analyze the data, and “endnote X8” was used in citation and references, and the APA style was applied. In the next stage, qualitative and quantitative analyses provided.

Taylor-Powell (2003) asserts that “good analysis depends on understanding the data” (p. 2). The content analysis method was used to analyze the data extracted from the Suras. Data were analyzed in terms of both Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness, and Leech's maxims of politeness. For qualitative analysis, this means the researcher must read and re-read the text more one time. The materials in this study constitute a considerable number of verses (Ayahs) presented in narrative form in the Yusuf’s Surah and Cave Surah. As pointed out earlier in this investigation, the focus is on the politeness strategies, and maxims politeness and their co-occurrence with the selected expressions in written texts, either in a clear, or idiomatic manner. Although the present
study’s results based on a careful investigation of all politeness strategies and politeness maxims in Yusuf, and Cave Suras of the Glorious Qur’an, extracts will be analyzed, discussed, and presented here for illustration.

It is essential to mention that we tried from the very beginning to select our sample in the best possible way from as many texts as possible. Thus, the extracts upon which this study based on collected texts from Yusuf Surah and Cave Surah. These texts organized in such a way as to provide a comprehensive view of both types of relationships (i.e., man-man relationship and God-man relationship).

They selected for the following reasons: (a) they have as many politeness strategies as possible, (b) the two types of relationships contain self-identified strategies of politeness, and (d) they are thought to serve the purposes of this study against the theoretical frameworks chosen for investigation.

Data analysis is a process in which several phases would distinguish, such as working with the data, coding, organizing data, and breaking data into manageable units (in review, see Singh & Jones, 2007). This work consists of two main steps. Step one represents an underlying case, namely an inspection of all politeness formulas that used in the selected Yusuf, and Cave Suras. This process served as a screening phase to identify and select the appropriate verses of the study. It also provided a descriptive account of the contexts in which the politeness strategies and politeness maxims had used. Step two was a detailed analysis of politeness strategies and politeness maxims as used in two types of communications, namely God-man communication, and man-man communication in Yusuf, and Cave Suras. In doing this, we introduce, identify, and interpret the text-building mechanisms about the set.

3.6 Materials:
The data consists of two suras that have taken from the Holy Quran translated by Arberry. The sura of Yusuf contains 111 verses, and the Cave -Al-Kahf consists of 110 Quranic verses. Arberry translated these suras from Arabic (original version) to the English text.

4. Results and Discussion
Thus, drawing on the model proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978), and Leech’s model (1983), the current study analyzed two suras (Yusuf and Cave) from the Holy Quran, which translated by Arberry (1955) in terms of politeness strategies, and politeness maxims. The results revealed that positive politeness strategy (offer, promise) is the dominant one with about 22.2 % occurrence in the Sura of Cave, in contrast, the dominant one in the Yusuf Sura is the negative politeness (give deference or respect with 21.25%of all texts as showing in Table 1.
Table 1
Frequency and Percentage of Politeness Strategies and Politeness Maxims in Yusuf and Cave Suras

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies/maxims</th>
<th>Yusuf Sura</th>
<th>Cave Sura</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Notice of admiration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim common view with the hearer or give something wanted and gifts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek agreement</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Hedge of opinion to avoid disagreement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assert or presuppose S’s knowledge of and concern for H’s wants</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be optimistic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer, promise</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be pessimistic by doing indirect request</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give deference or respect</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21.25%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apologize for doing FTA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimize the imposition, Rx</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go on record as incurring debt, or as not indebting H</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tact maxim</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generosity maxim</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approbation maxim</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maxim of modesty</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The agreement maxim</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sympathy maxim</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1 Politeness strategies

4.1.1 Positive politeness

1. Notice, attend to hearer’s interests, needs, wants

As indicated earlier, positive politeness is redress directed to the hearer’s positive face, his or her continual desire that his/her wants or actions should be acceptable and desirable. Insofar as this study is concerned, redress here involves in partially satisfying that desire by communicating the message that the addresser’s own wants or desires are, in some respects, similar to the addressee’s wants and desires (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

اذْهَبُواْ بِقَمِيصِي هَذَا فَأَلْقُوهُ عَلَى وَجْهِ أَبِي يَأْتِ بَصِيرًا وَأْتُونِي بِأَهْلِكُمْ أَجْمَعِينَ ﴿

Go, take this shirt, and do you cast it on my father’s face, and he shall recover his sight; then bring me your family all together. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry).

This text reveals that Allah gave Yusuf the miracle and sign that he then gave their brother his shirt and said to them took it and put on my father’s face. The conversation represents positive politeness strategies that Yusuf used it to redress the face-threatening act of his brothers by giving them his shirt.

وَإِذِ اعْتَزَلْتُمُوهُمْ وَمَا يَعْبُدُونَ إِلَّا اللَّا فَأْوُوا إِلَى الْكَهْفِ يَنشُرْ لَكُمْ رَبُّكُم م ِن راحمته ويُهَ ﴿

So, when you have gone apart from them and that they serve, excepting God, take refuge in the Cave, and your Lord will unfold to you of His mercy and will furnish -- you with a gentle issue of your affair. ´ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry).

Here in this verse, Allah told his worshipers if you leave them and from what they worship, other than Allah, find refuge in the Cave. Allah will extend His Mercy to you and will furnish you with a gentle issue of your affair.so this text explains the positive politeness strategy used by Allah to award his honest believers.

3. Seek agreement

قَالَ مَا خَطْبُكُنا إِذْ رَاوَدتُّنا يُوسُفَ عَن نافْسِهِ قُلْنَ حَاشَ لِلِ ِ مَا عَلِمْنَا عَلَيْهِ مِن سُوءٍ قَالَتِ امْ رَأَةُ الْعَزِيزِ الآنَ حَصْحَصَ الْحَقُّ أَنَاْ رَاوَدتُّهُ عن نافْسِهِ وَإِناهُ لَمِنَ الصاادِقِ ﴿

What was your business, women, ´ he said, ‘when you solicited Joseph?’ ´God save us!’ they said. ´We know no evil against him. ´ The Governor’s wife said, ´Now the truth is at last discovered; I solicited him; he is a truthful man.

Zulekha, the wife of Egypt governor, agreed with the speech of king of Egypt when ´ he asked, 'when you solicited Joseph? She said, “the truth revealed at last; I requested him; he is among the truthful.” She used the positive politeness strategy.

قَالَ لَهُ مُو 66

Moses said to him, “Shall I follow thee so that thou teachest me, of what thou hast taught, right judgment.” (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, cave 18:66).

Here Moses used the strategy (seek agreement) to avoid the imposition of disagree because his request may be accepted or not.
4 A hedge of opinion to avoid disagreement

The king said, ‘Bring him to me!’ And when the messenger came to him, he said, ‘Return unto thy lord, and ask of him, “What of the women who cut their hands?” Surely, my Lord knows their guile.’ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:50).

In this verse, when the messenger came to Yusuf to take him to the king, Yusuf said, tell the king to ask, “What about the women who cut their hands. Indeed, my Lord knows their guile.” Yusuf used the strategy of hedge of opinion to avoid disagreement with the order of the king. So, he used a positive politeness strategy.

5 Assert or presuppose S’s knowledge of and concern for H’s wants

The Prophet Ilyas (PBUH) said to Moses (PBUH) how you could bear patiently with that which you have never comprehended in your knowledge? ’

5. Offer or promise

Searle (1969: 58, reported in Bretag 2006) contends that a promise “is a pledge to do something for you, not to you.” Offer and promise can indicate that the speaker and hearer are cooperators. Given the situational context of our data as representing a dialogue between God and His servants, it was no surprise that the speech acts of promise and offer were commonly used here as positive politeness strategies.
7. Offer, promise

قَالُواْ يَا أَبَانَا مَا لَكَ لََّ تَأْمُنَا عَلَى يُوسُفَ وَإِنَاا لََّهُ لَنَاصِحُونَ

They said, “Father, what ails thee, that thou trustest us not with Joseph? Surely, we are his sincere well-wishers.” (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:11).

Yusuf's brothers said: Indeed, we are sincere advisors. That they gave their father promise to advise Yusuf. They used positive politeness when they used to promise.

إنَّ الْذِّينَ أَمْلُوا وَعَمِلُوا الصَّالِحَاتِ إِنَّا لَا نُضِيعُ أَجْرَ مَنْ أَحْسَنَ عَمَلاً

Surely, those who believe, and do deeds of righteousness -- surely, we leave not to waste the wage of him who does good works. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, cave 12:30).

Here, Allah promises believers who do good works; he does not waste the wage of whosoever does good works.

4.1.2 Negative politeness

1. Give deference or respect

يَا صَاحِبَيِ السَّجْنِ أَأَرْبَابٌ مُّتَفَرِّقُونَ خَيْرٌ أَمِ اللَّهُ الْوَاحِدُ الْقَهْرَاءِ

Say, which is better, my fellow-prisoners --many gods at variance, or God the One, the Omnipotent? (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:11).

The verse reveals the strategy of deference and respect, which used by the Prophet Yusuf when called the two persons in prison, my fellow-prisoners in spite of they are common men, and he is the prophet, and they are lower rank from him.

إِذْ أَوَى الْفِتْيَةُ إِلَى الْكَهْفِ فَقَالُوا رَبانَا آتِنَا مِن لادُنكَ رَحْمَةً وَهَيِئِلْنَا مِنْ أَمْرِنَا رَشَدًا

When the youths took refuge in the Cave, saying, ‘Our Lord, give us mercy from Thee, and furnish us with rectitude in our affair. ‘ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, cave 18:10). Here, the youths believed in Allah and explained their deference, and respect to Allah when they called him.

2. Apologize for doing FTA

قَالُواْ يَا أَبَانَا اسْتَغْفِرْ لَنَا ذُنُوبَنَا إِناا كُناا خَاطِئِينَ

They said, ‘Our father, ask forgiveness of our crimes for us, for, indeed we are sinful. ‘ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:97). Yaqub prophet sons said: 'Father, ask forgiveness for our sins. We have, indeed been sinners. They apologize to their father because they commit crimes.

قَالَ لََّ تُؤَاخِذْنِي بِمَا نَسِيتُ وَلََّ تُرْهِقْنِي مِنْ أَمْرِي عُسْرًا

He said, ‘Do not take me to a task that I forgot, neither constrain me to do a thing too difficult. ‘ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, cave 18:73). Here the Prophet Moses apologizes to the prophet Ilyas to take him to the task that he forgot.
3. Minimize the imposition

قَالَ إِنِّي لَيَحْزُنُنِي أَن تَذْهَبُواْ بِهِ وَأَخَافُ أَن يَأْكُلَهُ الذُّئْبُ وَأَنتُمْ عَنْهُ غَافِلُونَ ﴿ (13)

He said, 'It grieves me that you should go with him, and I fear the wolf may eat him, while you are heedless of him.' (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:13).

The Prophet Yaqub (P.B.U.H) used here negative politeness to express his refusal. Politeness resides here in the way the Prophet said: 'It grieves me to let him go with you, for I fear the wolf should consume him when you are not paying attention to him. 'Used negative politeness strategy to avoid imposition on his sons.

قَالُواْ يَا أَيُّهَا الْعَزِيزُ إِنا لَهُ أَبًا شَيْخًا كَبِيرًا فَخُذْ أَحَدَنَا مَكَانَهُ إِناا نَرَاكَ مِنَ الْمُحْسِنِ ﴿ (78)

They said, 'Mighty prince, he has a father, aged and great with years; so, take one of us in his place; we see that thou art one of the good-doers. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:78). The brothers of Yusuf when they met the mighty prince (their brother, Yusuf) Without knowing that he was their brother, and they praised him and thanked him because he was an optimist with them.so they utilize negative politeness to express their indebtedness to him.

الْحَمْدُ لِلِّهِ الَّذِي أَنزَلَ عَلَى عَبْدِهِ الْكِتَابَ وَلَمْ يَجْعَل لاهُ عِوَجَا ﴿ (1)

Praise belongs to God who has sent down upon His Servant the Book and has not assigned unto it any crookedness. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Cave 18:1).

Here in this text, the Prophet praises Allah because he has sent down the Book (Holy Quran) to His worshiper (Prophet Muhammad), and has not made any crookedness in it. So, the Prophet (PBUH) used negative politeness strategy to show his indebtedness to God.

4. Go on record as incurring debt, or as not indebting H

قَالُواْ يا أَيُّهَا الْعَزِيزُ إِن لَّي أَنا أَبَا شَيْخًا كَبِيرًا فَخُذْ أَحَدَنَا مَكَانَهُ إِناا نَرَاكَ مِنَ الْمُحْسِنِ ﴿ (78)

They said, 'Mighty prince, he has a father, aged and great with years; so, take one of us in his place; we see that thou art one of the good-doers. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:78). The brothers of Yusuf when they met the mighty prince (their brother, Yusuf) Without knowing that he was their brother, and they praised him and thanked him because he was an optimist with them.so they utilize negative politeness to express their indebtedness to him.

الْحَمْدُ لِلِّهِ الَّذِي أَنزَلَ عَلَى عَبْدِهِ الْكِتَابَ وَلَمْ يَجْعَل لاهُ عِوَجَا ﴿ (1)

Praise belongs to God who has sent down upon His Servant the Book and has not assigned unto it any crookedness. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Cave 18:1).

Here in this text, the Prophet praises Allah because he has sent down the Book (Holy Quran) to His worshiper (Prophet Muhammad), and has not made any crookedness in it. So, the Prophet (PBUH) used negative politeness strategy to show his indebtedness to God.

4.2 Politeness maxims

1. Modesty maxims

Modesty had been defined by having or indicating a moderate or humble estimate of one’s merits, importance, etc.; free from vanity, egotism, boastfulness, or great pretensions (Dictionary.com, 2012). Modesty can be seen as a critical aspect of politeness, especially when dealing with others. Insofar as Islam is concerned, Zohery (2011) asserts that Islam teaches humans, men, and women, equally, how to overpower the desires of the ego. It makes modesty part of faith, a fact that is stressed in several traditions as well as in several places of the Quran. Prophet Muhammad is the most excellent example of a modest man in the full sense of the word (Zohery, 2011). Modesty maxim, according to Leech, minimizes praise of self, and maximizes the disparage of self.

وَمَا أُبَرِّي مِنْ نَفْسِي إِنَّ اللَّهَ لَأَفْحَرُ بِالسُّوءِ إِلَّا مَا رَحِمَ رَبِّي إِن رَبِّي غَفُورٌ رَحِيمٌ ﴿ (53)

Whatever I deny of myself, God is the one who is able to forgive the evil, but He has mercy on me (53).
Yet I claim not that my soul was innocent. Undoubtedly, the soul of man incites to evil – except since as my Lord had mercy, truly, my Lord is All-forgiving, All-compassionate. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:53). In this verse, the wife of governor in Egypt said, “Yet I do not consider my soul was guiltless,” the soul incites to evil except to whom my Lord has mercy; indeed, my Lord is Forgiving, the Most Merciful explains. She used maxim of modesty to dispraise herself. They chiefly call for minimizing the expression of praise of self and maximizing the expression of dispraise of self. They also call for reducing the expression of beliefs, which express the dispraise of others and maximizing the expression of opinions that express the approval of others.

2. The approbation maxim

وَدَخَلَ مَعَهُ السِّجْنَ فَتَيَانَ قَالَ أَحَدُهُمَآ إِنِّي أَرَانِي أَعْصِرُ خَمْرًا وَقَالَ الآخَرُ إِنِّي أَرَانِي أَحْمِلُ فَوْقَ رَأْسِي خُبْزًا تَأْكُلُ الطَّيْرُ مِنْهُ نَبِئَنَا بِتَأْوِيلِهِ إِناا نَرَاكَ مِنَ الْمُحْسِنِينَ (36)

36 And two youths entered the prison with him. Said one of them, “I dreamed that I was pressing grapes. Said the other, ´I dreamed that I was carrying on my head bread, that birds were eating of it.” Tell us its interpretation; we see that thou art of the good-doers.’ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:36). This verse revealed that the two prisoners they use the maxim of approbation to praise Yusuf when they said: ‘we can see you are among the good.’

3. The agreement maxim

قَالَ مَا خَطْبُكُنا إِذْ رَاوَدتُّنا يُوسُفَ عَن نافْسِهِ قُلْنَ حَاشَ لِلِّمَا عَلِمْنَا عَلَيْهِ مِن سُوءٍ قَالَتِ امْرَأَةُ الْعَزِيزِ أَنَاْ رَاوَدتُّهُ عَن نافْسِهِ وَإِناهُ لَمِنَ الصاادِقِينَ (51)

51 ´What was your business, women, ´ he said, ‘when you solicited Joseph? ´ ´God save us! ´they said. ´We know no evil against him. ´ The Governor’s wife said, ´Now the truth is at last discovered; I solicited him; he is a truthful man. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:51).

Here the wife of Egypt (Zulekha) used the politeness agreement maxim to agree with the king of Egypt when he said when you solicited joseph.

قَالَ سَتَجِدُنِي إِن شَاء اللَّهُ صَابِرًا وَلََّ أَعْصِي لَكَ أَمْرًا (69)

69 He said, ´Yet thou shalt find me, if God will, patient, and I shall not rebel against thee in anything. ´ (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Cave 18:69). In this verse, Moses expresses his agreement to Ilyas prophet. So, he used the agreement maxims of politeness.

4. The sympathy maxim

وَجَآوْاْ أَبَاهُمْ عِشَاءً يَبْكُونَ (16)

16And, they came to their father in the evening. (Translation of the Holy Quran by Arberry, Yusuf 12:16). This text states that the Yagup’s sons used polite sympathy maxim to express his compassion to their father.
5. Conclusion
This study conducted to analyze the use of politeness strategies, and politeness maxims by Allah, Prophets, and Humans in Yusuf, and Cave Suras. The researcher has applied two theories, Brown and Levison, and Leech’s Model. From the discussion above, also from my observation toward the Holy Quran, and read the Suras more than one time to extract the politeness strategies, and politeness maxims correctly. Even, this study aimed to answer all the questions above. The conclusion can draw that politeness does exist in these Suras but differently. The most frequent strategy used is negative politeness (Give deference or respect), which takes the percentage 16% in Yusuf Sura, this explains that there is a large number of conversations, which contain the mutual deference and respects. Notably, in Yusuf Sura, there are different conversations among Allah and the Prophet Yusuf, and also between the prophet Yusuf, his father, brothers, and other characters. The second strategy, which took the frequency (8), and the percentage 7%, is the positive politeness strategy (offer and promise) in Yusuf Sura. So, the research also reveals that the highest positive politeness strategy and negative politeness strategy used in Yusuf Sura. According to Leech (1983), the tact maxim represents the highest percentage among the politeness maxims strategies in Yusuf Sura, which is 7 percent. The humans used the negative politeness strategy in Yusuf Sura (give deference or respect) more than others is 12.5% and is higher than other negative politeness strategies. Also, the positive politeness strategy (promise and offer) in Yusuf Sura is used by humans more than others because the texts (ayahs) contained conversations expressed promise and offer, which is 8.75%. This study reveals that humans used the politeness adage (maxim of modesty) in Yusuf Sura more than others (Allah and Prophets, which is nearly 6.25%. This study explains that humans use the maxim of modesty more than God and the prophets because human beings have made mistakes. They try to vilify themselves and praise God, and the prophets to express their remorse. In Cave Sura, the results revealed that positive politeness strategy (promise and offer) is the dominant one with about 22 % occurrence.

The study’s calculations revealed that the agreement maxim has occurred in 17 % of the politeness strategies and politeness maxims of Cave Sura. Also, the positive politeness strategy (seek agreement), used by the prophets, occurred in14.8 %, the positive politeness strategy (offer, promise), which is used by God, had 14.8. And also, in Cave Sura, the prophets had used the politeness maxim (the agreement maxim) in occurrence 14.8%.

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The Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies by EFL and EAP Undergraduate University Learners’ in the Iraqi Context

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Abstract
Vocabulary learning is an essential part of foreign or second language learning. This study aims at identifying the most and least common strategies that are used by Iraqi English as a foreign language (EFL) majors and English for academic purposes (EAP) learners. Also, determine the differences that are in EFL and EAP students’ vocabulary learning strategy (VLS) use as well as exploring EFL and EAP students’ views and difficulties. The study samples were 100 undergraduate learners (50 EAP learners and 50 EFL majors studying at Al-iraqia University, Iraq). There were two methods adopted; a validated Likert-scale questionnaire based on a developed version of Schmitt (1997) and further selected four of them for a follow-up semi-structured interview. The results of the survey indicated that EFL and EAP learners’ most common strategy was determination strategy, whereas, the least common strategy was metacognitive. The finding of the independent sample t-test of the five identified categories: metacognitive, determination, cognitive, memory as well as social, indicated that there was no significant difference between EFL and EAP learners’ in the frequency of the use of VLS. The results of the interview indicated that the majority of EFL and EAP learners’ valued the significance role of VLS.

Keywords: EAP learners, EFL learners, vocabulary learning strategies

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1. Introduction

Vocabulary is a fundamental factor of language proficiency level and, therefore, has contained high in the language learning studies agenda (Pellicer-Sánchez, 2018). Numerous research studies have shown that VLS plays a crucial role in learning vocabulary as learners face difficulties in learning a foreign language if they have the insufficient vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Amirian and Heshmatifar (2013); Çelik and Toptaş (2010); Hakan, Aydin, and Bulent (2015). Thus, setting up a store of vocabularies is essential for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Also improving a list of vocabularies that will be employed in their academic demands. Many researchers in the field of EFL have used numerous methods that can assist in learning vocabulary, namely as VLS. For English as a foreign language, many language learners, especially non-English speaking environments exposure to language is very limited. Therefore, one of the most significant challenges for Iraqi EFL learners is the lack of vocabularies that thus contrarily impacts their perception of both productive as well as receptive skills of language (Nation, 1990 as cited in Rashed, 2018). Iraqi EFL students are unaware of the strategies they should use in vocabulary learning. Furthermore, the learners’ vocabularies size is limited as well as has no connection with the VLS they using. Accordingly, learners would face challenges in language communication due to a lack of vocabulary (Abid, 2017). Iraqi EFL learners have a difficulty in learning language, especially words and phrases. Hence, the main focus of Iraqi EFL learners and their teachers is to apply effective VLS to facilitate the process as well as to ensure the appropriate fluency levels (Al Hamdany, 2018).

Regarding the field of English for academic purposes, EAP learners encounter many different texts, particularly texts in an academic setting. EAP students also have to construct meaning based on their prior knowledge. Hence, learners need adequate academic vocabulary to pass their examinations and to communicate effectively in class. Therefore, the importance of Vocabulary learning strategies plays an essential role in English for academic purposes situations. Haghi and Pasand (2013) state that EAP learners are required to study as well as comprehend a good deal of written texts in the English language. Therefore, VLS use can aid the English for academic purposes students in dealing with the texts as well as comprehending them.

Despite the significance of VLS, to date, very few studies have been conducted in the field of EAP/ESP. Wanpen et al. (2013) cite that in the area of EAP/ESP, vocabulary learning is to be one of the significant aspects for learner attainment in learning academic English. The significance of using useful strategies to help such students by raising learners’ awareness of various VLS seems to be an essential subject to both EFL learners and EAP majors. Furthermore, being familiar with different useful VLS is an excellent assistance for EFL learners and EAP majors in dealing with unknown words.

As far as we know, although of the importance of VLS in the Iraqi context, very few studies have been conducted to investigate the Iraqi EAP learners’ and EFL students’ in terms of using VLS as well as exploring their opinions. Consequently, this study aims to quantitatively and qualitatively identify the vocabulary learning strategies used by EAP and EFL students’ as well as exploring their views. The following study questions were thus formulated:

1. What strategies are most and least commonly used by Iraqi EFL learners?
2. What strategies are most and least commonly used by Iraqi EAP learners?
3. Is there any difference between Iraqi EFL and EAP learners in terms of using vocabulary learning strategies? Concerning the third research question, the following hypothesis is developed: “There is no difference between Iraqi EFL and EAP learners’ in using vocabulary learning strategies.”
4. What are the EFL and EAP learners’ views and difficulties in vocabulary learning?

2. Literature Review
2.1 Vocabulary Learning Strategy Taxonomies
For the past decades, different taxonomies have been offered by several of scholars as well as many strategies have empirically or theoretically been cited for enriching vocabulary store Oxford 1990; Rubin 1975; Macaro 2001 as cited in Afshar et al., (2014). To highlight the VLS classifications chronologically, Stoffer (1995), Gu and Johnson (1996), and Schmitt (1997) have been offered the most significant taxonomies of VLS. For instance, Stoffer (1995) was the earliest one who proposed VLS classification. Stoffer taxonomy included nine categories as follows: a) self-motivation strategies, b) involving authentic language use strategies, c) Memory strategy, d) Strategies used to create mental linkages, e) Strategies involving physical action, f) Strategies involving creative activities, g) Auditory strategies, h) Strategies used to overcome anxiety, and i) Strategies used to organize words. However, Kudo (1999) states that Stoffer’s classification was not seemed comprehensive since the lack of detailed statistical data to support the taxonomies.

Another noteworthy VLS taxonomy has been offered by Gu and Johnson, 1996. The VLS taxonomy clustered into eight categories as follows: a) activation strategies, b) guessing strategies, c) metacognitive regulation, d) note-taking strategies, e) dictionary strategies, f) memory encoding strategies, g) rehearsal strategies, and h) beliefs about vocabulary learning. A year later, Schmitt (1997) offered a new taxonomy for VLS, which is based on Oxford’s language learning strategies (LLS). Oxford’s (1990) taxonomy of LLS containing six clusters, such as affective, metacognitive, compensation, cognitive, social as well as memory. The taxonomy devised a comprehensive inventory of individual VLS that includes 58 strategies. For the current study, the general classification of VLS can be categorized according to Schmitt 1997 since it is widely used by many researchers in the field of VLS. Besides, it has categories that are prominent as well as comprehensive taxonomy. The primary classification can be mainly classified into two dimensions: 1) Consolidation Strategies (Con), include methods as well as techniques in retaining a word once it has been encountered, and 2) Discovery Strategies (Dis), which are methods applied when facing new words. Discovery strategies refer to social strategies (SOC) as well as determination (DET), while consolidation strategies consist of cognitive strategies (COG), metacognitive strategies (MET), social strategies, and memory strategies (MEM). The five categories are as follows: 1) social: using interaction with others to enrich the learning process; 2) determination: utilized by students when they encounter a word for the first time; 3) Metacognitive: refer to being aware of monitoring, evaluating as well as planning the learning process; 4) Cognitive: which are transformation as well as manipulation of the second language (L2) by the student; 5) Memory: relating new material to existing knowledge.

However, many VLS field researchers considered Schmitt’s taxonomy the most prominent VLS classification due to its several advantages over others. For instance, Catalan (2003) states that Schmitt’s taxonomy can be standardized for assessment goals; by utilizing it, the samples’
responses can be easily gathered. Also, it is primarily based on the model of LLS and memory theories. This classification is simple; it can be applied to students of different educational backgrounds. Furthermore, it is productive as well as sensitive to the other related LLS, as well as allows comparing with other researches.

2.2 Research into the Vocabulary Learning Strategies

2.2.1 Research on VLS within an EFL context

Researches on VLS within an EFL setting is still ongoing. In recent times, Behbahani (2016) surveyed university students’ knowledge of VLS as well as influential factors in the middle east. The results showed that social as well as metacognitive strategies were the most and the least common VLS. As regards the role of proficiency level and gender level, the t-test, as well as ANOVA findings, showed that gender was a practical aspect. Whereas, proficiency was not an active factor in the preference of learners for using VLS. Females learners preferred metacognitive strategies, but male students preferred detrimental strategies. In an EFL context, Amirian and Heshmatifar (2013) investigated EFL university learners, in particular, a more or less common strategy used for vocabulary learning. Administering a questionnaire as well as interviews, were carried out. The results revealed that the most common strategy used by the learners ordered to the least common one as in the following: determination, cognitive, memory, metacognitive, and social strategy. Other findings showed that dictionary use strategy, as well as guessing from context strategy were the most common strategies. Whereas asking the peers or asking the teacher for meaning were the less common strategies. In another study, Yilmaz (2010) explores the relationship between preferred language gender, self-efficacy beliefs, strategies and proficiency. He was administered a questionnaire to 140 EFL learners. The findings indicated that compensation strategies were the highest rank, whereas affective strategies were the lowest. In a different study, Çelik and Toptaş (2010) surveyed VLS used by Turkish EFL learners, concerning the helpfulness ratings as well as frequencies. The finding of their study showed that the samples’ general use of VLS was rather inadequate. Ping et al. (2012) studied self-regulatory for VLS among Chinese EFL students. He attempted to investigate the use of self-regulated VLS and motivational beliefs. The results showed that meta-cognitive strategies, as well as cognitive in-depth processing strategy were rarely applied by the students.

2.2.2 Research on VLS within an EAP context

Regarding the ESP/EAP context, Hashemi and Hadavi (2015) examined the VLS among EFL Iranian medical sciences learners. They have administered a questionnaire of Gu and Johnson. The results showed that guessing as well as social strategies had the highest obtained frequencies, whereas dictionary strategy, Note-taking, and autonomy were the least used strategies. Adopting a questionnaire, Afshar, Moazzam, and Arbabi (2014) investigated 173 Iranian undergraduate students. The results showed that the two groups were not significantly different in the choice as well as the use of VLS. They found significant differences in individual strategy use in seven out of (45) strategies. Bernardo and Gonzales (2009) studied the use of common VLS by baccalaureate learners of five majors: 1) hospitality management, 2) engineering and computer science, 3) liberal arts and education, 4) allied medical science, and 5) business education in Philippine university. The results indicated that there were significant differences in terms of using the social strategy as well as determination strategy across the five disciplines. Also, their study revealed that there were non-significant differences in utilizing of metacognitive, cognitive as well as memory strategies.
Another study, Mukoroli (2011) investigated vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for academic purposes ESL/EAP classroom. The researcher observed three EAP classrooms across the U.S.A. as well as discussed various effective vocabulary teaching strategies. The results revealed that in the EAP classroom, vocabulary learning strategies greatly helped students in their English language acquisition. A study by Mualib et al. (2014) explored vocabulary learning strategies among Malaysian TEVT students in German-Malaysian Institute (GMI). Data was collected via a questionnaire as well as an interview. The finding of the research showed that a majority of learners relied on discovery strategies such as asking friends and teachers, referring to dictionaries as well as guessing words. Furthermore, a very limited number of learners were aware of cognitive strategies.

Over the past few years, several investigations have been conducted on VLS and acquisition that learners use to learn new words in EFL or ESP/EAP contexts abroad. Many of these researches investigating VLS use in EFL and EAP at different levels as well as stages. However, very few studies have been adopted in the Iraqi context to identify the most common strategies that are used by EFL majors, and EAP learners as well as determine the differences in EFL and EAP students’ vocabulary learning as regards to the strategies use and beliefs.

3. Methods
3.1 Instruments and Procedures
Two methods were used, a questionnaire (n=100) as well as a semi-structured interview (n=4). The employed questionnaire was based on Schmitt’s 1997 taxonomy, and a replication of a structured questionnaire developed and validated by Rashed on the same area, which included cognitive (COG), metacognitive (MET), determination (DET), social (SOC) and memory (MEM) strategies. The questionnaire consisted of 43 questions, including five open-ended questions. The researcher uses both open answer questions as in (part C) as well as closed response as (part B). The questionnaire was classified into three parts: part (A) included the participants’ personal information. Part (B) contained rating statements, which are used to test the samples’ employing of vocabulary learning strategies. Whereas, part (C) contained open-ended responses, in which samples were allowed to express their own views as well as describe their difficulties in vocabulary learning. All items were ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) and on a five-point Likert scale rating. The questions included seven “determination strategies,” five “social strategies,” 17 “memory strategies,” six “cognitive strategies” as well as three questions addressing “metacognitive strategies.” The reliability and validity of Schmitt’s 1997 questionnaire have been examined in many previous studies, which means that the scale had a worthy internal consistency.

Regarding the procedures, the questionnaire was translated to the participants’ mother tongue (Arabic) to avoid any language barriers or misapprehensions, especially EAP subjects. The final version of the VLS questionnaire was administered at the class sessions under the teacher instructions. The time was about 30 minutes for the subjects to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was done by 100 EFL learners (n=50) and EAP majors (n=50) in the second semester. Furthermore, for the following-up interview, four out of the one-hundred participants were randomly selected to get extra information as well as clarification and explanation of the VLS questionnaire data.
3.2 Participants
This study was carried out during the academic year of 2019-2020 at the faculties of Humanities (EFL major) and Engineering (EAP learners) at Al-iraqia University. The participants in this study were 100 female and male undergraduate students (50 EFL majors and 50 EAP learners). The age of the samples ranged from 18 to 35.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis
Mixed design research of data collection was administrated to describe and explore the current setting of strategy use as well as views. The questionnaire and interview data obtained were used for answering the study questions. The findings were coded under two categories; (a) ‘quantitative data analysis’ (b) ‘qualitative data analysis.’ The results from the questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively using SPSS version 24 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The students’ responses were input into SPSS software in terms of frequency (F), standard deviation (SD), mean (M) as well as percentages (%). Frequency analysis and percentages were used to determine the most common and least common utilized strategies. The thirty-eight items in the survey were grouped into five categories based on (Schmitt, 1997). The statements of the questionnaire were presented in the same way as employed by Schmitt 1997 in a jumbled order for gaining more reliable answers.

The collected data of interviews have illustrated the views on the significance of VLS, difficulties of vocabulary learning, training for vocabulary learning as well as any other ways of learning strategies.

4. Results and Discussion
4.1 Quantitative data analysis
The first study question aimed at investigating the most and least common vocabulary learning strategies used by Iraqi EFL learners. With regard to, Table 1 shows the frequency of the five most common and least common strategies used by Iraqi EFL students in vocabulary learning.

Table 1. The most and least common VLS used by EFL learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Strategies</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>The most common used strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>The least common used strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determination</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5. I try to guess from textual context.</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>1. I try to analyse affixes and roots (e.g. un-predictable)</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24. I repeat a word (aloud or whisper to myself; in my mind, or by spelling it)</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>13. I draw a picture of the new word.</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22. I write a word repeatedly.</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>26. I try to tape or listen to tapes of new words.</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30. I use English-language media (e.g. songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>28. I skip or ignore the unknown word.</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11. I ask the meaning of an unknown word from my classmates.</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>10. I ask teacher for a sentence including the new word.</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 indicates that EFL learners used strategies such as determination strategy (88%) “I try to guess from textual context,” memory strategy (84%) “I repeat a word (aloud or whisper to myself, in my mind, or by spelling it),” cognitive strategy (79%) “I write a word repeatedly” metacognitive strategy (70%) “I use English-language media (e.g., songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)” and social strategy (56%) “I ask the meaning of an unknown word from my classmates” were most commonly. Furthermore, learners adopted strategies like determination (46%) “I try to analyze affixes and roots (e.g., un-predict-able),” memory strategy (62%) “I draw a picture of the new word,” cognitive strategy (39%) “I try to tape or listen to tapes of new words” metacognitive strategy (67%) “I skip or ignore the unknown word” and social strategy (39%) “I ask teacher for a sentence including the new word.” were less commonly. Amirian and Heshmatifar (2013) concluded that determination strategies as guessing from context were the most frequent strategies, which is in good agreement with the results of the present study.

The second research question dedicated to investigate the five most and least commonly used VLS by EAP learners. In this concern, Table 2 shows the frequency of the five most and least commonly used strategies used by Iraqi EAP majors in vocabulary learning.

Table 2. The most and least common VLS used by EAP learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Strategies</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>The most common used strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>The least common used strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determination</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5. I try to guess from textual context.</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>2. I try to analyse affixes and roots (e.g., un-predict-able)</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24. I repeat a word (aloud or whisper to myself, in my mind, or by spelling it)</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>13. I draw a picture of the new word</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23. I act out or mime the new word</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>29. I use the vocabulary section or glossaries in my textbook</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31. I continue to study word over time (i.e., revise it several times during the day)</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>38. I skip or ignore the unknown word</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11. I ask the meaning of an unknown word from my classmates.</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>10. I ask teacher for a sentence including the new word</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the above table, it is found that EAP learners used strategies such as determination strategy (82%) “I try to guess from textual context,” memory strategy (80%) “I repeat a word (aloud or whisper to myself, in my mind, or by spelling it),” cognitive strategy (56%) “I act out or mime the new word” metacognitive strategy (41%) “I continue to study word over time (i.e., revise it several times during the day)” and social strategy (30%) “I ask the meaning of an unknown word from my classmates” were most commonly. On the other hand, the least commonly used vocabulary learning strategies are determination strategy (51%) “I try to analyze affixes and roots (e.g., un-predict-able),” memory strategy (60%) “I draw a picture of the new word,” cognitive strategy (55%) “I use the vocabulary section or glossaries in my textbook” metacognitive strategy (70%) “I skip or ignore the unknown word” and social strategy (65%) “I ask teacher for a sentence including the new word.” The present finding also support Afshar et al. (2014) study which concluded that EAP learners used most frequent strategies such as “repeating the new word orally several times,” “studying the spelling of the new word and writing new English words several times,” “using new words in sentences through speaking”. Another study
agreed with the literature regarding VLS Noor & Amir (2009) that found guessing meaning was the most favorite strategy by EAP learners.

Considering the third question, the difference between Iraqi EFL and EAP learners in terms of using vocabulary learning strategies. Table 3, shows the results of the independent sample t-test.

Table 3. The results of independent sample T-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.d</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>p&lt;0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is shown in table 3, there is no statistically significant difference between EAP learners as well as EFL majors in terms of using vocabulary learning strategies (t=1.49, df=98; p=0.17>0.05).

4.2 Qualitative data analysis
The fourth study question dedicated to explore the EFL and EAP learners’ views and difficulties in vocabulary learning. Based on the interview of the EFL learners, the samples reported that highly valued the role of vocabulary learning in the process of foreign language acquisition. Some learners said that they use other ways of learning vocabulary such as social media, learning vocabularies by communicating with native English speaker, using google translate to learn new words, using mobile phone apps and they acting the new words. Also, they wish their instructors to help them with vocabulary learning. With regard to the learners’ difficulties, they explained that they were unaware of using various strategies. Moreover, they said that most of their difficulties were in learning complex words, the pronunciation of difficult words, in particular, long words. The majority complained that they had poor memory strategies. Some reported that they had difficulties in choosing the best way to learn vocabulary.

Moving to the EAP learners’ views, the majority of the participants’ referred to the significance of vocabulary learning in learning a foreign language. Subjects’ mentioned that they use other ways of learning vocabularies, such as video games and mobile phone apps. Most of the interviewed subjects stated that they had problems in learning vocabulary as well as seldom practiced words outside class. Some participants’ blamed their low level in vocabulary due to poor background. Others said that they had difficulties in the pronunciation of words. Furthermore, EAP students said that they had not got any training, and they required vocabulary learning strategies training.
5. Conclusions
In this investigation, the aim was to identify the most and least common strategies that were used by Iraqi EFL majors and EAP learners as well as to determine the differences in EFL and EAP learners’ vocabulary learning strategies use. Also, exploring EFL and EAP students’ views as well as difficulties encountered in vocabulary learning. The following conclusions can be drawn from the present study, with regard to the first question, the results indicated that EFL learners most common strategy were determination strategy such as “I try to guess from textual context.” Whereas, the least common adopted strategy was metacognitive like “I skip or ignore the unknown word.” Considering the second question, it was found that EAP learners used strategies such as determination strategy “I try to guess from textual context” was the most common strategy. While the least commonly used vocabulary learning strategy was metacognitive strategy like “I skip or ignore the unknown word.” Moving to the third question, the results of the independent sample t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between EFL and EAP learners’ in the frequency of the use of vocabulary learning strategies. This finding showed that the majority of learners lack the various vocabulary learning strategies, and they required vocabulary learning strategies training. Turning to the fourth question, the results of the interview indicated that the majority of EFL and EAP learners’ valued the significance role of vocabulary learning strategies. They had difficulties in vocabulary learning such as complex words, the pronunciation of difficult words, in particular, long words as well as poor memory strategies and difficulties in choosing the best way to learn vocabulary.

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References


Effective Reading Strategies for Generation Z Using Authentic Texts

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Abstract
The article deals with the use of effective reading strategies with Generation Z students based on a critical review of modern psychological and pedagogical studies of ‘digital learners’. The relevance of the study is substantiated by the fact that the subjects of the modern educational process today are mostly representatives of Generation Z and their ways of study, preferences and values are bringing important changes to teaching and learning contexts. The purpose of the article is to analyse effective reading strategies using authentic texts. It features a brief overview of the studies devoted to the reading strategies and highlights the differences between reading skills and reading strategies. The authors explore the concept of authenticity of texts and tasks and suggest their highly motivational nature for digital learners. The article presents an analysis of Generation Z’s unique characteristics and projects them onto the choice of effective reading strategies for digital learners. The article concludes with a discussion of pedagogical implications and a list of recommendations to consider when selecting effective reading strategies for language classrooms.

Keywords: authentic texts, Generation Z, learning strategies, reading strategies

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Introduction
Innovations and teaching excellence are the most prominent factors of educational systems of different countries in the 21st century. Higher educational institutions are investigating the ways to meet the needs of diverse student audiences, shifting the teacher-centred approach towards the learner-centred one. This shift in centredness, as well as rapid development of technologies, have created a new generation of ‘digital’ students that have the opportunity to learn more, preferring dynamics in activities to passive reception of information. Language as a tool of communication and the instrument for gaining knowledge leads to the development of learners’ communicative competence. In order to develop this competence and to make the language acquisition meaningful and relevant to the learners’ needs, the process of mastering the language skills should be based on the principle of consciousness that highlights the idea of using the effective learning strategies, and especially reading strategies as reading is crucial in multiple contexts of teaching and learning process.

The issue of learning strategies is complex and has received considerable attention from many scholars. Learning strategies have been studied by Rubin & Thompson, (1982), O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo (1985), Wenden (1987), Oxford (1990, 2011), O’Malley & Chamot (1990), Stern (1992), Ellis (1994), Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary & Robbins (1996), Griffiths (2006), Saks & Leijen (2014) and others. They have developed various classifications of strategies in learning a foreign language that deal with various personalities of learners, for example, the strategy aimed to work with language material on their own emotional feelings; strategies that provide social forms of interaction between students, during which they could solve their problems in the situation, choose a particular optimal strategy that gives the feeling of success, and many others. The studies devoted to the reading strategies were conducted by Jacobs and Paris (1987); Irwin and Bake (1989); O’Malley, Chamot, and Stewner-Manzanares (1998), Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001); Pressley (2002); Israel (2007); Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008); Khazaal (2019) and others.

The purpose of this article is to analyse effective reading strategies for the generation of digital natives (commonly referred to as the Generation Z) while using the authentic texts. First, we review the pedagogical standpoint on reading strategies and look into their existing classifications. Then, we explore the characteristics of the Generation Z and project the reading strategies upon them. We conclude by suggesting several steps to take into consideration when teaching reading and introducing the reading strategies to the language classroom.

Literature Review
There are different definitions of strategies in the scholarly literature. Briefly, a strategy is a plan developed by a reader to assist in comprehending and thinking about texts. In recent decades, reading strategy instruction has entered language classrooms and become the focus of extensive research and scholarly enquiry (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Pressley, 2002.) The main premise is that teachers should help students understand how these flexible tools work and thus enable readers to tackle challenging texts with greater independence.

Baker and Brown (1984) suggest that reading strategies are purposeful and cognitive actions that learners make when they read to help them in making and keeping meaning. Similarly,
Anderson (1999) defines reading strategies as mental tasks that readers apply to make meaning from the text. According to Pressley (2006) and Trabasso and Bouchard (2002), reading strategies are seen as conscious behaviours that readers use before, during, and after reading to get meaning from the text. Alder (2001) defines reading comprehension strategies as conscious schemes that successful readers use to understand a text. According to Lai, Li and Amster (2013), reading strategies are methods of finding the meanings of a text. Whether defined as actions, tasks, behaviours or methods, reading strategies aid learners become competent readers in control of their own reading comprehension.

A study of reading strategies reveals how readers interact with written text and how these strategies contribute to (or hinder) text comprehension. Research in second language reading suggests that learners use a variety of strategies to acquire, store, and retrieve information (Rigney, 1978). Strategies are often defined as learning techniques, behaviours, problem-solving or study skills which make learning more effective and efficient (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). In the context of second language learning, a useful distinction can be made between learning strategies and the reading comprehension strategies that learners use to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures. Oxford (1990) offers a comprehensive classification of the various strategies used by learners. Within the broader context of reading strategies, the author identifies the following categories of strategies: cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. Cognitive strategies include note-taking, formal practice with the specific aspects of the target language such as sounds and sentence structure, summarizing, paraphrasing, predicting, analysing, and using context clues. Memory strategies include creating mental images through grouping and associating, semantic mapping, using keywords, employing word associations, and placing new words into a context. Compensation strategies include skills such as making inferences, guessing while reading, or using reference materials such as dictionaries. Metacognitive strategies are behaviours undertaken by the learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their own learning and include directed attention and self-evaluation, organization, setting goals and objectives, seeking practice opportunities, and so forth. In the context of reading, self-monitoring and correction of errors are further examples of metacognitive strategies. Affective strategies, such as self-encouraging behaviour are used to lower anxiety and encourage learning. Finally, social strategies are those that involve other individuals in the learning process and refer to cooperation with peers, questioning, asking for correction, and feedback; for example, while reading, a student may ask another individual for feedback about their reading responses.

Metacognitive strategies specific to reading can be classified in the following three clusters: planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies (Israel, 2007; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Planning strategies are used before reading; activating learners’ background knowledge to get prepared for reading is an example of planning strategies (Almasi, 2003; Israel, 2007). Also, previewing a title, picture, illustration, heading, or subheading can help readers grasp the overview of the text. Readers may also preview the general information in the text and its structure (Almasi, 2003; Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991). Learners may check whether their reading material has a certain text structure, such as cause and effect, question and answer, and compare and contrast. Furthermore, setting the purpose for reading can also be categorized as a planning strategy (Pressley, 2002).
Further analysis of literature demonstrates an even greater variety in the classifications and interpretations of reading strategies. Thus, Barnett (1998) indicates that reading strategies involve skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting ideas. Furthermore, reading strategies can consist of evaluating content, such as agreeing or disagreeing, making an association with prior knowledge or experience, asking and answering questions, looking at the keywords, using sentence structure analysis such as determining the subject, verb or object of the sentence, skipping and rereading (Almasi, 2003).

Clearly, not all strategies are equally effective, many depend on different types of reading texts and tasks, and the choice of a reading strategy by each reader. Brantmeier (2002), having analysed a bulk of empirical studies, suggests that the most successful readers use top-down strategies, i.e. constructing meaning by activating background knowledge, making and checking assumptions, asking questions, rather than bottom-up. Block and Israel (2005) also suggest that predicting, making connections, visualizing, inferring, questioning, and summarizing are strategies that improve reading comprehension. A recent experiential study in Iraq has provided evidence that intensive reading strategies yield positive results in developing learners vocabulary (Khazaal, 2019).

A great deal of interest has been generated by attempts to differentiate between reading skills and reading strategies as well as between strategic readers and skilful readers. Strategies are often seen as supporting but independent of skills. In their widely-cited paper Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008) suggest that:

reading strategies are deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader’s efforts to decode text, understand words, and construct meanings of text. Reading skills are automatic actions that result in decoding and comprehension with speed, efficiency, and fluency and usually occur without awareness of the components or control involved. (p. 368)

Following Alexander, Graham, and Harris (1998), the authors emphasise that strategies imply intention and that a strategic reader uses strategies to work toward a certain goal. Moreover, strategic readers monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy used, revise if needed, and adapt to each particular reading action. In our opinion, this is an important argument to advocate the importance of teaching effective reading strategies to the new generation of learners who are known for being success-oriented and task-focused with shorter attention spans.

Looking into the teaching of effective reading strategies through authentic texts, it should be noted that the benefits of using authentic texts in language classrooms and particularly for the purposes of communicative language teaching (CLT) approach have long been discussed in the literature. According to Berardo (2006), the use of authentic texts has a positive effect on student motivation. It gives authentic cultural information, exposes students to real language, relates more closely to students’ needs, and supports a more creative approach to teaching.
In the context of teaching Generation Z learners, authentic texts give that much needed motivational boost to the learning process, particularly when learners are gradually given more autonomy in making choices and selecting texts to read, or rather when the task set by the teacher encourages independent search and exploration of authentic texts. When the selection is done by the teacher, the criteria for choosing authentic texts defined by Nuttall (1996) remain relevant. They include suitability of content, exploitability and readability. Suitability of content is the key since reading material should interest the students as well as be relevant to their needs. Exploitability refers to how the text can be used to develop the students’ competence as readers. Readability is a combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text that will guide the teachers in choosing the desired level of complexity. Variety and visual presentation of the text may also influence the choice of authentic materials.

Since generation Z is exposed to a true whelm of new formats and non-traditional content such as memes, Instagram feeds, Twitter, and web-content aggregators, this reduces their time to read traditional content. This may have several implications for the classroom: to introduce the more traditional formats for learning and practising reading strategies; and to use all the variety of authentic content to encourage learners to use the strategies in dealing with authentic texts in real-life contexts.

Furthermore, as the concept of authenticity is central to CLT and relates not only to the authenticity of the texts used as input data for our students, but also to authenticity of tasks conducive to language learning (Breen, 1985), this has further implications for adapting the reading tasks to the new needs and expectations of Generation Z learners.

Characteristics of Generation Z
It is common knowledge that the young generation considers the Internet an essential environment rather than an innovative technology. It has become part of their lives. Understanding of this is of great importance for educators and can be justified by the following fact. When the theory of Multiple Intelligence by Howard Gardner first appeared in 1980s and was afterwards updated (Gardner, 2000), the practitioners came to the conclusion that the students having been considered as disabled in learning were not the ones. They were unsuccessful in learning because they had another type of intelligence that was in a contradiction with the type of teaching style. The same is happening with the Generation Z. They have their special characteristics that on the one hand can be the cause of problems in studying and relationships with the teachers and parents, and, on the other hand, can serve as a spring in achieving success in it.

According to Adams (2004), by acknowledging a new type of intelligence – the digital intelligence and all its implications for education and communication, we become more aware of the need to develop effective strategies to accommodate this new style of learning. This new style of learning involves the use of multiple platforms that Generation Z can not live and learn without, that include social networking, blogs, personal websites, pinboarding, forums, and social gaming.

According to the Generation theory by Howe and Strauss (1992), the time interval in which a person is born affects his worldview, his system of values. This "generational conflict" is not always connected to age-related contradictions. People, reaching a certain age, do not acquire the age values characteristic of this period, since children, reaching the age of their parents, do not
become the same as they are, their attitude to life is still different. As a result, Howe and Strauss substantiated that every 20 years a new generation appears with a different scale of values and excellent predecessors’ behaviour. According to scholars, the model of upbringing adopted in the family and other factors such as political, economic, social has a dominant influence on the generation’s values development. Despite the fact that initially the theory of generations of Strauss and Howe aimed at studying the Anglo-American history, later it was widely used in many countries of the world and its relevance was proved.

The modern generation of students born after 2000 is the first fully digital generation. It should be stated that 2000 is the date that varies from 1991 to 2004 depending on the country. They are often referred to as ‘Generation Z’, ‘Gen Z’, or ‘digital natives’ because the Internet, YouTube, mobile phones, social media and instant messengers are their environment that forms their style of living. Some researchers claim that their values are still in the process of formation, but others have proved that their main psychological characteristics and main values have already been developed.

Barcelon (2010) identifies generations Y and Z whose life is connected with the age of computers that created the environment for their life and learning. Harmanto (2013) after Barcelon identified the four groups of characteristics for Generation Z. These characteristics contain positive features but may also have potentially negative implications.

Table 1. Generation Z characteristics (after Barcelon and Harmanto):

| Group          | Positive                                      | Negative                                                            |
|----------------|-----------------------------------------------|                                                                    |
| **Tech Savvy** | Members of Generation Z are called ‘digital    | Generation Z are not interested in outdoor activities, prefer a     |
|                | natives’, they are comfortable with e-mail,    | sedentary lifestyle that has a bad influence upon their health.     |
|                | texting and computer applications. They easily |                                                                    |
|                | adapt to advances in technology.              |                                                                    |
| **Social**     | They are powerful communicators with virtual   | Their socialization is virtual, they feel difficulty in real-life   |
|                | strangers. Cell phones and instant messages   | situation socializing.                                             |
|                | make communication immediate. As a result, a   |                                                                    |
|                | member of Generation Z is very collaborative   |                                                                    |
|                | and creative.                                 |                                                                    |
| **Multitasking** | They can do some tasks simultaneously: send    | According to mental health experts, Gen Z is prone to Acquired     |
|                | messages, read, watch, talk, eat and so on.    | Attention Deficit Disorder. The generation is losing the ability   |
|                | They have one-click-away access to find any   | to focus and analyse more lengthy, complex information.            |
|                | answer, to know any news, to connect any      |                                                                    |
|                | person.                                       |                                                                    |
| **Speedy**     | Getting used to getting information in a short | The patience and work ethic might have been lost.                  |
|                | period of time. Information should be         |                                                                    |
|                | delivered in rapid, short portions. “Generation |                                                                    |
|                | Z thrives on instant gratification “.          |                                                                    |
This classification goes alongside with the characteristics of children of Generation Z suggested by an American child psychologist Postnik-Goodwin (as cited in Verbitskiy, 2016, p. 11). According to the author, Generation Z is set apart from the previous generations by a set of characteristics, including being impatient; focusing on short-term goals; addiction to the Internet; fragmentation of figurative thinking; the desire to be successful; orientation to use (they can present a lot of arguments in order to get what they want); seeing honesty as value; prioritising the virtual world; knowing technique better than people’s feelings (they prefer finding the answers via the Internet, than asking teachers increasing the distance in communication, not allowing the process of transferring experience happen); and being smart performers.

According to Seemiller and Grace (2016), Generation Z students’ learning styles, academic skill sets, social practices, and social concerns are quite different from those of previous generations. The authors’ findings suggest that “83 per cent of Generation Z students prefer face-to-face communication because it allows them to connect better and read the other person” (p. 61). Since they are able to access online information immediately that results in instant answers, Generation Z students may not pay as much attention to details as they could and may believe the first information they hear, instead of checking the accuracy of the facts they have heard or read. Moreover, authors have found out that in order to remain anonymous, students may create an alias or avatar identity when sharing some information.

According to Shatto & Erwin (2016), the average Generation Z person has an attention span of eight seconds, compared to twelve seconds for the previous generation of Millennials. This implies that learners may expect prompter feedback and may become frustrated if answers are not clear immediately. Most importantly for teaching reading, Generation Z prefers learning from the internet over learning from print material such as books. Because of their access to so much information, authors conclude that Generation Z students learn by observation, visual experiences and practice instead of by reading and by listening to classroom presentations.

Thus, when teaching reading comprehension and developing skills in using reading strategies, teachers should take into account some contradictory points. On the one hand, Generation Z learners want to succeed in learning, on the other hand they are impatient and strive for an immediate result. Even though they are considered to be addicted to the Internet, they are able to quickly navigate through masses of content and can easily find an interesting authentic article that may suit their needs. They are not powerful communicators in real life but smart performers, seeking face-to-face communication.

Overall, teaching Generation Z to use reading strategies effectively can give them the purpose of actually using them in real life and can be considered as a positive psychological factor for better socialising practices, involving learners into other kinds of activities different from those they experience in their environment, either learning or social.

Effective Reading Strategies for Generation Z
When deciding on most appropriate reading strategies for Generation Z, educators can rely on this generation’s positive characteristics such as excellence at technology, desire for achievement and success, preference for reading short texts, ability to multitask – or rather promptly switch between
Effective Reading Strategies for Generation Z Using Authentic Texts

Bilonozhko & Syzenko

tasks, but also need to take into consideration some negative ones. For instance, the fact that Generation Z is not brought up on books and is not seen as a generation of readers, they prefer not to read and engage with longer texts, dislike asking questions and prefer seeking answers online rather than approaching a teacher (or a peer) since it might take longer to get what is needed, and experience certain problems with socialising in the real life.

Thus, we suggest that the following is considered when teaching reading strategies in the language classroom with Generation Z learners:

1. Reading strategies should be allocated enough instructional time and the benefits of their use should be emphasized consistently; also, they should be taught and practised throughout the academic year.

2. Action research into the effectiveness of reading strategies should be carried out: teachers should act as observers and evaluators to be able to select the strategies that will really add value to the new generations of learners. It is clear that the way the new generation interacts is very different from all previous generations and only by experimenting we can really review and update the existing pedagogies.

3. Strategies for effective reading of digital content should be explored. The value of applying strategies to different types of texts and different content areas should be emphasized; a clear connection with real-life contexts and situations is needed.

4. The use of authentic texts and life-related, meaningful tasks will help increase motivation and engagement with reading. Using shorter texts but more engaging tasks is likely to prove successful with Generation Z learners.

5. Top-down strategies should be prioritized over the bottom-up ones. A balance between extensive and intensive reading is to be sought by replicating real-life contexts where they take place.

6. Collaborative tasks and tasks promoting interaction and communication between learners will help engage and replicate real-world practice of Generation Z to interact with information. Moreover, it is likely to promote learners’ socialisation.

Finally, we should not underestimate the power of reading for pleasure and giving our learners autonomy and independence in what they do. Encouraging Generation Z to interact meaningfully with the content they are passionate about is likely to give that the feeling of instant gratifications they are so much after.

Conclusions

Generation Z are learners that live and learn in the era of advanced technology with wide-ranging opportunities to access information. The evidence suggests that they learn more effectively when given tasks involving solving a problem or finding a solution; their shorter attention spans and preference for smaller ‘bites’ of visually-attractive information is changing the classroom pedagogies. Moreover, Generation Z learners are characterized by the ability to perceive information in small, logically complete portions and by their preference for visual content. This makes teaching reading and reading strategies particularly challenging, but nonetheless exciting. Knowing what works and helping Generation Z learners apply the acquired reading strategies in real-life contexts and situations should be the real purpose of teaching reading. Remembering that reading always has a purpose and making the use of reading strategies clear to learners through
authentic texts and authentic tasks with collaborative elements will benefit Generation Z learners in more ways than one. This article sets a background for further development of a system of activities and tasks that aim at specific reading strategies training of Generation Z learners.

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References
Effective Reading Strategies for Generation Z Using Authentic Texts


