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Post-test Analysis to Increase Stakeholder Confidence: A Case Study for an English Language Assessment in Kurdistan

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Abstract

This paper describes a case study where post-test analysis was used to critically evaluate specifications and items in light of student results. Unusually, this was done after the test was used live during a university semester. From the analysis, poorly performing items were removed from the test and a new overall total established. A new scoring system was implemented to accommodate this practice. The aim was to improve reliability and thus confidence in the scores of stakeholders, but primarily students. The absence of such a facility had previously affected the quality of testing on the University of Kurdistan-Hewler's Language Program, and critically undermined confidence in the assessment process. UKH witnessed this at the end of the 2012/2013 academic year. Some students rejected their score and decisions about their progression, resulting in student demonstrations reported in local media in Kurdistan. The author argues that simple steps can be taken to assure quality assessment. This process must involve all teaching staff, be transparent to students, and be context-sensitive. In conclusion, language assessment at UKH can now be measured quantitatively and qualitatively.

Keywords: Assessment, Middle East, Reliability, Facility Values, Discrimination Values, Post-test analysis, Reverse engineering, Learning outcomes

1. Introduction

As with other fields of educational assessment, the primary purpose of language testing, is to ensure ways of making decisions about testees regarded as fair and reliable by users of the assessment results. Within an educational context, test use within tertiary education is often employed as a gate-keeping tool, for countries wanting to ensure as many testees as possible have the opportunity to pursue their studies in higher education should they demonstrate the required ability. With any high-stakes assessment, it is considered essential to investigate the usefulness and usability of the test taken before going live. This ensures the test both genuinely elicits information regarding the construct of interest, and that any administration of the assessments provides consistent results (Fulchner 2010). Literature suggests this is achieved through field testing items, and subsequently critically evaluating specifications and items in light of pilot results (Bachman 2004; Fulcher and Davidson 2007). This all takes place before an assessment goes live. Such practices will be standard

for well-funded international and national exams, but perhaps less so for individual higher education institutions. This was the situation EAP instructors faced at UKH. The combination of limited time, and a body of students to use who did not know the test population proved an obstacle.

This paper describes the implementation of post-test analysis to maintain reliability and confidence in scores. I argue that simple steps can be taken to assure quality assessment. The paper concludes with core recommendations that must be in place for teachers and institutions in Kurdistan to achieve greater assessment confidence.

2. Background

In the 2012/2013 academic year, the University of Kurdistan-Hewler provided a two-year foundation program, comprised of English language development and core academic skills. The assessment format for this program was summative assessments at the end of semester per module, with students sitting a final English Exit Exam at the end of the two years.

Following the end of the academic year, the foundation program underwent review and development. The impetus for this was a university-wide review initiative, but the decision was motivated by the year's academic results. Of the 2012/2013 foundation cohort, 72 students were terminated and a similar number transferred to other higher education providers in the KRG. Some students rejected their score and decisions about their progression, and student demonstrations were reported in local media in Kurdistan.

It became clear there was a perceived lack of confidence in the assessment process by some students. Part of the universities response to media coverage was to initiate a transparency committee. This in turn inspired the author to look at how this initiative could be promoted in the assessment practices of the English Foundation program.

3. The Reading Assessment

The 2013-2014 program now consists of three cycles of assessment for learning during the semester, plus the traditional end of semester assessment of learning of each module: Writing, Reading and Listening. The three cyclical assessments during the semester, each of which were four weeks in length, help inform students of their progress and to enable them to identify gaps in their knowledge. The Reading module has been used to exemplify the implementation of post-test analysis. The Reading exam cycles are internally mandated achievement tests, in that content of the assessment is associated with instruction, looks to the past and is a measure of what has been learned (Fulchner 2010; MacNamara 2000:6). The module assessments consist of one vocabulary and one comprehension exam. This paper will examine vocabulary cycle assessments for cycle 1. The level tested is B1 on the CEFR, with scores of 50% and above being determined as equivalent to this. This posed the first problem associated with interpreting scores, and thus confidence in them.

The overall pass mark of 50% proposed at UKH is roughly equivalent to an IELTS 5, or B1 on the

CEFR scale. The test provided to the students, and the level of the module was pitched at a B1 level. This would mean 50% pass mark of a B1 test, would be roughly be A2 on the CEFR. Thus, the higher the score on the reading cycle test, the closer to B1 we could generalize students to be. In effect, students would need to score above 80 or 90% to be labelled as having attained B1. This issue needed to be addressed.

Cycles of instruction were theme-based to contextualize the most frequent 540 items on the Academic Word List (Coxhead 2000). The core aim of the module was to increase students' vocabulary threshold. The specifications for the assessments were very light, something the author recognizes as an area in need of further development. The more detailed the test specifications are, the greater the chance of greater validity and reliability. The assessments followed the same theme as the cycle and assessed each item taught in that cycle; typically this was 40-50 items. Items were designed to test receptive knowledge. Students were given 1 hour to complete the test.

4. Method

The post-test analysis was achieved using a critical reverse engineering approach (Davidson and Lynch 2007). Here, item performance is reviewed in light of the test purpose and analyses of item-spec congruence, as well as how useful an item is in relation to other items on the test. It must be noted when such analysis is applied to make assessment revisions, it is traditionally done before the next application of the adapted test. However, the author used this analysis to identify poorly performing items or sections that significantly affected score reliability. The author's aim was to ensure only students at a B1 level of attainment would pass and to prevent weaker students from passing due to poor test design. Poor items were removed from the scoring of the assessment, and new grade totals were calculated for students. Thus the test provided raw scores, which were then modified after post-test analysis. It is this method which the author advises practitioners to apply in similar contexts.

Overall test performance was reviewed through exploring i) central tendency, ii) content validity, and iii) item analysis. Item analysis involved looking at Facility Index (F.I.) and Discrimination Index (D.I.), and using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient to measure internal consistency. Outliers with scores of zero were removed to prevent skewing of data.

When making decisions on item statistical characteristics elicited for Facility and Discrimination values, test specifications should ideally pre-state acceptable characteristics. This was not in place at the time of running the first vocabulary test in cycle 1. Literature suggests, acceptable F.I.s range from 0.3 to 0.7 (Henning 1987:50 in Fulchner 2010). However, for achievement tests, we could only consider values of between 0.65 and 0.75 to be acceptable. Anything greater than 0.8 will not provide enough spread to discriminate testees, and anything below 0.6 provides more spread than we would expect for an achievement test, given that content reflects what has been taught.

For D.I., literature suggests items writers should be satisfied with indices of above 0.3 (Buck 2004:132). As noted earlier for an achievement test, we want to discriminate between abilities, but

only for the purpose of identifying who has reached the accepted level of competence. The author suggests indices valued from 0.3 to 0.45 indices provide acceptable discrimination for a negatively skewed curve of the sort expected for an achievement test. Finally, acceptable Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient is ranged from 0.9 to 0.99 for vocabulary tests according to Lado (1961 in Hughes, 2003:32).

5. Results

This section will describe results and the recommendations that were made to test 1. This demonstrates how the author tried to maintain confidence in scores, but also implement the important process of test improvement.

For Test 1, descriptive statistics for overall tests scores are given in Figure 1. Examination of this shows a mean score of 26. Given that the pass mark was 50%, 75% of the students passed. Thus it appears students are doing well after the first cycle of the semester. However, this is a surface level inference. It is important to look more closely at other statistics. Was the test too easy? Is a pass mark of 50% perhaps too low, as discussed earlier?

Statistics		
TotalScore		
N	Valid	89
	Missing	0
Mean		26.2022
Median		26.0000
Mode		25.00
Std. Deviation		6.89727
Skewness		-.184
Std. Error of Skewness		.255
Kurtosis		-.759
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.506

Figure 1. Cycle 1 Vocabulary Test

In order to make this judgment, descriptive statistics of central tendency can be an initial indicator. The Standard Deviation was a little high at 7, with a ratio of 27%. This suggests the test was not easy and produced a bigger spread of students than we would like for an achievement test. In fact, it resembles a proficiency test. This is confirmed in the in curve direction and height. When viewing the histogram in Figure 2, it does not visually resemble that of a significantly negatively skewed curve as we would expect from an achievement test. In fact, it resembles a proficiency test. We see a skewness of -.184., which though negative is not significant enough to say that the test was far too easy. Nevertheless, the curve is not mesokurtic, confirmed by the kurtosis of -.759 in Figure 1. While a negative value usually implies a leptokurtic curve, or discriminates well for an achievement test, the absolute figure is not significant as is less than one Standard Error of Kurtosis (Brown 1997:20). In summary then, based on overall score statistics, it does not appear the test overall has been too easy, but it does not indicate the performance expected of an achievement test. Thus, while students have met the learning outcome of 50%, it appears the test population have not really

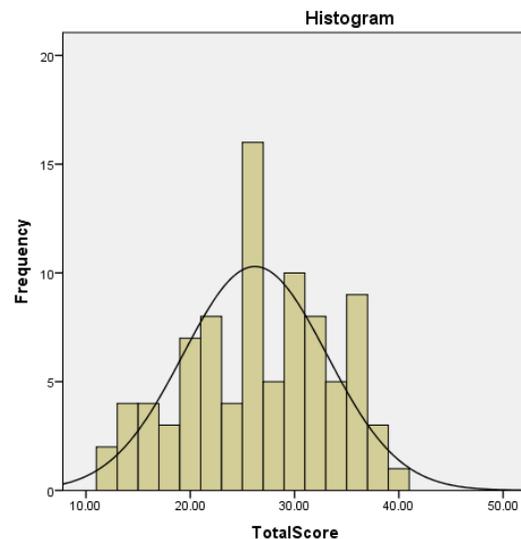


Figure 2. Cycle 1 Vocabulary Test

acquired much of the vocabulary studied, especially considering the discussion above of what the pass mark of 50% really means.

More useful indicators of test difficulty are found in F.I. and item discrimination (See Appendix 1a and 1b). The mean facility value for the test was 0.62, suggesting the test was slightly easier than acceptable ranges of 0.65 – 0.75, but not significantly. The mean D.I. was 0.3, just on the border of what is acceptable. The next question to ask is whether a section or certain items were perhaps too easy, as mean values can hide issues. For F.I., the mean for section 1 and 2 were around 0.75, at the top end of acceptable limits, but within each of these sections, half of the questions were in 0.8 to 0.9 ranges, thus too easy. This is evident in the D.I. as both sections scored around 0.2, thus weaker students were doing just as well as top level students on the majority of the questions, something we would not expect when considering overall test scores. Section 3, however, was much different. The mean F.I. was 0.48, meaning the students found this section particularly challenging. The D.I., though was much better on this section with the average being 0.4. Thus it is this section that really demonstrated which candidates should pass, and those who should not. Test 1, then, did not discriminate well in sections 1 and 2.

In terms of content validity, Part 1 (See Appendix 2a) was an item discrimination task where students were required to choose from 3 given options the best synonym for a given word. Students were provided a sentence that put the word in context for them. For Part 2 (See Appendix 2b), students were required to provide a synonym for a given word, without context provided. For Part 3 (See Appendix 2c), students were required to complete a gap with an appropriate word from a selection provided. There were multiple words from different word classes, meaning the questions could not be completed with syntactical knowledge, but required semantic knowledge. What this means for overall content validity is that the same construct of synonymy was tested twice in sections 1 and 2. In discussion with teachers after the test, it was felt that the skills needed when using a dictionary to select the appropriate word for a given context had not been tested. This was something students were required to do during classes.

It is fair to say that the content validity needs improvement, as not enough of what constitutes knowledge of a word had been tested.

The overall reliability of the assessment was 0.82. This is lower than the minimum required for a vocabulary test of 0.9. The post-test analysis recommendations for test 1

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	.558
		N of Items	22 ^a
	Part 2	Value	.818
		N of Items	21 ^b
	Total N of Items		43
Correlation Between Forms			.593
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length		.744
	Unequal Length		.744
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			.718

Figure 3. shows the Split Half reliability statistics

with regards to scores were sections 1 and 2 be removed. This was supported by a split-half reliability analysis, seen in Figure 3, confirming it was the later part of the test which was more reliable.

This now meant the test was scored out of 20. This change saw only 47% of students attain a 50%. It should be remembered that the author questions the value of this score, in that as a pass mark it is too low, and that from overall student performance, we can see that students do not appear to have retained much of the vocabulary studied beyond being able to apply it to synonymy. However, we can now be much more confident in the scores of students from this test.

As for test revision, for the next cycle two new question types were designed. The first new task required 3 constructs (see appendix 3a). The item tests primarily semantic knowledge of the word, and also a small element of syntactic knowledge to identify the word class. The third construct was deducing meaning from context, as a number of words with similar meanings may be possible, but not appropriate for the context provided.

It is perhaps this last construct which students struggled with. A lot of support is provided for students in learning word meaning, and the other two parts of the exam, although not reliable, seem to indicate that students have rote learned synonyms, but not the actual semantic value of the word contextually. This is a higher order knowledge of vocabulary. Thus, the second new item type was designed to assess students' ability to match appropriate meaning to context (see appendix 3b).

The resolution to the 50% pass mark issue raised earlier was resolved through multiple cut scores and conversion. Four scoring bands were created: *Above Standard*, *Standard*, *Below Standard A*, and *Below Standard B*. *Standard* meant that students were on track to achieve B1 by the end of the module. The cut scores were set at 25% intervals, thus the pass mark was removed, in place of the symbol system above. This was intended to focus student attention away from a score focus that ignored feedback and remedial planning, to consideration of what they needed to do next in their learning journey. If students scored 75% or above they were considered as on target. Students scoring below were divided into two groups: *Non-Standard A* who needed optional remedial support, and *Non-Standard B* was provided mandatory support. However, as it was communicated to students that the pass mark was 50% and the banding put in place during the first cycle, a score conversion was needed. If a student scored 75% or *Standard*, this was converted to what 50% was on the global scale of the CEFR discussed earlier. Through the more appropriate cut score for *Standard*, only 22% of students were in fact on track and doing well, not 75%, or even 47% after post-test analysis.

Following the analysis at the end of cycle 1, a report for the academic board detailing results and recommendations was produced and shared. The same analysis was conducted for the Writing module with regards to inter-rater reliability. The Vocabulary assessment report was intended to be shared with the student body with accessible rationale for why certain decisions about scores had been made. The intention was to promote transparency with all stakeholders. Sadly, this was never shared with teachers, nor students. Such analysis was also not conducted for other testing cycles

during the semester, and no such statistical quality assurance is in place for the second semester in any module on the Foundation program.

6. Conclusion

This paper has demonstrated that post-test analysis of statistical characteristics of items and sections is essential to ensure that scores are both meaningful and enable decisions makers to act with confidence. Regardless of the 50% pass mark issue, had no analysis been conducted, the 75% of students would have mistakenly been labeled as successful, when in fact only 22% of students were on track to pass. This paper has also shown that by generating such data, classroom-based feedback can be produced which shapes future lessons and materials. The two new assessment task types were introduced in class, and better supported students with the learning and skills of context negotiation and meaning.

The author accepts though, that there are indeed issues with this approach that need exploring outside of this paper. There are ethical considerations of revising grades post-test based on data highlighting issues related to poor test design. This is clearly not the fault of the students. However, it is also unethical not to quality assure tests and respond to issues when identified. This paper did not explore other potential issues that may have resulted in certain item performance. Poor discrimination can be the result of cheating, or good teaching of weaker students. This could have been explored through pre and post-test surveys of students and teachers.

The recommendations for colleagues in the KRG are simple. Analyse central tendency in relation to test purpose, and calculate Facility, Discrimination and reliability values at the very least after each live test you conduct.

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Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Q1	.708	.4573	89
Q2	.854	.3552	89
Q3	.652	.4791	89
Q4	.865	.3435	89
Q5	.809	.3953	89
Q6	.820	.3862	89
Q7	.697	.4623	89
Q8	.663	.4754	89
Q9	.494	.5028	89
Q10	.652	.4791	89
Q11	.775	.4198	89
Q12	.910	.2876	89
Q13	.831	.3785	89
Q14	.697	.4623	89
Q15	.820	.3862	89
Q16	.719	.4520	89
Q17	.798	1.1888	89
Q18	.607	.4912	89
Q19	.764	.4270	89
Q20	.191	.3953	89
Q21	.899	.3032	89
Q22	.719	.4520	89
Q23	.798	.4040	89
Q24	.404	.4936	89
Q25	.528	.5020	89
Q26	.438	.4990	89
Q27	.416	.4956	89
Q28	.337	.4754	89
Q29	.528	.5020	89
Q30	.382	.4886	89
Q31	.719	.4520	89
Q32	.787	.4121	89
Q33	.438	.4990	89
Q34	.360	.4826	89
Q35	.326	.4713	89
Q36	.404	.4936	89
Q37	.337	.4754	89
Q38	.685	.4670	89
Q39	.382	.4886	89
Q40	.697	.4623	89
Q41	.596	.4936	89
Q42	.697	.4623	89
Q43	.472	.5020	89

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	25.966	49.215	.263	.821
Q2	25.820	49.876	.220	.822
Q3	26.022	49.818	.157	.824
Q4	25.809	50.861	.026	.826
Q5	25.865	49.913	.186	.823
Q6	25.854	49.853	.203	.823
Q7	25.978	48.954	.300	.820
Q8	26.011	48.739	.323	.820
Q9	26.180	48.672	.311	.820
Q10	26.022	49.931	.140	.825
Q11	25.899	50.092	.141	.824
Q12	25.764	49.887	.280	.821
Q13	25.843	49.248	.325	.820
Q14	25.978	49.590	.200	.823
Q15	25.854	48.467	.464	.817
Q16	25.955	49.362	.243	.822
Q17	25.876	48.428	.077	.843
Q18	26.067	49.927	.135	.825
Q19	25.910	49.560	.227	.822
Q20	26.483	50.389	.100	.825
Q21	25.775	49.585	.335	.820
Q22	25.955	48.725	.345	.819
Q23	25.876	49.496	.255	.822
Q24	26.270	49.449	.204	.823
Q25	26.146	48.353	.359	.819
Q26	26.236	47.682	.461	.816
Q27	26.258	47.671	.466	.816
Q28	26.337	48.681	.332	.819
Q29	26.146	47.694	.456	.816
Q30	26.292	49.959	.132	.825
Q31	25.955	49.203	.268	.821
Q32	25.888	48.851	.362	.819
Q33	26.236	47.773	.447	.816
Q34	26.315	48.423	.365	.818
Q35	26.348	50.343	.081	.826
Q36	26.270	48.017	.416	.817
Q37	26.337	48.271	.395	.818
Q38	25.989	47.579	.514	.815
Q39	26.292	47.686	.472	.815
Q40	25.978	47.818	.481	.815
Q41	26.079	47.937	.428	.817
Q42	25.978	47.863	.474	.816
Q43	26.202	47.572	.474	.815

Appendix 1b. Discrimination Values shown in column 4.

Appendix 1a. Facility Values shown in column 2.

Appendix 3a – Example task for section 2 of Cycle 2 Vocabulary test

Read the sentence provided. Circle the number of the best definition for the underlined word

0. *Adolescence has always been a time of identityformation, with inclusion and exclusion, trying out new ideas, styles, and friends.*

1. somebody's name or who they are
2. the qualities or attitudes that a person or group have, which make them different from others
3. exact similarity between two things

Using Competitive Games to Capture Student Interest and Increase Motivation in the Language Classroom

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Abstract

This paper aims to outline the benefits of using competitive games in the language classroom to engage student interest and increase their motivation to learn the language functions presented. As it has been established in the field educational psychology on the topic of motivation, working memory capacity is affected by motivation and in turn retention of information is affected by working memory capacity. It has been speculated that motivation is influenced by interest, and therefore, if students find the subject matter presented to them interesting, they will be motivated to learn, and their working memory will be activated while they are learning, leading to higher rates of retention of course materials. This paper aims to expand upon this theoretical base by outlining how presenting a topic that students find interesting is not the only way to engage their interest; the classroom activity used to present and practice new material can serve as a way of extrinsically motivating students. If instructors can engage students through their interest in classroom activities, then students will be motivated to complete these activities, activating more of their working memory while they perform the activities and increasing the chances that the information presented to them will be stored in their long-term memory. Drawing on my own classroom observations this paper outlines examples of games that can be adapted effectively to different contexts. While there is a wide range of classroom activities that can be used to capture student interest, the focus of this paper is to demonstrate how competitive games in particular can be used as an effective means of motivating students by capturing their interest.

Key words: motivation, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, working-memory, attention, noticing, interest, competitive games

Introduction

Playing games in class does more than create a fun classroom environment for learners; games are useful tools for practicing language functions. There are multiple factors that impact students' abilities to retain the information presented to them in the language classroom. The factors that this paper examines in closer detail are working memory, attention, noticing and interest.

Theoretical Background

This section of the paper aims to provide a description of the connections between motivation, working memory usage, attention, noticing, and interest, and relate these to how competitive games can be used to maximize student retention of class materials.

Working Memory

Students' ability to remember (retain) what they have learned is an important component of the language learning process because if students cannot remember and recall the language functions they have learned, then they cannot understand or produce that language. Research on the topic memory has established that a correlation exists between retention of information and working memory capacity. Brooks and Shell (2006) define working memory as the part of the memory system that deals with the temporary storage and manipulation of information during cognitive processes. As students perceive and respond to sensory information on the working memory it is then integrated into long-term memory. Working memory is linked to a students' ability to learn language. A study conducted by Baddeley (1992) on individuals' non-word repetition capacity demonstrates that a strong correlation exists between future success and a learner's short-term phonological memory. It's important for teachers to understand the restrictions of working memory in their students; students have a limit to how much information they can keep in mind at the same time, and this limit varies from student to student. A students' working memory ability limits how well they are able to undertake a leaning task, but content, context, and prior experience also play a role in working memory functioning. As students are exposed to more language, there are more connections in their neural network, and students can hold more information in their working memory because of these connections. Working memory capacity places a limit on how much new information students can work with; however, it is their motivation that limits how much of that ability students are willing to apply to the task of learning new language (Brooks & Shell, 2006).

The amount of attention students direct towards a stimulus is influenced by their level of motivation to learn or perform an activity. Motivation is defined as "the process by which goal-directed behavior is instigated and sustained" (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996) or as "the process by which we consciously or unconsciously allocate working memory resources" (Brooks and Shell, 2006, p. 24). Basically, the more motivated an individual is to learn, the more space in their working memory that is allocated to the subject at hand and the greater the amount of sensory information they receive that will be integrated into their long-term memory.

Attention/Noticing

"Those who notice most learn most, and it may be that those who notice most are those who pay attention most" (Mennim, 2007, p. 266). There are multiple learning models that attempt to explain the importance of attention in the classroom, and all of them include noticing in some form. Detection of stimuli "noticing" serves as a function of attention and a prerequisite for learning. It has been argued that unattended stimuli persist in immediate short-term memory for only a few

seconds at best, and attention is a necessary condition for long-term memory storage to occur (Schmidt, 2001). A motivated student pays closer attention to the information presented to them; they are in a better position to notice and process new information. As Wickens (2007) explains, information processing is served by a filter or selective attention, which identifies worthy data to be processed further, and by a fuel or resource attention that enables the carrying out of the processing. Attention to input is therefore essential for storage of new information. According to Gardner's socio-educational model of motivation attention is one of three key components of motivation (the other two being effort and persistence) (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

Interest

Attention is a necessary variable for control over cognitive functioning, as it controls access to consciousness (Schmidt, 2001). Interest also has a facilitative effect on cognitive functioning (Heidi, 2000 p. 152). There are different methods of stimulating student interest in the classroom: students can be interested in an activity they are performing or they can be interested in the subject itself. This variation in type of interest is similar to the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Lepper (1988) defines the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the following way: intrinsically motivated behavior is done for the sense of enjoyment, learning, or sense of accomplishment it provokes, while extrinsically motivated behavior is undertaken for a reward or to avoid a punishment external to the activity itself. There has been a lot of debate over the use of external (extrinsic) motivations to stimulate student interest in the classroom. Studies like the one performed by Greene and Lepper (1974) on the effects of extrinsic rewards on children's subsequent intrinsic interest demonstrate potential detrimental effects that an extrinsic motivational orientation towards learning may produce when extrinsic motivations are used to replace intrinsic ones. Intrinsic motivation is regarded as more sustainable since students are motivated to learn for learning's sake instead of in the interest of gaining external rewards. That being said, extrinsic motivations (like winning a competition) can be used effectively to stimulate student interest in activities when students have no intrinsic motivation (interest) in learning the subject they are studying (Lepper, 1988, p. 299; Zimmerman, 1985; Hidi, 2000, p. 167). Gardner and MacIntyre's research indicates that when it comes to activating the working memory "it is the amount of motivation that matters, not the type" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993); therefore, any type of motivation (whether extrinsic or intrinsic) is useful in the classroom. This supports Hidi's suggestion that "creating environments that stimulate situational interest is one way for schools to motivate students and help them make cognitive gains in areas that initially hold little interest for them" (2000, p. 156). It is the instructor's task to create a classroom environment that stimulates student interest in order to motivate their students to learn. Studies indicate that the most liked activity in a language classroom is playing games or doing puzzles (Chambers, 1998); therefore, using these activities in the language classroom has the potential to increase student motivation by increasing their level of interest.

My Situation

I'm currently teaching English as a foreign language at the Soran University in Kurdistan Region,

Iraq. The University is in the process of gradually transitioning their main language of instruction from Kurdish to English. At the moment, when students enter the University in their first year, their English proficiency is elementary level, yet they are expected to be proficient enough to receive instruction for certain classes solely in English by their third and fourth years of study. In my Faculty, all first year students are placed into general English classes where there are upwards of 20 students and they meet for only 60 minutes once a week. Currently students are taught using a grammar-based syllabus that goes well with the test-based curriculum in place at the university (where 60% of the students' grades come from their final exams in each class). Students at the University are not necessarily given a choice of which program they would like to study (since entrance is based on exam scores), and their program is very structured with their courses chosen for them. This means that many students are not interested in their area of study and do not want to be in class, whether this is English class, core classes, or subject specific classes.

The students' lack of interest in their area of study means many students are lacking motivation. This is a problem because current research done at a University in the UK indicates that the most common reason for dropping out of university is lack of commitment to one's chosen field of study (Breen and Lindsay, 2002, p. 694). The lack of motivation exhibited by students in the Education Faculty at Soran University (both to learn English and to study in general) has led me to investigate various methods of motivating unmotivated learners. I've focused a lot on the issue of interest and how interest affects motivation.

Competitive Games

Working with unmotivated learners can be extremely challenging, as second language achievement is related to both aptitude and motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). One aspect of student motivation is their interest in the subject or activity presented in class. Fortunately, it is possible to trigger student interest by using stimulating activities (Mitchell, 1993). When student interest is activated by an activity, their attention is directed towards the activity in question. As mentioned earlier in this paper, attention is an important component of language learning as it is a necessary condition for allocating working memory space to the material being taught. Competitive games are a successful way of extrinsically motivating students to participate in classroom activities, and attention is a necessary component of successful participation. Competitive games are classified as an extrinsic motivator because of the reward of winning. Students want to win so they try their best when competing with others in order to do so (Deesri, 2002). Competitive games also provide students with a sense of satisfaction upon completion (Dornyei, 1998). When students are participating in a competitive game in the language classroom their attention is focused on the English language functions required in order to win the game; they are noticing the language and engaging their working memory.

Competition can be a solo activity or a group effort. There are infinite numbers of both individual and competitive games that can be used effectively in the language classroom, but my goal with this paper is to provide a few easily adaptable options not an exhaustive list. Examples of competitive games that can be used on an individual level include: Bingo (using numbers, letters, vocabulary

words, or target pronunciation sounds), Hangman (students raise their hands to pick letters to figure out key vocabulary words or phrases), Memory (a set of cards are spread out face down and the student that matches the most pairs wins, this can be done by matching verb tenses, definitions and vocabulary words, vocabulary words and pictures, etc.).

Sometimes weaker students struggle when asked to compete individually, but when placed in a group they have the support of other students. When students are placed in groups that compete against one another they feel a sense of responsibility to their teammates and this serves as a measure of accountability (Papasideris, 2013). Group competitions that have functioned effectively in my classes include: Jeopardy (two teams compete to answer trivia questions from the material covered in class), Team Spelling Bees (one student from each team is given the chance to spell a word and the first person to correctly spell the word wins a point for their team), Charades (students act out or draw vocabulary and points are awarded when team mates guess correctly), Races (teams compete to create the longest list of vocabulary words in a set amount of time), Matching Exercises (vocabulary words are placed on the boards and the first team to correctly identify the definition wins a point, or one vocabulary word is written on the board behind two students, one from each team, and the first student to guess the words scores a point for their team).

Conclusion

Based on research conducted by Chambers (1998) investigating how students remember information, the conclusion can be made that not only are games fun but they are also a great way of motivating students to participate in the language classroom. Although it has been demonstrated that games in general (and competitive games in particular) can successfully be used to motivate language learners, more research is needed on the efficacy of specific games in as this could help language teachers make wiser choices about which activities to include in their classrooms. When students are participating, they are paying attention. Students that are paying attention are activating more of their working memory capacity, increasing the amount of input from class that is available to be processed into students' long-term memories. Therefore, games are an effective method of practicing language functions in a stimulating way. Language teachers should be aware of current theories concerning the topic of learner motivation because to a degree their success as language teachers depends upon successfully motivating their students.

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From Needs Analysis to Curriculum Development: Designing an Intensive EAP Course for Pre-sessional Students

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Abstract

The question as to which type of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) support is appropriate for pre-undergraduate students generally centres on whether students are provided general EAP or discipline specific EAP. Should students' level of English be too low for either, students are frequently offered General English. The majority of our students at the University of Kurdistan Hewlêr (UKH) fell into the latter category, but included a significant number of intermediate level students. In addition to diverse learners, the transition from a former 2 year to a 1 year programme rendered a general English module insufficient to meet the academic needs and motivations of the students. Consequently, a flexible curriculum able to serve both low and mid-level learners and robust enough to survive change, was sought. This paper describes how two important changes to our curriculum have dramatically improved reading and writing competence for what were lower level English learners. We

examine curriculum principles and framework and challenge aspects of traditional EAP pedagogy by a focus on task authenticity rather than authenticity of text.

Our previous curriculum driver could be described as book-driven, in that we tried to fit our context, UKH in Kurdistan, to the specifications of a book. The diversity of student population and transition to a single year foundation programme enabled us to revise our curriculum and develop our own bespoke contextually relevant materials, guided by a significant change in curriculum principles. We argue that EAP is both accessible to lower level learners, and that an institution's unique context must be the driver of a curriculum, not a general book. In conclusion, we now have a robust and context-sensitive curriculum that can serve the needs of our present learners, but is flexible to grow and adapt as our learners' needs and type of student change.

Keywords: Curriculum design, Middle East, Student centred, Context-driven, Background, English,

Major transitional changes at the University of Kurdistan have impacted the language provision unit of the University. The English Language Programme (formally known as 'Access') was reduced from a two-year preparatory programme to a one year EAP Foundation. To aid the transition, the Vice-Chancellor initiated a new strategy for an effective and inclusive communicative approach, known as De-Bono's Six Thinking Hats, which utilised lateral thinking tools.

The Six Thinking Hats approach was used as the core for all consultations and this enabled the EAP staff to be included in the process of designing and taking ownership of a new curriculum. As a result, the team were able to construct a new curriculum and framework which was student-centred, met the demands of the undergraduate (UG) lecturers in addition to the Common European Framework of Reference for language competency standards within a limited time period.

The rational for the one-year EAP course

It was perceived that students from 'Access' were inappropriately equipped linguistically, attitudinally and skills-wise to meet minimally acceptable standards of student participation and scholarly production at UG study. Furthermore, it was evident from both student and staff feedback that motivation, engagement and participation in class were fairly poor.

Upon identifying specifications from needs analyses of both students and EAP staff feedback, a new curriculum emerged. The curriculum framework used for the one-year foundation programme was informed by three core concepts of knowledge, skills, attitude and values. To ensure that these elements were addressed for our UG1 target context, seven guiding principles were defined, against which all decisions were measured. The UKH curriculum principles were transferability, authenticity, progress, minimally acceptable standards, planned extension, student-centredness (engaging, creative, responsive), and a positive student experience.

To further ensure we met these principles, Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Domains (Bloom, 1956)

was used to ensure students progressed from the lower order thinking skills and associated language demands in Foundation, to the higher order level skills and language required as they progress through their Undergraduate and Postgraduate studies at UKH.

Using the model, the curriculum design principles of transferability, authenticity, and progress were met. In short, this should better ensure an identifiable transitional English language-learning journey for both students and UG staff. Thus, it is hoped that UG staff will have a clearer set of language expectations for students progressing to UG level.

Student centred and contextualised teaching materials

The Middle Eastern classroom is often characterized as a passive learning environment consisting of students with an educational background mainly based on lectures, memorisation and examinations (Chadraba & O Keefe, 2007). Such students are unfamiliar with project based work, group work, and independent work such as homework and research. Failure to undertake these autonomous learning opportunities is often perceived by Western teachers as lazy avoidance of independent learning. However, “resistance to autonomy is not a justification for reverting to more traditional, non-autonomy oriented practices” (Brown et al, 2007), but it is clear that EAP instructors as well as UG lecturers at HE Middle Eastern institutions have to be aware of the importance of gradually developing students’ autonomy and critical thinking skills. This naturally implies an adaptation of teaching materials to the Middle Eastern context.

Even though many EAP materials are moving away from the Anglo Saxon focus to a wider range of global topics, many of the EAP materials being used at UKH were too complex to be understood by our students who were on a IELTS level equivalent to 3.5 to 4.5. In order to optimise the student experience in the classroom, we tried to contextualise teaching materials in the different modules.

Studies have shown that by contextualising materials around the students’ journey, the learning environment can be more motivating (Mahrus and Ahmed, 2010). The practical classroom experience at UKH confirmed this as students showed increased engagement with the tasks and participated in contextualised discussions to a higher degree than previously seen in the classroom. The approach where teachers were able to be more creative with the materials and where they had freedom to prepare the classroom tasks, although challenging, proved rewarding, and was reflected in both teachers’ and students’ attitudes.

Needs analysis

In order to design and develop the curriculum, all foundation students were given a needs analysis questionnaire prior to the start of the semester. Simultaneously, undergraduate lecturers took part in a focus group where they discussed the basic tasks and level of understanding required of UG students. Both students and UG lecturers were given questionnaires with 20 academic skills listed. Students were asked which skills they thought should be taught during the semester to best equip them for study at an undergraduate level. The lecturers were asked to identify the skills they perceived as essential at a UG level.

The responses to both questionnaires were analysed to ascertain any correlation between results. Interestingly, respondents identified four common skills: grammar, writing essays, note taking from texts and reading textbooks and journal articles. The students also selected speaking and listening in general conversations which would be more suitable for a general English course rather than an EAP course. Although we chose not to include these within the syllabus due to their ‘English for General Purpose’ content, students were encouraged to take part in a minimum of 2 hours a week of self-study in these subjects and extra activities were provided by the listening teacher. Therefore, the 4 common subjects became the core of the new curriculum in the form of an Academic Writing and Language Development module (which included remedial grammar), the Academic Reading module and the Academic Listening module.

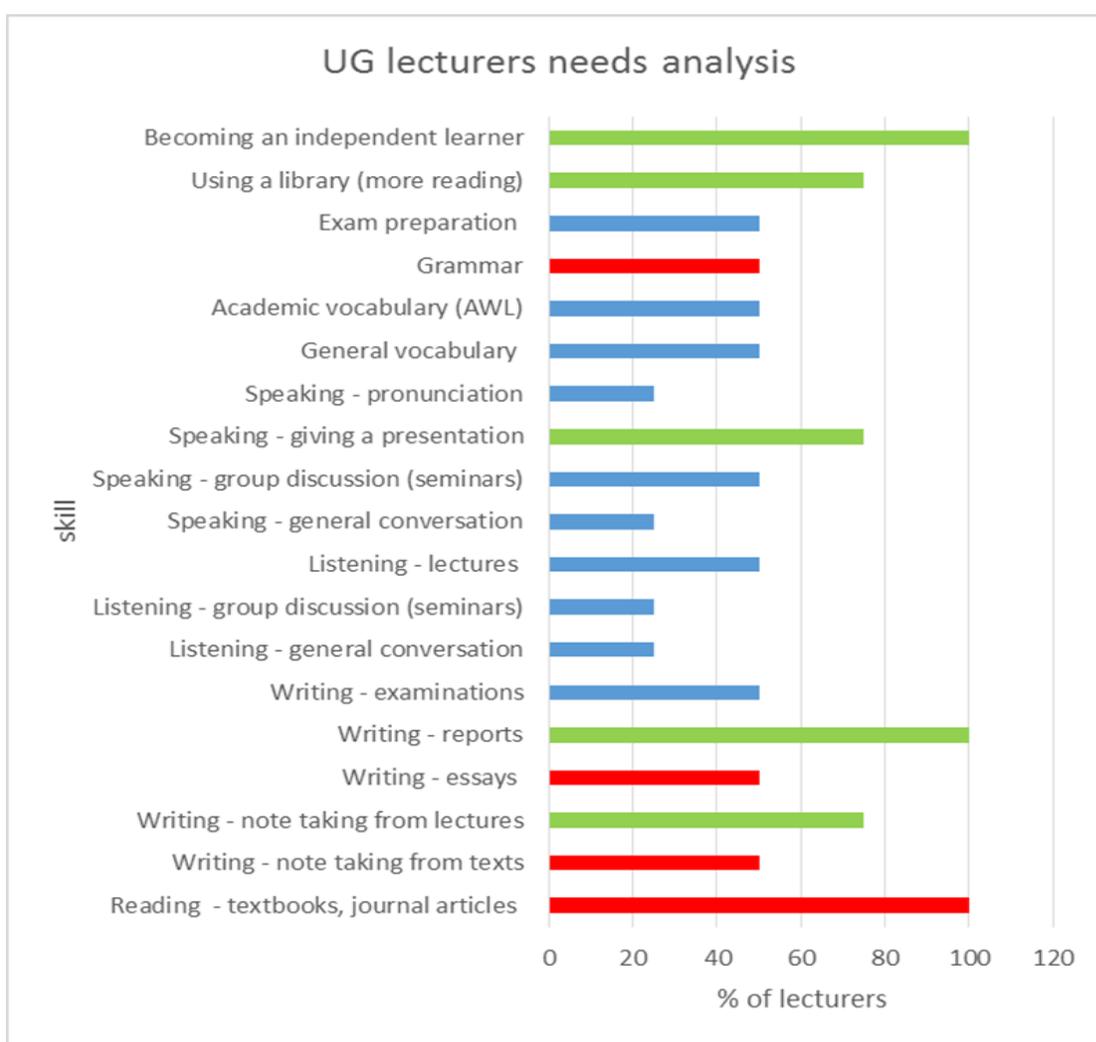


Figure 1: UG lecturers' responses to the needs analysis questionnaire. The red bars show the common themes selected by both students and lecturers.

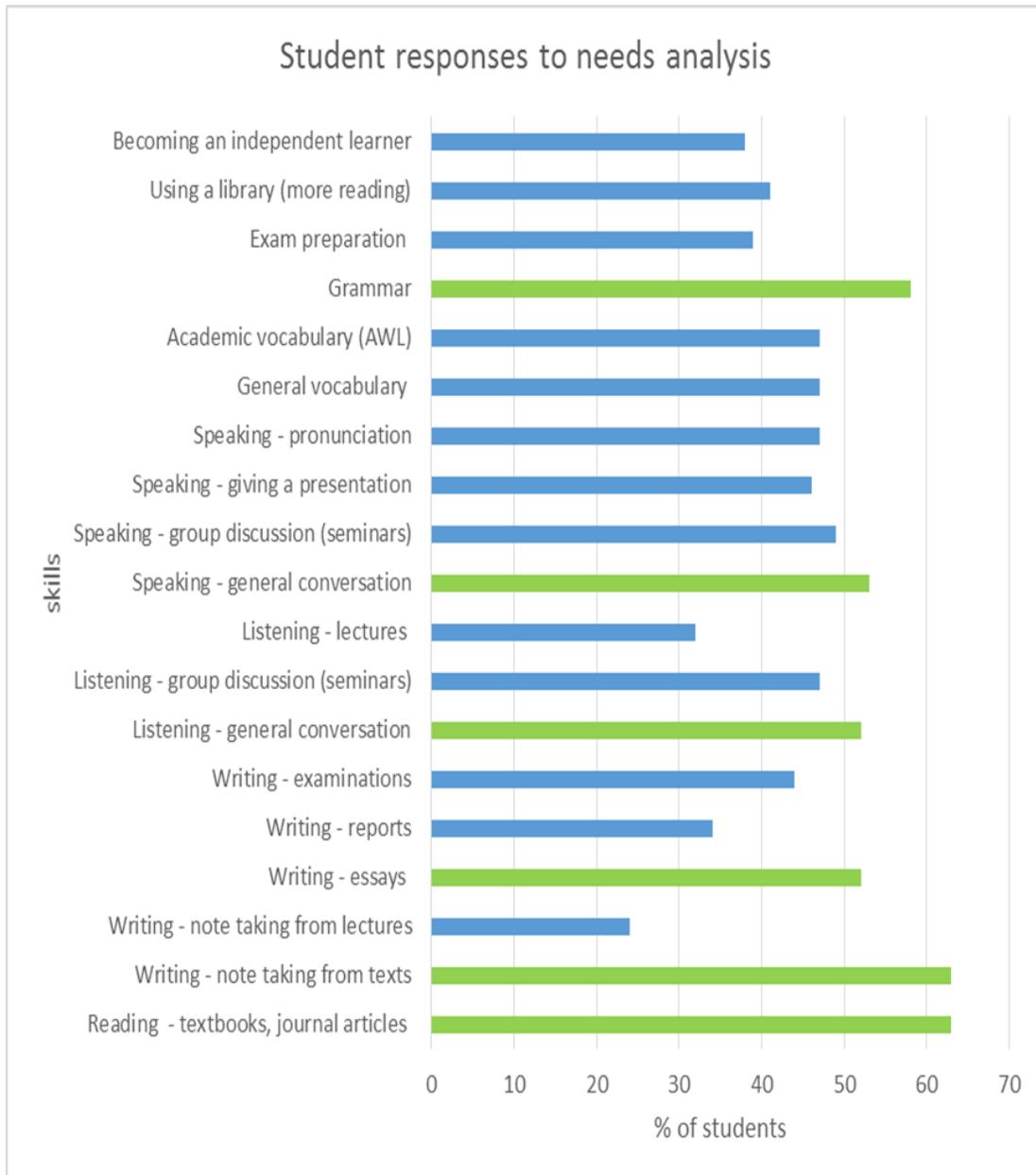


Figure 2: Students' responses to the needs analysis questionnaire. The green bars show the most selected skills (more than 50%) by the UG lecturers.

Mid semester evaluations

Students were given questionnaires at the end of each task cycle (every four weeks) to gain general

feedback. Questions were specific, asking students to agree or disagree with statements such as ‘I feel more confident using conjunctions’. The three questionnaires revealed that students generally felt as if they were improving in all skill areas. At the end of task cycle one, interestingly 100% of students who took the questionnaire said they already feel as if they are improving as a writer (see figure 3).

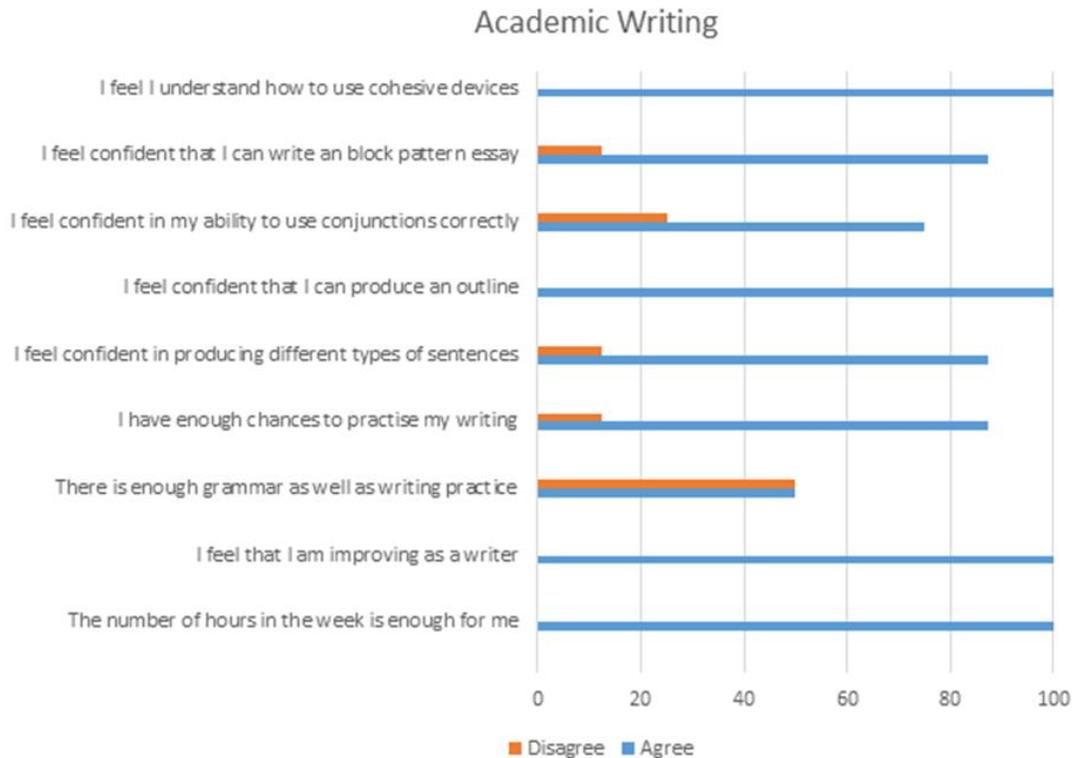


Figure 3: Students' responses to end of cycle 1 questionnaires – Academic writing

End of semester questionnaires

At the end of the first semester, the students were given a different type of questionnaire eliciting feedback on their lessons and the programme in general. We also questioned whether having exams every 4 weeks was excessive, but only 18% answered in the affirmative.

Overall, students stated that they found the 3 topic cycles very useful and beneficial for learning. From the open ended section of the questionnaire, the most common complaint was that there was a lack of speaking activities within the class as the lessons were mostly reading and writing based. However, this was something that was taken into consideration for the next semester.

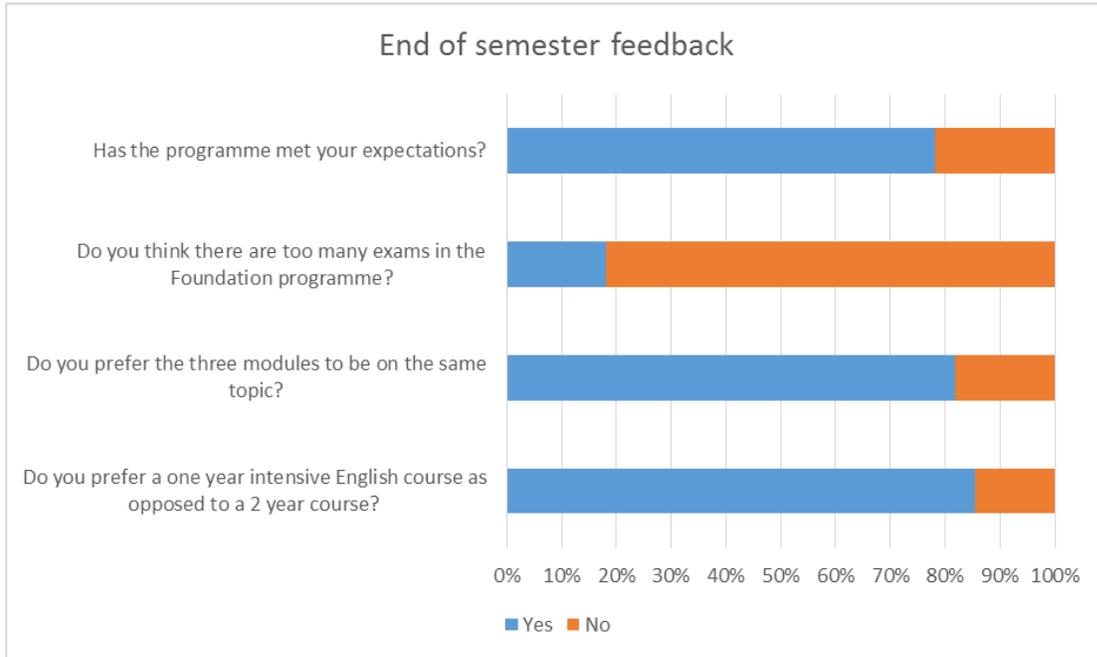


Figure 4: End of semester feedback by students

The open ended comments box on the questionnaire also became a space for students to share their positive feedback such as the comments below:



Figure 5: Word cloud displaying some of the positive comments from the end of semester questionnaire

Academic Reading Module

The reading module was designed on the 7 guiding principles outlined above. This course was defined as being a source of English where new vocabulary was met within a context, noticed and unpacked for understanding. The themed cycle-based approach allowed new acquisitions of language to be utilised within the productive module (writing). Clear remits were therefore established early on to avoid repetition between the modules and maximize useful opportunities to deepen vocabulary knowledge. Cycle texts for reading were chosen to reflect authenticity of task rather than of content. We chose texts which were of a reasonable length (re 850 - 900 words) allowing opportunities for analysis of discourse within lessons and incorporated the progressive element into the course by choosing texts which were progressively more complex in content.

As many students had a relatively low level of English, we sought to reduce the cognitive demands they faced by choosing topics which were familiar to them within the Kurdish context thereby encouraging focus on language acquisition. Texts were given in order of complexity thereby adhering to our principle of progression. Our concern for learner-centered led to a focus on the learner journey and acknowledge the various needs represented within our student body. Recognising that many students had a limited reservoir of general English, focus was given to both Academic Word List (AWL) and General Service List (GSL) vocabulary items, which the students might encounter in their future studies. The chosen texts were analysed to identify words which were essential for a general understanding of the text, and for those which were important for deeper understanding, and those items which would enable a thorough comprehension.

Resulting categorised vocabulary lists were further exploited by highlighting items from the AWL using an online AWL highlighter, which subsequently formed the focus of vocabulary tests at the completion of each cycle. Students were given texts in which the target vocabulary was highlighted to encourage noticing of words in context. These were accompanied by a worksheet which students used to notice and analyse the highlighted words.

Each themed cycle contained two texts accompanied by worksheets which aimed to scaffold the learning process through enabling students to practice the skills they would need in UG (prediction, skimming for gist, scanning for detail, deduction of meaning etc.). The use of two themed texts increased the opportunities for recycling and expansion of new words. As the course progressed, it became apparent that many students had limited dictionary skills being unable to identify the correct definition of homonyms from context. As a response to this need, worksheets were produced which scaffolded learning to help students notice and more accurately deduce the meaning of homonyms. This change positively affected the student experience and was later incorporated into the cycle exams to ensure that learners were being tested on skills and items which had been a focus of their learning experience.

Academic Listening Module

As with the writing and reading, the listening module was also part of the 3 task cycle curriculum.

Lectures and tasks in the listening module were all theme based and were designed to feed into the writing lesson. From the previous feedback from students regarding speaking and listening, some common complaints were that the tasks were not academic enough, too easy and they did not look at preparation for undergraduate study. With this feedback in mind, and teamed with the fact the timetable only permitted one hour of listening a week, we decided to make the course purely academic based. Student activities included listening to real academic lectures, various different note taking styles and activities, listening for comprehension and listening for gist. Each lesson started with a general discussion based on the theme of the lesson both as a lesson warm up and as a task to engage the students with the topic.

Academic Writing and Language Development

At the start of each cycle, the students were given a model essay for the particular rhetorical function we were focusing on, which was connected to the theme for that cycle. Model essays included highlighted academic words, which aided transferability of items and lessened the demand on learners who were already familiar with this concept in the reading module. This model essay was then analysed in class to notice Academic Word List items, grammatical functions, sentence structure, paragraph structure and essay structure. Similarly, grammar was contextualised in the model essays, which allowed it to be set at the students' level and need. Lessons were intended to be more meaningful as language was taught using student-generated essays and worksheets which were produced by isolating certain grammar features from model or student essays.

The production of tutor written model essays allowed for a tailoring of content which reflected the learners' context (Kurdistan), and the inclusion of concepts from the reading class, in addition to expansion of world knowledge, concepts and vocabulary.

For example, an essay contrasting a Kurdish diet to the Nordic diet picked up on the theme of saturated fats and food which students were exposed to in the receptive modules. Having worked on the language functions of the essay, the students wrote essays with the same rhetorical function as the model and related to the common theme. Essay tasks were related to the local Kurdistan context combining the elements of authenticity of task through the use of compare/contrast or advantage/disadvantage tasks with familiarity of content.

Regular feedback from the students allowed the team to modify the following cycle's contents to allow for a more positive student experience. For example, as a response to student feedback, the portfolio content was reduced in order to allow the students more time to focus on practising and improving their written skills. The students completed the first two cycles' essays in class in order to increase the reliability of the results and the final cycle essay was produced at home. This followed the principles of progression and authenticity.

Reflections

The process involved in curriculum design has been hugely beneficial for the team's professional development. By starting with the concerns of stake-holders, (UG professors and students) we were

able to hone a course which was based on fundamental principles rather than subjective suppositions. Our context-sensitive curriculum although challenging to implement due to the heavy workload involved, was flexible enough to respond to changing or newly realized learner needs. The clarity of purpose established for each module enabled comprehensive transferability of learning between receptive and productive elements in an aligned programme. Challenges related to limited resources, time constraints and often over-whelming workloads were overcome due to the cohesiveness within the teaching team. This was largely a result of the team's involvement in curriculum design and their commitment to the principles which underpinned it. This collective ownership proved vital for the successful implementation of the venture and increased staff motivation levels, which also affected the students' level of engagement demonstrated by higher levels of attendance.

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Investigating Students' Ability in Identifying English Modals

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Abstract

Model verbs are also called auxiliary verbs, helping verbs and modal auxiliaries. They are special auxiliary verbs that express the degree of certainty of the action in the sentence, attitude or opinion of the writer concerning the action. These auxiliary verbs are *can, could, may, might, must, ought to, shall, should, will, would* and *had better*.

Modality is one of the most difficult aspects of learning English, because the form of modals does not follow the conventional rules of grammar, and there are so many meanings of modals that students often get confused about which modal to use. Also, many EFL learners face difficulty in choosing the proper modal verb that fit certain situations because each modal verb has many functions. Therefore, this study aims at investigating fourth-year-college students' ability in identifying the meaning and function of English modals appropriately and using them properly. To fulfill the basic requirement of this study, the researchers have conducted a test, which comprises two questions. Certain conclusions suggestions and recommendations are put forward.

Introduction

1.1 The problem and Significance of the Study

Modals of English derive from a special Germanic class of verbs (the ancestor of English and the other Germanic languages). They always differ from ordinary verbs, and in the course of history of English, they have diverged from verbs even further, to the point where they now belong to a syntactic category of their own (Siewierska, 1991: int.). They are important because they form tenses and alter the meanings of sentences to show "necessity, demand, strong deduction, recommendation, permission and desire"(phpBB Group, 2014:int.).

Modality refers to the speaker's attitude towards the judgment / or assessment of what he says. The

complexity and multi-use of English modal auxiliaries comprise a serious challenge to EFL Students. EFL students have serious problems in using modals. Such problems are:

1. The misuse of modal auxiliary, that is attributed to the fact that same modal can express different meanings in different contexts as in Azar and Mthies (1995: 73).

I **could** meet you for coffee after class

In this example, **could** means future possibility, whereas in its usual use it expresses past ability as in

I **could** speak French when I was a child

Moreover, two or more modals can be used to express one single meaning for example:

That **must** be Sara

That **should** be Sara

That **may** be Sara

That **could** be Sara

Must, should, may, could in the above examples express **certainty**, the difference is only the degree of certainty.

This may result in confusion and even worst, among people who are trying to communicate either speech or writing (ibid., pp. 73- 75).

2. There is a rule assumes *present tense verbs with third person singular subject require an –s ending*, when students use this rule with modals - for example, she **can**s swim. It will cause an error because modal verbs do not take the inflection –s or –es in the third person singular, unlike other verbs (Celece Murcia and Freeman, 1999: 138).
3. Modals directly precede a verb without the intervening infinitive to that is required when two ordinary verbs follow each other in sequence:

I **can** go I **want to** go

*I **can to** go *I **want** go

This formal property may cause the students some trouble (Ibid, p.137).

4. The negation of the modals can be complex for students. There are two main reasons for this: Adding “not” after the modal does not always give the opposite meaning (because it can over generalize the idea/rule again) (Cristina, 2011:int.).
5. EFL learners encounter difficulties in both using modals and comprehending their meanings or discourse functions in texts. This difficulty can be attributed to the lack of a modal system in Arabic; although some Arab linguists have suggested that certain markers in Arabic such as *sa* and *swafa* can convey modal senses (Saeed, 2009:76).

1.2 Aim of the Study

The present study aims at finding out whether fourth year college students are able to identify the meaning and function of English modals appropriately and using them properly.

1.3 Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that fourth-year-college students have the ability to identify the meaning and function of English modals appropriately and using them properly or not.

1.4 Limits of the Study

This study is limited to the fourth year college students, Department of English, College of Education for Women- University of Baghdad, during the academic year (2013-2014).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Modals and Modality

Modals are defined by Feigenbaum (1985:115) as an attitude or evaluation of a situation, i.e., to give the speaker's or writer's point of view. For example, an action is *probable* or that it is *contrary-to-fact* (which is an indication of *permission* or *obligation* to do something).

In English grammar, modals are treated as one type of auxiliaries. An auxiliary in the sentence is everything from the end of the subject, noun phrase to the beginning of the main verb. Either past or present, the auxiliary is composed of various kinds of "helping" verbs, which may or may not be present in any particular sentence. As a matter of fact, the three types of "helping" verbs, the perfect, and the progressive are the modal auxiliaries (Wardough , 2003: 13).

Modality is not clear in the area of study because of its two broadly kinds: epistemic and deontic modality. Epistemic modality deals with the degree of speaker commitment to the truth of the proposition embedded under the modal. Deontic modality is concerned with the necessity or possibility of acts performed by the speaker (Papafragou ,1997:1).

Traditionally, modality is interpreted in terms of using modals. Although this is the most important notion through which modals can be studied, many linguists find that it is better to study modality in relation to other terms like tense and aspect. Modality and tense are closely related and encoded in prediction at the same level of depth as they clearly interact with each other. Aspect and modality are also interrelated in the sense that they both deal with the internal configuration of time as it is expressed in verbs. The perfective and progressive aspects are normally excluded when the modal expresses ability, or permission, and also when shall or will express volition. These aspects are freely used, however, with other modal meanings as in (Feigenbaum, 1985: int.):

Possibility *He may have missed the train*
 He may have been visiting his mother

*He **can't** be swimming all day*
*He **can't** have been working*

Necessity *He **must** have left his umbrella on the bus*
*I **must** be dreaming*
*You **must** have been sitting in the sun*

Prediction *The guests **will** have arrived by now*
*John **will** still be reading his paper*

According to Fintel (2005: int) there is cross-linguistic evidence that the three categories tense, aspect, and modality are expressed mainly by auxiliaries and closely interrelated. But for many linguists, modality is not a clear area of study. Thus, linguists recognize two broad kinds of modality; epistemic and deontic modality. Epistemic modality deals with the degree of speaker commitment to the truth of the proposition embedded under the modal. Deontic modality is concerned with the necessity or possibility of acts performed by the speaker (Papafragou, 1997:1). Palmer (1987:97) supports this by distinguishing the three functions of modality epistemic, deontic, and dynamic. These can be illustrated in the following examples:

John may be in his office	epistemic
John may/ can come in now	deontic
John can run ten miles with ease	dynamic

The difference in meaning between these three is that the first means it is possible that John is in his office, the second gives permission for John to come in, the third states that John has the ability to run ten miles with ease.

2.2 Form and Function of Modals

English modal auxiliaries are characterized by having certain formal restrictions that are reflected in some morpho-syntactic characteristics, such as the fact that they have no -s endings for the third person singular, and no infinitives. Marianne et. al. (1999: 138) states that modals are described formally as tensless auxiliaries that take no subject-verb agreement and no infinitive *to* before the following verb. For example:

1. I **can** go * I **can to** go
2. You **must** study *You **must to** study

Some modals may be inflected for either present or past tense like *should, might, could, and would*. However, the past tense of these modals doesn't always work in past time frames. For example:

3. **Would/ could** you please pass me the salt

In the above example, *would* and *could* refer to present time not past.

Furthermore, modals have no past participle and are therefore barred from combining the auxiliary 'have' to form the perfect:

4. We **have *must / had to** tell them.

Modals also don't have an '-ing' participle, and as a consequence, a modal is unacceptable in a position where this participle is required, e.g.:

5. We regret ***musting / having to** tell you this.

In addition, many of them also have weak and contracted forms. Examples:

Can **can't** **Must not** **mustn't**

All modals except *ought* are followed by simple-form verbs. Negatives are made by adding *not* to the modal. However, some modals like *have to* and *need* can be negated by adding *do* as in Murphy (1994:65)

6. We **needn't** hurry or We **don't need to** hurry

7. We **'ve got** a lot of time We **don't have to** hurry

In example no.6, don't need used with to but needn't without to

Questions are made by moving the modal before the subject as with any other auxiliary. Auxiliary *do* is never used with a modal (Lapalombara, 1976:int.). Examples:

8. **May** I borrow your book?

9. **Would** you hurry up please?

With respect to their function, modal verbs are considered to be a special kind of auxiliary verbs. Like other auxiliary verbs, they are always used with a main verb but they express an attitude to what we say. They can express how certain or uncertain we are about an event, or how willing or unwilling we are to do something. Modals are used for several reasons: to give a proposition a degree of probability, to express one's attitude, and to perform various social functions, such as expressing obligation, necessity, prohibition, and refusal; possibility, expectation, probability and certainty; promise and intention, ability and willingness. Politeness or indirectness for making request, giving advice, or granting permission. The following table shows the form and function for each modal.

Table (1) Forms and Function of Modals

<i>Modal</i>	<i>Function</i>	<i>Form in Present/Future</i>	<i>Form in Past</i>
Can	To show ability	I <u>can run</u> 10 miles.	I <u>could run</u> 10 miles when I was in high school.
	To suggest a possibility or to give an option To ask for or to give permission	Students <u>can pre-enroll</u> in classes or sign up at in-person registration. <u>Can I call you?</u> You <u>can leave</u> when you have finished your exam.	
Could	To show impossibility		
	To show past ability	It <u>cannot be</u> Jim standing over there. He went away for the weekend.	I <u>could run</u> 10 miles when I was in high school.
	To ask a polite question		Why wasn't Maria at the party last night? She <u>could have been</u> busy.
	To show possibility		He <u>could not have been</u> at the party last night. He was out of town.
	To show impossibility	<u>Could I call you?</u> Why isn't Maria here? She <u>could be</u> busy.	
	To show a past opportunity that was not realized	He <u>could not be</u> here at the party. He is out of town.	I <u>could have asked</u> for help on the math problem set, but I wanted to do it myself.

Ought to	To show obligation	I <u>should renew my driver's license</u> . It expires next month.	I <u>should have renewed my driver's license</u> . (But I forgot to do so.)
	To show an obligation that was not carried out		
	To show expectation	You <u>should receive my letter</u> in two days.	You <u>should have received my letter</u> two days ago. (But you did not.)
	To show an expectation that was not realized		
	To show advisability		Francis <u>ought to have exercise</u> before his backpacking trip. (But he did not.)
	To show advisability after the fact	Everyone <u>ought to exercise</u> regularly.	
	To show obligation		I <u>ought to have registered</u> to vote by October 5. (But I did not register.)
	To show an obligation that was not carried out	I <u>ought to register</u> to vote if I want to vote in the next election.	You <u>ought to have received my letter</u> two days ago. (But you did not.)
To show expectation			
To show an expectation that was not realized	You <u>ought to receive my letter</u> in two days.	Mike <u>had to make up</u> the physics lab he missed.	

Had better	To show advisability		I <u>did not have to</u> <u>cook</u> last night.
Have to	To show necessity	We <u>had better</u> <u>leave</u> . It is getting late.	
	To show lack of necessity	Mike <u>has to make</u> <u>up</u> the physics lab he missed.	
		I am glad that I <u>don't have to cook</u> tonight.	

These functions are not consistent; they may be changed according to the context in which they occur. For example, sometimes it doesn't matter whether you use *must* or *have to* to say that it is necessary to do something

10. Oh, it's late. I must go or I have to go.

But, in other situations, they are completely different

11. I promised I **would** be on time. I **mustn't** be late. (I must be on time) But;

12. I'm not working tomorrow. So, I **don't have to** get up early. (I don't need)

Celce Murcia and Freeman (1999:141) states that the person using modals must take into his /her own consideration the relevant features of the social situation. In the following examples:

13. You **may** leave the room and

14. You **can** leave the room

Both *may* and *can* are used to give permission. The speaker here should have sufficient status and authority to be able to grant permission to the interlocutor(s). From what is mentioned, the researchers summarize that modals "are used mainly in contexts where the speaker is talking about states of the world which he cannot assert to be true or real" (Mitchell 1988: 173-4 as cited in Klages and Romer, 2014:int.). There is an equally general lack of clear-cut categories into which the interpretations of specific modals may be parceled, especially within a language-teaching and

language-learning context. (ibid)

2.3 Modals and Indirect Speech

The direct – to –indirect speech shift requires changing the tense of the verb from present to past. This rule cannot be applied to all modals, because some modals don't have past form like *must and ought*, other modals although they have the so-called past tense but they don't always work in past-time frames eg.

15 *Would/ Could* you pass me the salt.

The use of reporting speech may result in some confusion, when (*will and would*) (*shall and should*) are changed into reported speech *will* becomes *would* and *Shall* becomes *should* as in

Mary asked, "Shall / will I put you down for ten to four" which changes to

Mary asked if she should/ would put him down for ten to four. Whereas *should* and *would* remain as they are when applying the direct- to indirect speech rule.

3. The Test

3.1 Test Construction

The researchers have constructed a test about English Modals on the 30th of January 2014. It consists of (30) items distributed into two questions. Question (A) includes two types: a completion question, and composing sentences question, each type consists of ten items; one mark was devoted for each item. Question (B) includes changing the sentences into indirect speech. It consists of ten items; two marks were devoted for each item, these two marks were divided as follows: one mark for the form of grammar and the other one for spelling. The total number of marks was 40 (see the Appendix A).

3.2 Population and Sample Selection

A. The Population

The population of the present study comprises 80 Iraqi EFL students of the Department of English, College of Education for Women- University of Baghdad, during the academic year (2013-2014).

B. The Sample

The sample has been chosen randomly from the population mentioned above. The reason behind the selection of this sample is that they have been introduced to English modals in their syllabus (during their study in the first, second and third year), i.e., they should have a clear idea about them. After excluding those students who are teachers and those who failed to attend the test, the total number of the sample was 50 students.

3.3 Test Validity

Validity means the extent to which a test measures what is intended to measure (Downie, 1967:92). In order to ensure the face validity, the test items have been exposed to a jury of experts in language and linguistics to judge whether the test items are suitable or not for the proposed purpose. The jurors are asked to read the test, add, delete or change the items, after that, the jurors have agreed upon its validity and suitability (see Appendix 2).

3.4 Test Reliability

The concept of reliability refers to the degree of consistency of the test measurement (Oller, 1979:4). In order to find out the test reliability, the items were divided into two halves (odd and even). Using the Pearson correlation formula, it is found out that the test reliability is 0.754. After applying the Spearman Brown formula, it was found out the test reliability is 0.859. This shows that the test is quite reliable and acceptable.

4. Results, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions

4.1 Results

A. In order to find out whether students of English department have the ability to identify the meaning and function of English modals appropriately and using them properly or not. The t-test formula for one sample is used. As shown in Table 2, the calculated t-value is 0.6426 which is less than the tabulated value (2) at level of significance 0.05.

Table (2) t-Test statistics for the responses of English Department Students in Recognizing English Modals

N	\bar{x}	SD	Computed t-value	Tabulated t-value	d.f	Level of Significance
50	16	11.005	0.6426	2	49	0.05

Table (3) The Responses of Students of the English Department in Recognizing English Modals

English Department		
Item No.	Correct Answers	Percentage
1.	47	94%
2.	28	56%
3.	20	40%
4.	12	24%
5.	18	36%
6.	32	64%
7.	18	36%
8.	28	56%
9.	18	36%
10.	32	64%
11.	14	28%
12.	37	74%
13.	32	64%
14.	20	40%
15.	40	80%
16.	14	28%
17.	13	26%
18.	10	20%
19.	32	64%

20.	20	40%
21.	23	46%
22.	35	70%
23.	21	42%
24.	38	76%
25.	17	34%
26.	23	46%
27.	21	42%
28.	42	84%
29.	39	78%
30.	40	80%

Table 3 reveals that some participants tend to use English modals correctly while others tend to use it incorrectly; below are **the top five percentages** used by the sample of the study:

The highest top five percentages of the fourth-year students were (94%) on item no. (1)

I forgot to close the door. -----you mind closing it for me?

(84%) on item no. (28)

They had better to carry the injured.

(80%) on item no. (15)

Ability

(78%) on items no. (29)

The policeman could do a good job.

and (76%) on item no.(24)

Obligation

These correct responses might have occurred due to students' overgeneralization of the grammatical rules based on their prior knowledge that enabled them to identify and recognize English modals (meaning and function) properly.

The lowest top five percentages of the fourth-year students were (20%) on item no. (18)

Prohibition

(24%) on item no. (4)

Thank goodness we _____ eat fish again tonight. Dad didn't catch any today.

(26%) on item no. (17)

Preferences

(28%) on item no. (11 and 16)

Opinion and Advice

(34%) on item no. (25)

Susan has to learn Geography.

These incorrect responses might be attributed to many meanings of modals that students often get confused about which modal to use. Also, many EFL learners face difficulty in choosing the proper modal verb that fit certain situations because each modal verb has many functions.

4.2 Conclusions:

In the light of the findings of the study, the researchers' conclusions can be summed up as the following:

1. It is proved that fourth-year-college students lack the ability to identify the meaning and function of English modals appropriately and using them properly because by using the T-test formula, it is found that the calculated T-value is (0.6426), which is less than the tabulated value (2)(see table 2).
2. When EFL students are introduced to modals, the teachers introduce the usage of modals regardless to their meanings and functions. Sometimes, students only memorize English

modals rules without paying attention to their meanings and functions. This happens because of the lecture method, traditional way of teaching (PPP Approach)¹.

4.3 Recommendations:

On the basis of the findings arrived at, the following recommendations can be stated:

1. One of the most difficult aspects of learning English is modality; therefore, a great attention should be paid to English modals by students and teachers of EFL with this kind of verbs and how to deal with them.
2. Students face difficulties in the meanings of modals. They should be acquainted with them by reading more about them and knowing their meanings and usage. EFL instructors are advised to emphasize the meanings of modals in order to help students to master the usage of them.
3. EFL instructors are recommended to use new methods of teaching, such as: Task-Based Approach, communicative approach ...etc, rather than the Lecture Method.

4.4 Suggestions for Further Research

In the light of the results obtained, the following suggestions are put forward:

1. A similar study can be conducted in other colleges, and a study in other stages is needed.
2. A similar study can be made to measure the students' ability in using and understanding English modals.

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¹ The Presentation Practice Production Approach, with this model, the teacher **presents** the language items in context through a text, a dialogue...etc. Then, students are asked to complete a controlled **practice** of the items through choral or individual drilling, fill gaps or match between halves of sentences. Finally, students are given a communicative task that they are expected to **produce** the target language for completing it (Frost, 2004: Int.).

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Appendix 1

Q A:

I. Complete the following sentences with correct modal auxiliaries taken from the list given below. Notice that in some cases you need to use negative: (1 marks for each item)

(can, would, may, could, should, might, ought, must, have to)

1. I forgot to close the door. _____ you mind closing it for me?
2. I have some work I _____ finish before I go to bed tonight.
3. Soldiers _____ disobey a superior officer.
4. Thank goodness we _____ eat fish again tonight. Dad didn't catch any today.
5. Bruce has lost a lot of weight lately. He _____ see a doctor.
6. Last night, Jack was very tired, he _____ go to a meeting.
7. A: I need to see Tom. Where is he?
B: In his room. Knock on his door softly. He _____ take a nap
8. The sky is getting overcast. It is quite likely that it----- rain tonight.
9. I used to be a good swimmer. I _____ swim long distances.
10. Why anyone else decide whether I Smoke in my own home? It's ridiculous.

II. Compose sentences using the modals given between brackets to express the following meanings: (1 marks for each item)

(have to, may, should, must, might, can, could, ought to, had better, would)

Opinion obligation possibility impossibility ability advice preference
prohibition permission request

Q B. Change the following sentences into Indirect Speech: (2 marks for each item).

1. Flight attendants will serve meals.
2. Passengers must fasten their seatbelts.
3. They will demonstrate safety precautions.
4. Passengers should read the safety precautions.
5. Susan has to learn Geography.
6. The children can read books.
7. Poor people cannot spend a lot of money.
8. They had better to carry the injured.
9. The policeman could do a good job.
10. You shouldn't make fun of the poor.

Appendix 2

The jury members were all selected from College of Education for Women/ University of Baghdad, their names were arranged according to their academic titles as the following:

1. Prof. Shatha Al-Saadi
2. Assistant Prof. Dr. Jassim Nasser
3. Assistant Prof_Haithem AL-Mashkooor
4. Instr. Narmeen Mahmood

Philosophy and Education

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Abstract

The conventional wisdom is that philosophy is too abstract to have any bearing on practice and is, therefore, dispensable in school education. It is this conception of philosophy that has brought about the apathy or the division that we have been seeing between philosophy and the majority of the general public. There certainly is some truth in this, especially with regard to philosophical matters that have little or nothing to do with what really matters to people, i.e. questions such as the existence of possible worlds. But philosophy does not only aim to respond to intellectual curiosity and quench this intellectual thirst that we have for knowledge or rational certainty. This, however intrinsically valuable in itself, is not the sole summum bonum of philosophy. Philosophy also aims to edify our minds, i.e. ethics. It aims to show us what the right way is or what actions are right, what justified and what not, what to believe and what not. Philosophy aims to discourage gullibility or credulity, which I think is a product or by-product of uncritical curriculum at any level of education in academia, especially in schools, for people at this age are more impressionable to dogmas and more vulnerable to end up credulous if subjected to uncritical curriculum in their early education, especially in pious societies or societies in which there is not much rational autonomy. Philosophy aims to instil a spirit in us that favors reason over authority, and rational beliefs over dogmas. It is because of this that I shall be, in this paper, arguing that the basics of philosophy should be taught at appropriate levels of education, ranging from primary to high schools.

Key words: Philosophy, Education, Curriculum, Critical thinking and credulity.

Education consists in the teaching of something, some rule or principle, whether it be scientific, social, abstract or practical, and to have an education is to have acquired some relevant belief, knowledge or skill from an educator or from your own experiences, using your own faculties, or merely from reading or studying something yourself. There is some evidence that Socrates was illiterate. He did not go to school. That is, he had no educators, yet he turned out to be one of the most educated of all humanity. He himself educated himself, using his own faculties, starting from commonsense to reach some of the most non-commonsensual conclusions: “*True knowledge exists in knowing that you know nothing*” (2004, p. 57). Thus, education takes either a monitored or a non-

monitored route – monitored education being, normally, a combination of both. It is our moral responsibility, as educators, to ensure that we direct education not merely in the way of responding to the need for teachers or employees for the market, but producing independent thinkers critical, creative and analytic in their thoughts. It is this that education should aim for, and it is this that is the essence of philosophy. Philosophy, argues Barry Stroud, is “reflection on very general aspects of the world, and especially those aspects that involve or impinge on the lives of human beings” (2001, p.5). That is, he takes philosophy to be “an activity, not a set of doctrines or truths at all” (2001, p. 33). Echoing Stroud’s position, Allen Wood too argues that philosophy “is a self-reflective activity” (2001, p. 98). Thus, philosophy, as normally referred to in the philosophical literature, is an armchair business that, argues Stroud, depends “on undying curiosity, and the pursuit of limitless enquiry. It arises out of a wish, or an attempt, to grasp the world as it is” (2001, p. 31-2). So, it is this intellectual thirst for knowledge or certainty that provokes philosophical thinking, but what characterizes it as philosophical thinking is its appeal to *reason*, as explained below. It is this that demarcates the realm of philosophy from theology, as demonstrated by Bertrand Russell:

Philosophy, as I shall understand the word, is something intermediate between theology and science. Like theology, it consists of speculations on matters as to which definite knowledge has, so far, been unascertainable; but like science, it appeals to human reason rather than to authority, whether that of tradition or that of revelation. All *definite* knowledge – so I should contend – belongs to science; all *dogma* ... belongs to theology. But between theology and science there is a No Man’s Land, exposed to attack from both sides; this No Man’s Land is philosophy (1996, p. 1).

Even though philosophy appeals to reason in its inquiries and often engages in thought experiments in its explanations, it is not a science itself, for it does not deal with empirical evidence, which is what characterizes a discipline as a science. But by virtue of having its roots in thinking, there is no scientific discipline that does not touch the essence of philosophy. So, in a sense, every science is a philosophy in itself. In fact, any discipline of study that deals with thinking has a philosophy, a way of thinking. All education, by virtue of being an education of some sort, promotes some thinking of some sort, but not all education promotes critical thinking. But this is the sort of thinking which education is supposed to encourage, and this is the sort of thinking that promotes innovative thinking. It is important that we keep education under regular check, and adapt it to suit or respond to the increasing sophistication of today’s generations. Education makes an invaluable difference in practice and thought. The more critical the education we offer, the more positive the difference we make in the lives of our learners. More importantly, poor education hinders or slows down a country’s pace of progress in moving towards a civil society. There normally is either a despotic regime or a bad education system in countries where there is no civil society. In order to produce creative or critical thinkers, education should aim to promote a scientific or a philosophical way of thinking where learning is normally inquiry-based. In order to ensure that this is the case, education should be designed in a way to encourage learners to think for themselves, consulting their own

reason or faculties rather than tradition, or authority in matters about which verifiable evidence is beyond the reach of human knowledge. That is, it should not aim to indoctrinate.

It is, however, acceptable to take the validity of a claim for granted on the basis of good authority. An idea that works is an idea that serves some purpose, and it is working ideas that often constitute grand initiatives. An education that leaves the mind free to judge or think for itself is one that contributes most to problem-solving, whether it be practical or theoretical. It is, therefore, important that education, at all levels, aims to promote thinking. And a thinking curriculum is, as argued by the distinguished American educational philosopher John Dewey, the only way to ensure good education: “The sole direct path to enduring improvement in the methods of instruction and learning consists in centering upon the conditions which exact, promote, and test thinking” (2011, p. 173-4). That is, it is only through creating conditions, such as ethical dilemmas, which provoke thinking that we can make genuine improvement in the methods of instruction or learning, and I believe that people should be introduced to thinking strategies or proper methods of thinking at an early age. I believe that education should be designed in a way to develop reasoning capacities, to teach people to think for themselves, to encourage them to consult their reason in their thoughts, to avoid dogmas and respect differences of opinion; and I believe that this should transpire at an early age through a curriculum that encourages thinking. Hegel is one of the proponents of having a curriculum that promotes independent thinking at an early age. He argues that “Education to independence demands that young people should be accustomed early to consult their own sense of propriety and their own reason” (2013, p. 35). And the best way to get children accustomed to consult their own reason in their thoughts is to expose them to the kind of questions or situations that make them think for themselves, and this is best achieved through philosophical questions, as argued by Philip Cam, the Australian educational philosopher:

If we are serious about teaching children to think, then we need to be serious about structuring the curriculum around thinking. This requires us to pay attention to the general thinking strategies and broad conceptual understandings that find a natural home in philosophy. By looking to the concepts and procedures of philosophy, we can help to integrate the curriculum and at the same time make children more effective participants in the process of learning².

Historically, we have used three ways to develop thinking strategies in children, and each of these three ways provides a framework for their understanding of the world or how things work. In almost all schools, there are modules that take a scientific world view, and these scientific subjects take an irreplaceable position in our early-year education. They teach children about invaluable things, such as the structure of the universe, the moon, the solar system, the laws of nature, planet earth and other planets. No serious academic takes problem with the teaching of the sciences in

² Available at: <http://www.philosophyinschoolsnsw.com.au/index.php?page=philosophy-for-a-thinking-curriculum>.

schools. But most of them disagree as to whether philosophy or theology should be used to teach children how to think or to teach them the morals we want them to learn. The question is not whether it is better to use philosophy or theology to develop reasoning capacities in children or teaching them what right or wrong is. I do not think any reasonable academic would disagree that philosophy can do a better job in this respect, for this is what the essence of philosophy is. The question is which one is, religiously, culturally or politically, safer to apply on children. Presumably, most religious groups or even some states or political entities think of the philosophy option in schools as a threat to the survival of their respective religion or to their political system, and this is understandable.

The problem, if it is a problem at all, with introducing philosophy into school curriculum is that its logic, its way of thinking is contagious. It affects all elements of thinking, no matter the object of the thinking. It cannot be incorporated in school curriculum without, directly or indirectly, undermining religious faiths. So, even if the philosophy class that we might use as an alternative to the existing theology class is designed in a way not to involve arguments about the existence of deities, it is still more likely that it would disintegrate or undermine children's belief in their respective deities. This is normally the outcome or by-product of philosophical thinking. But if we want education to aim at critical thinking, and if we believe that this is what we should develop in children at an early age, then this is what we should take as the end of education not the survival of a tradition of thought. It is a moral imperative, as educators, to exploit children's impressionability for good, developing their reasoning capacities early on, teaching them the tools through which they can make sound judgments or reasonable conclusions, and teaching them about what right or wrong is. The problem with the scripture classes that we currently have in schools is, due to their primary or, in some schools, sole focus on one religious faith, that there is a danger of developing a sense of intolerance or indoctrination in children. Credulity, however important an attribute it is for children of an early age, is another problem that scripture classes lead to. Religious education normally requires learners to accept or believe without question, an attribute that prevents critical or creative thinking. I think we should offer a philosophy class as an option for students who do not want to take scripture classes, and refine the existing scripture classes, making them focus on multi-faith teachings, rather than focus on one particular faith. Multi-faith classes will help develop a sense of tolerance in children towards other faiths.

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Investigating the Role of EFL Teachers in Developing Students' Cultural Awareness at University Level

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Abstract

Learning a foreign language goes well beyond the mere task of assembling lexical items in grammatically accurate sentences. It rather involves learning to communicate with others in the sense that language and communication necessitate engagement with culture. Regarding the need to investigate the role of teachers in developing students' cultural awareness in the different contexts of foreign language teaching, the current study endeavours to carry out a comparison between the role of teachers of College of Arts, College of Education and College of Basic Education in developing their students' cultural awareness. To be more specific, it aims to investigate teachers' opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning a foreign language. The study is designed in the light of one main null hypothesis, and two sub-hypotheses derived from it. To prove the validity of these hypotheses, a sample of English-as-a-Foreign-Language teachers of *conversation, reading comprehension, poetry, novel and drama* at the departments of English of the aforementioned colleges has been chosen. The sample comprised 32 teachers: 14 from College of Arts, 10 from College of Education and 8 from College of Basic Education; 19 males and 13 females; 16 teachers of linguistics and 16 teachers of literature. The results show that Male Teachers, and Teachers of Linguistics prioritise expanding the linguistic dimension over the (inter)cultural one and teaching linguistic competence more than intercultural competence; a point that is also emphasized by Teachers of College of Basic Education. In the same vein, the latter teachers, and Female Teachers think that an emphasis of foreign cultures can contribute to students' loss of cultural identity. Finally, the study further reveals that Teachers of Literature accentuate that culture teaching increases the students' already existing stereotypes of other peoples and cultures.

Key words: culture, Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, cultural awareness, intercultural competence, third culture, identity.

Introduction

A fact that has long been established is that language and culture are strongly linked to each other, and as such a crucial aspect of learning a foreign language (henceforth, FL) has been learning its

culture. To be more specific, teaching an FL is not the mere impartment of syntactic structures or new vocabulary items and expressions. It rather integrates, or should integrate, the foreign cultural aspects that accompany the language itself. This is so because effective communication is usually more than the memorization of proper grammatical formations and the accumulation of lexical items. To use English effectively, one needs to understand the cultural aspects closely related to the language.

Yet, English Language Teaching (henceforth, ELT), almost everywhere, heavily emphasises the components of the language, i.e. its sounds, words and grammatical structures, and neglects the cultivation of the students' cultural awareness. Accordingly, when meeting people from other cultures, students feel short of the means to communicate appropriately. This is added to the fact that learners of English as a foreign language (henceforth, EFL) are unaware of the foreign culture, usually think according to their train of thought, and duly replace the foreign cultural patterns by ones from their own. In other words, they use their own native cultural norms as criteria to communicate and value people from other cultures.

At university level in Iraq, it is noticed that the main concern of Teachers of English is to enable students pass the exam; an aim that emphasises linguistic competence on account of intercultural competence. This means that teachers do not pay much attention to students' acquisition of cultural knowledge and development of cultural awareness. As a result, students' learning of EFL does not go beyond a set of correct utterances devoid of real situations. Added to that, students can produce grammatically correct sentences, yet their language may appear awkward to English native speakers or even lead to misunderstanding, as they frequently feel helpless to use the FL and understand its appropriate use in normal intercultural communication.

The current research paper aims, in the main, at highlighting the very close pertinence of 'culture' to the process of FL learning and teaching. It also attends closely to the concept of 'cultural awareness' and underpins its positive role in developing both proficiency and success in English. Finally, the current research aims at identifying the extent of EFL teachers' awareness of the importance of culture in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

The present study is conducted to validate the following main hypothesis and its sub-hypotheses:

1. There are no statistically significant differences between EFL university teachers regarding their opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning an FL, in terms of their various colleges.
 - a) There are no statistically significant differences between EFL university teachers regarding their opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning an FL, in terms of their sex.
 - b) There are no statistically significant differences between EFL university teachers regarding their opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning an FL, in terms of their specialisation.

In addition to the theoretical part that attends very closely to many topics relevant to the subject of investigation, and in an attempt to investigate cultural awareness in EFL classrooms at university level, a questionnaire form has been designed. It was administered to three samples of EFL teachers at the departments of English/ College of Arts, College of Education and College of Basic Education/ University of Mosul during the academic year 2012-2013.

The present study is limited to the teachers of *conversation, reading comprehension, poetry, novel and drama* at the departments of English of the aforesaid colleges during the academic year 2012-2013.

Although the current study is not the first of its type, it is hoped that it will contribute to EFL teachers' better understanding of culture and its importance in the FL classroom.

Concept of Culture

Culture is a thorny word, and FL learners face problems that have vastness as that of the concept of culture. It is unanimously considered one of the most obscure and difficult social science terms to define. Williams (1983), therefore, believes that "culture is one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language" (p. 87). The word 'culture', from the Latin *colere*, with its root meaning 'to cultivate', generally refers to patterns of human activity. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1954), two well-known American anthropologists, revealed approximately 164 different definitions of the word culture in their study. They outline that the first attempt to define culture was made by anthropologists. For instance, in the first lines of his book *Primitive Culture* (1920), originally stated in (1871), Taylor defines culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (p. 1).

Culture is not innate; rather it is learned through socialisation (interactions with others) and observation. At a broader level, Goodenough (1957) maintains that culture is what every individual must know in order for him/her to operate in a manner acceptable to the members of a certain society. By this definition, one can notice that culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, people, behaviour or emotions. It is rather an organisation of these things. It is the formation of things that people have in mind, their models for perceiving, relating and hence interpreting them.

Brooks (1975) distinguished between "culture as everything in human life" and "culture as the best of everything in human life". He calls the first sense Culture BBV: Beliefs, Behaviour and Values. The second sense is Culture MLA: Music, Literature and Art (p. 20). This distinction is sometimes referred to as culture and Culture, or more commonly, as culture and civilisation. Furthermore, Rivers (1981) maintains that 'civilisation' (or formal culture) traditionally comprises such aspects as history, geography, arts, literary achievements, political, economical, educational and/or religious institutions, and the main philosophical concepts of the society. On the other hand, 'culture' includes aspects of everyday lifestyle of ordinary people and their values, beliefs and prejudices.

According to Kramersch (1995), there are two different ways of understanding culture, viz. culture in form and culture in concept. The first one is derived from the study of humanities. Here, culture is referred to as the way a social group represents itself and others through material production. The other way of understanding culture views the phenomenon as derived from the contributions of social sciences and involves attitudes, beliefs, ways of thinking, behaving and remembering shared by members of a community. Kramersch (1998), later on, defines culture as “membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings” (p. 10). Thus, through culture learning one comes to know and believe whatever one has to do to operate in a manner acceptable to other members in that society.

Viewed from another perspective, culture is defined as an elastic, dynamic concept; a “complex frame of reference that consists of patterns of traditions, beliefs, values, norms, symbols and meanings that are shared to varying degrees by interacting members of a community” (Ting-Toomy, 1999: p. 10). On the other hand, Scollon and Scollon (2001) use the word ‘culture’ in its anthropological sense, comprising the “customs, worldview, language, kinship system, social organisation and other taken-for-granted day-to-day practices of a people which set that group apart as a distinctive group” (p. 139). This definition implies that any aspect of the ideas, communications or behaviours of a group of people gives them a distinctive identity and is used to organise their internal sense of cohesion and membership.

Language and Culture

To begin with, the relation of language to culture is that part to whole. It is in the course of learning one’s language and how to use it that every human being acquires the bulk of his/her culture. Hence, language is not only a part of culture; it is a major instrument for learning it (Goodenough, 1957: 169). In the same vein, Brooks (1971) affirms that “language is a segment of and a bearer of culture and should be treated culturally and used by the students with concern for the message it bears” (pp. 57-58). Most accurately, Rivers (1981) states that “language cannot be separated completely from the culture in which it is deeply imbedded” (p. 315). On his part, Byram (1989) believes that language refers to something beyond itself; the meaning it carries frequently seems especially relevant than the language itself, and so a language cannot be used without carrying meaning and referring beyond itself. In this sense, a language maintains and conveys culture. It is a carrier of culture. More specifically, language is a reflection of culture and culture is a reflection of language.

Moreover, Byram (1991) states that “language is not simply a reflector of an objective cultural reality. It is an integral part of that reality through which other parts are shaped and interpreted” (p. 18). He goes on stating that if students are taught language without culture, they would build their knowledge on their stereotypes and they may convey the information they get about English language in the context of their own culture. He believes that if language is taught away from its culture, students “cannot be said to be learning an [FL] in the proper sense; they are learning a

codified version of their own” (Byram, 1991: p. 18). This proves the inevitable interrelated relationship between language and culture.

Underlying the contemporary notion of the language-culture relationship are the writings of Sapir and Whorf. What became known as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis suggests that the language one uses determines the way in which s/he views and thinks about the world around him/her; it is a very influential but controversial theory concerning the relationship between language, thought and culture. What this theory suggests is this: one’s language helps mould his/her way of thinking and, consequently, different languages probably express one’s unique ways of understanding the world (Hudson, 1996). Put it differently, according to the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, people do not use language just to describe what they say and think; language affects the way people say words and build sentences and the way people see what they describe. That is to say, language and culture are indispensable and they go hand in hand. The theory suggests that one perceives the world in terms of categories found in his/her native language and what is found in one language may not be found in the other because of cultural differences.

Kramersch (1998: 3) summarises the relationship between language and culture stating that language expresses cultural reality, embodies cultural reality and symbolises cultural reality. Hence, language and culture are inseparably interrelated; understanding one requires understanding the other. As a result, learning an FL means more than mere linguistic competence; i.e. language is not about neutral codes or grammatical rules. If one selects language without being aware of its cultural implications, s/he may at best not communicate successfully and at worst send the message. Language learning is culture learning. Thus, language and culture should be taught simultaneously.

The Importance of Culture in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Culture and the need to teach it in FL classrooms have been an ongoing debate for many years. Much has been written in favor of, and against teaching culture in language courses. As early as 1959, Politizer stated that language teachers must be interested in the study of culture not because they necessarily want to teach the culture of the other country but because they have to teach it. He goes on stating that “if [one] teaches language without teaching at the same time the culture in which it operates, [s/he is] teaching meaningless symbols to which the student attaches the wrong meaning” (pp. 100-101). Accordingly, in spite of their awareness of the grammatical structures, vocabulary items and ways of pronouncing words, EFL students, including the Iraqi ones, are still in need of some cultural knowledge.

Damen (1987) explicates that “culture learning is a natural process in which human beings internalise the knowledge needed to function in a certain societal group. It may occur in the native context as enculturation or in a non-native context as acculturation” (pp. 140-141). ‘Acculturation’, according to Acton and Felix (1986), is the process of the gradual adaptation to the target culture without necessarily forsaking one’s native language identity. ‘Enculturation’, contrariwise, is the

process of “learning one’s native culture which is essentially complete for those normal individuals who are able to participate in the environment in which they are reared” (Chastain, 1988: p. 299).

The importance of cultural awareness in FLT emerges fundamentally from the fact that most language students are not exposed to the cultural aspects of the FL in use and, hence, they seem to face considerable hardship while conveying meaning to its native speakers (Bada, 2000). Most importantly, culture should be taught from the very beginning of language learning and is not delayed until students have acquired some of the language. One possible reason is that delaying input about culture does not only delay culture learning, but also leads to false culture learning as a result of a lack of awareness of difference between the foreign culture and one’s own. Taken together, the teaching of language and culture, thereto, leads to an understanding of the different ways language and culture affect how one sees the world, communicates about the world, and reflects upon seeing and communicating (Liddicoat et al, 2003).

In the light of the preceding propositions, the influence of culture on LT can be detected in two ways. First, linguistically, by influencing the semantic, pragmatic and discourse levels of language. Second, pedagogically, by affecting the choice of language materials since the cultural content of language materials and the cultural basis of the teaching methodology will be of considerable importance when deciding upon the language materials (McKay, 2003). However, despite its great importance for language learning, culture as an explicit subject is often neglected in EFL classrooms. On this point, Genc and Bada (2005) believe that “culture classes have a humanising and a motivating effect on the language learner and the learning process” (p. 75).

According to Liddicoat (2008), teaching culture should begin at the very beginning of LT. Thus, if teaching the culture is left, students will have already created their own understanding of context for the language in use; an understanding they suppose not to learn. Language is not learnt away from culture which can be filled in later; rather students create their own cultural hypotheses as they learn. The lack of a cultural input does not leave an unoccupied cultural surplus. Instead, it reinforces a cultural space which is filled by irregular and unanalysed presumptions based on assumptions and understandings from the students’ native culture.

In a nutshell, it can be said that culture and LT cannot be taught separately. As such, by learning about the various aspects of a foreign culture, students typically expand their cultural view into two directions, i.e. they learn their own and the others’ culture.

Cultural Awareness

Students’ cultural awareness toward the FL and its cultural aspects has a great impact on their English learning practice and performance. English learning does not merely mean the memorization of the grammatical formations (or exercises) and the accumulation of the lexical items. The inseparability of the language and culture makes English language teaching and learning a process of acknowledging and accepting the English cultural features and elements. Hall (1959)

believes that cultural awareness involves uncovering and understanding one's own culturally conditioned behaviour and thinking as well as the patterns of others. Thus, the process involves not only perceiving the similarities and differences in other cultures but also recognising the ones of the native culture or our own 'hidden culture'.

Cultural awareness entails an understanding not only of the culture of the language being studied but also of the students' own culture. This is viewed as an intrinsic part of language learning and without it, successful communication may be impossible (Byram, 1989). Accordingly, cultural awareness teaching should involve both viewpoints, making students both ethnographer and informant, and allowing them to gain a perspective through comparison which is neither entirely one nor the other (Byram, 1991). Viewed from another point of view, Kramsch (1993) states that if culture is seen as mere information conveyed by the language, not as a feature of language itself, in this case, cultural awareness becomes an educational objective in itself, separate from language. But, if language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of LT. In this sense, cultural awareness must then be viewed both as enabling language proficiency and as being the outcome of reflection on language proficiency.

According to Tomalin and Stempleski (1993), cultural awareness means "sensitivity to the impact of culturally induced behaviour on language use and communication" (p. 5). There are three qualities concerning cultural awareness suggested by Tomalin and Stempleski, namely

- awareness of one's behaviour influenced by his/her culture,
- awareness of others' behaviour influenced by their own culture, and
- ability to explain one's own cultural point of view.

The implication is that such awareness will lead to empathy; an important step in successful language learning being the capacity to identify with the FL culture.

Thus far, it is obvious that when one talks about cultural awareness, s/he does not mean only his/her culture but also other people's. Lack of cultural awareness will definitely cause miscommunication. Therefore, raising cultural awareness is crucial because it helps promote language learning and communication success. This clearly reflects the relationship between LT and cultural awareness. In consequence, Byram et al (1994) assert that

"a growing awareness of the culture of the people who speak the language of study is intrinsic to the learning of it and it is in this context that the areas of experience have been defined in the second part of the programmes of study. Without the cultural dimension, successful communication is often difficult ... comparison between the learner's own way of life and that of the other language community are an essential means to better understanding of both" (p. 75)

Building on that, Byram (1997: 65) contends that cultural awareness involves a reflexive aspect, a questioning of students' cultural identity and a relativisation of their naturalised, taken-for-granted values, beliefs and actions. It also involves a comparative methodology which, through

juxtaposition, facilitates understanding of others, of foreign cultural values, beliefs and practices. Besides, Krasner (1999) maintains that FL skills require some background cultural knowledge. He explains that students might have difficulties in understanding a foreign text not because of the lack of language skills but because of a missing link in cultural knowledge.

By the way of summary, cultural awareness should not be raised merely to have students understand the culture(s) of the FL only. Students need to be aware of their own culture(s) as well. Thus, cultural awareness should be set as one of the major aims in modern FLT. Additionally, the more profound, skillful and detailed study of the cultural aspects an EFL student gains, the less communicative barriers will occur in his/her actual use of the FL.

Intercultural Competence

After having introduced cultural awareness and cultural knowledge and their relation with FLT, it is worth mentioning that these two concepts constitute important elements of the 'Intercultural Competence' (henceforth, IC). However, to conceptualise IC, it might be useful to think first about cultural competence. Cultural competence is something individuals all have; it is the capacity that enables them to be members within their own society. Like language, this is something not heavily thought about as one has been culturally competent as long as s/he can remember. Also similar to language, cultural competence developed through a gradual process of enculturation beginning at birth (Fantini, 2012: 270).

Meyer (1991) defines IC as the capacity of a person to behave adequately and in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures. IC in addition refers to the ability of "stabilising one's self-identity in the process of cross-cultural mediation, and of helping other people to stabilise their self-identity" (p. 137). On the other hand, Byram (1997: 33) affirms that teaching culture with language strengthens the five so-called 'savoirs' or capacities that constitute IC, or sociocultural competence (Byram, 2003: 60). These 'savoirs' are also complementary to language learners' communicative competence and are believed to be the factors needed for effective communication. They are:

1. The attitude factor (*savoir etre*) refers to interest and clarity, willingness to delay unbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own.
2. Knowledge (*savoirs*) of community groups and their outputs and applications in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country and of the common stages of societal and personal interaction.
3. The first skill set, skills of interpreting and relating (*savoir comprendre*), describes a capacity to understand a document or event from another culture, to expound it and link it to documents from one's own.
4. The second skill set, skills of discovery and interaction (*savoir apprendre faire*), subsumes the capacity to utilise knowledge, attitudes and skills under the restriction of real-time communication and interaction.
5. Critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*) is the ability to assess critically, and on the foundation of distinct criteria prospects, applications and outputs in one's own and other cultures and countries (Byram, 1997, 2003).

Most importantly, these five *savoirs* should not be regarded as isolated components but rather as components that are integrated and intertwined with the various dimensions of communicative competence (Sercu, 2002).

Moreover, Byram and Fleming (1998) claim that someone who has IC “has knowledge of one, or, preferably, more cultures and social identities and has the capacity to discover and relate to new people from other contexts for which they have not been prepared directly” (p. 9). In short, IC is the ability to use language in culturally appropriate ways.

Additionally, LT with an intercultural dimension continues to help students acquire the linguistic competence needed to communicate in speaking or writing and to formulate what they want to say/write in correct and appropriate ways. It also develops students IC, namely their ability to ensure a shared understanding with people of different social identities, and their ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality (Byram et al, 2002). Taken together, Liddicoat (2011) believes that IC involves awareness besides the ability of analysing, explaining and elaborating this awareness. The development of awareness and knowing of language and culture, for ‘the intercultural language learner’, is established “through the experience of another language and through this language another culture” (p. 839). Recently, Barrett et al (2013) propose that the components of IC encompass “attitudes, knowledge and understanding, skills and actions” (p. 7-8). Still, it is worthwhile to state that for these components to be effective, they need to be organised and put into practice through action during intercultural encounters.

In a nutshell, IC requires students to develop a view of two cultures (their own and that of FL) and a position where they mediate between these two. Consequently, both EFL students and teachers need to develop IC in order to recognise openly that people are not all the same beneath the skin.

The Role of Foreign Language Teachers in Developing Cultural Awareness

The fact that a noticeable number of FL teachers, including Iraqi EFL teachers, are not native speakers of the language and that most of them have never lived within the foreign culture does not mean that they are unqualified for their role as teachers of language and culture. The culture teacher, as Trivonovitch (1980) argues, has to realise that since his/her own culture has been learned subconsciously and affectively, it is now necessary to become aware of the different patterns of his/her culture. Through this, students can constructively be guided in their own adventure into “discovering, perceiving, and proving their unique values and patterns of behaviour” (p. 554).

Rivers (1981) believes that whether native speakers or FL teachers, they need to acquire sufficient knowledge of the way cultures are organised, their value system, institutions and interpersonal relationships. Where or when possible, teachers should live for some time in both the cultures (i.e. students’ native and the FL culture) to be taught. But if this is not possible, teachers must compensate for this lack by disciplined reading. Teachers need to read what the people living in the

foreign culture read, namely books, newspapers, magazines, etc., listen to radio and watch television broadcasts where accessible and films made for local use. Also, whenever possible, teachers and students should contact with native speakers and discuss all kinds of subjects with them.

Most importantly is that teachers are not in the classroom to focus on the prejudices of their students nor to attack their deeply held beliefs and values. Therefore, “any presentation of cultural material must be objective, analytic, and informative” (Rivers, 1981: p. 340). On the other hand, Dunnet et al (1986) suggest that in addition to training students for appropriate linguistic performance, FL teachers must also lead their students to be aware of the proper linguistic performance in various types of intercultural situations. Viewed from another perspective, Morain (1987) states that if FL teachers are to assist bridging gaps in understanding between cultures, they must teach more than verbal language. They are responsible to help their students be aware of belief systems along with their own and an understanding of the differences in modes of perception and expression.

Byram (1991) portrays an FL teacher as ‘mediator’ whose task is to help students understand themselves and the world around them. That is, the specific task as a teacher of language and culture is to help students realise that the world is neither monolingual nor mono-cultural. Hence, successful students would gain a perspective which is not simply an expansion of their existing horizons but one which enables them to see new and quite different horizons. In other words, EFL teachers should not force their students to admire British and/or American culture but rather show them that English may become a tool for widening their horizons.

The integration of culture into FL lessons is a necessity in order to teach students in the best possible manner and help them learn an FL correctly, successfully and importantly appropriately. Accordingly, Kramsch (1993) advises teachers and students to create what she calls ‘a third culture’ in the FL classrooms which is a conceptual space that identifies the FL classrooms as the crossroads of multiple world of discourse. She further recommends teachers to encourage students to create this third culture while, at the same time, not allowing either the home or the foreign culture to hold them hostage to its certain beliefs and value systems.

Thus far, it goes without saying that FL teachers should be foreign culture teachers. They should have the ability to experience and analyse both the home and foreign cultures through comparative studies (Byram et al, 1994). Likewise, what teachers should always have in mind when teaching culture is the need to raise their students’ “awareness of their own culture, to provide them with some kind of meta-language in order to discuss culture, and to cultivate a degree of intellectual objectivity essential in cross-cultural analyses” (Straub, 1999: p. 19).

A final point suggested by Gonen and Saglam (2012) is that FL teachers should pay close attention to cultural variation within the language classroom, since the classroom itself has its own cultures.

Therefore, ‘culturally responsive teachers’ are those who come to a comprehensive understanding of cultural diversity within the classroom and within the FL. Such an understanding necessitates teachers to focus on cultural differences in the classroom as a starting point; thus driving students to develop intercultural awareness. Once such awareness is produced, the teacher can, subsequently, attend to the similarities and differences between his/her students’ own culture and the foreign one. Moreover, in order for teachers to be culturally responsive, they need to concentrate on their own definitions of culture and pay noticeable attention to the influences that culture can have on the students and teachers’ behaviour.

To sum up, when learning an FL, one will inevitably encounter a new culture. The foreign culture may bear some similarities to the native one but for the most part, they may vary from each other. As such, it is the language teacher’s capacity and responsibility that help his/her students understand others as a basis for the acquisition of intercultural and communicative competence. The teacher is therefore a professional mediator between students and FLs and cultures.

Method

To investigate the role of EFL teachers in developing students’ cultural awareness at university level, a questionnaire that subsumes a number of items was constructed as a means for eliciting data after intensive reviewing of the related literature. Likert scale questions to create a compact questionnaire were used to collect general information and details at the same time (See Appendix (A)).

Participants

EFL teachers at the departments of English, Colleges of Arts, Education and Basic Education/ University of Mosul form the population of the present research. In total, there were 32 respondents. They were 14 from College of Arts (henceforth, CATs) with the percentage of 43.75% as a majority, followed by 31.25% or 10 teachers from College of Education (henceforth, CETs) and 25% or 8 teachers from College of Basic Education (henceforth, CBETs). Also, 19 male teachers (henceforth, MTs); 13 female teachers (henceforth, FTs); 16 teachers of linguistics (henceforth, Ts/Ling.) and 16 teachers of literature (henceforth, Ts/Lit.).

Data Analysis and Discussion of Results

A precise analysis of the collected data for a research work usually comes to the forefront immediately after setting the aims, formulating the hypotheses, identifying and applying the suitable instruments, and scoring the obtained data. As such, t-test and ANOVA test formulas have been used to analyse the data. Such statistical tools are thought to be the most appropriate ones to analyse the responses given by the sample of teachers. In the following pages, the results of the analysis will be outlined and duly discussed in relation to the set hypotheses.

The First Null Hypothesis

The first hypothesis states that:

“There are no statistically significant differences between EFL university teachers regarding their opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning an FL, in terms of their various colleges”.

Table (1): ANOVA Results for CATs, CETs and CBETs' Opinions of the Role of Culture in Teaching and Learning an FL

Descriptive				
Items	College	N	\bar{M}	SD
1	CATs	14	3.6429	1.39268
	CETs	10	2.1000	1.10050
	CBETs	8	2.8750	1.45774
2	CATs	14	4.6429	1.15073
	CETs	10	4.1000	0.73786
	CBETs	8	4.5000	1.41421
3	CATs	14	4.5714	1.22250
	CETs	10	4.3000	1.56702
	CBETs	8	3.8750	1.35620
4	CATs	14	3.5714	1.15787
	CETs	10	2.7000	1.76698
	CBETs	8	3.0000	0.75593
5	CATs	14	4.3571	1.78054
	CETs	10	4.5000	0.84984
	CBETs	8	5.1250	0.99103
6	CATs	14	4.4286	1.65084
	CETs	10	5.3000	0.67495
	CBETs	8	4.7500	1.03510
7	CATs	14	4.6429	1.08182
	CETs	10	4.0000	1.05409
	CBETs	8	5.5000	0.75593
8	CATs	14	3.1429	1.23146
	CETs	10	2.5000	1.08012
	CBETs	8	3.5000	1.77281
9	CATs	14	4.1241	0.96077
	CETs	10	4.1000	0.56765
	CBETs	8	5.0000	0.75593
10	CATs	14	2.0714	1.07161
	CETs	10	2.3000	1.25167
	CBETs	8	2.7500	1.83225
11	CATs	14	4.7143	0.72627
	CETs	10	4.2000	1.03280
	CBETs	8	4.8750	0.99103
12	CATs	14	5.0714	1.14114
	CETs	10	4.5000	0.84984

	CBETs	8	5.1250	0.64087		
Total	CATs	14	49.8571	5.18663		
	CETs	10	44.6000	5.75809		
	CBETs	8	50.8750	5.38351		
ANOVA Results						
Items	S.O.V	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F cal.	F tab.
1	Between Groups	13.979	2	6.990	3.975	3.33
	Within Groups	50.989	29	1.758		(2,29)
	Total	64.969	31			(0.05)
2	Between Groups	1.761	2	0.880	0.707	3.33
	Within Groups	36.114	29	1.245		(2,29)
	Total	37.875	31			(0.05)
3	Between Groups	2.471	2	1.236	0.659	3.33
	Within Groups	54.404	29	1.876		(2,29)
	Total	56.875	31			(0.05)
4	Between Groups	4.690	2	2.345	1.373	3.33
	Within Groups	49.529	29	1.708		(2,29)
	Total	54.219	31			(0.05)
5	Between Groups	3.129	2	1.565	0.831	3.33
	Within Groups	54.589	29	1.882		(2,29)
	Total	57.719	31			(0.05)
6	Between Groups	4.440	2	2.220	1.369	3.33
	Within Groups	47.029	29	1.622		(2,29)
	Total	51.469	31			(0.05)
7	Between Groups	10.004	2	5.002	4.966	3.33
	Within Groups	29.214	29	1.007		(2,29)
	Total	39.219	31			(0.05)
8	Between Groups	4.754	2	2.377	1.320	3.33
	Within Groups	52.214	29	1.800		(2,29)
	Total	56.969	31			(0.05)
9	Between Groups	5.569	2	2.784	4.272	3.33
	Within Groups	18.900	29	0.652		(2,29)
	Total	24.469	31			(0.05)
10	Between Groups	2.346	2	1.173	0.648	3.33
	Within Groups	52.529	29	1.811		(2,29)
	Total	54.875	31			(0.05)

11	Between Groups	2.387	2	1.193	1.483	3.33
	Within Groups	23.332	29	0.805		(2,29)
	Total	25.719	31			(0.05)
12	Between Groups	2.415	2	1.208	1.331	3.33
	Within Groups	26.304	29	0.907		(2,29)
	Total	28.719	31			(0.05)
Total	Between Groups	222.979	2	111.490	3.799	3.33
	Within Groups	850.989	29	29.344		(2,29)
	Total	1073.969	31			(0.05)

Discussion

As the preceding table indicates, it is obvious that items 1, 7 and 9 have computed 'f' values that are higher than the tabulated value (3.33) at (0.05) alpha level of significance and (2,29) degrees of freedom.

Regarding item 1 which reads that "In an EFL classroom, teaching culture is as important as teaching language", the statistically significant difference is for the benefit of CATs, as its mean score (3.6429) is higher than that of CETs and CEBTs which is (2.1000) and (2.8750) respectively. As such, CATs think that teaching culture is as important as teaching language in EFL classroom. Whereas for the items 7 and 9, the statistically significant difference is in favour of CBETs, as their mean scores (5.5000, 5.0000) are higher than that of CATs and CETs, which are (4.6429, 4.1241) in item 7 and (4.1241, 4.1000) in item 9. With regard to item 7 which states that "An emphasis on the study of foreign cultures can contribute to the student's loss of his/her cultural identity", CBETs believe that emphasis on the study of foreign cultures can contribute to students' loss of their identity. Such a result is not in agreement with Dunnet et al (1986) who confirm that an EFL teacher, while introducing some aspects of the culture to his/her students, must encourage them to preserve their own cultural identity. Thus, it is the teachers' role to emphasise culture teaching while at the same time preserving students' own cultural identity. What is more, to learn a foreign culture is to develop from an ethnocentric to a relativist standpoint and thereby become conscious of one's own identity.

As for item 9 which reads that "With a limited number of teaching periods, I would teach linguistic competence over intercultural competence", CBETs, given limited time, prioritise teaching linguistic competence over IC. In fact, finding time in the class period to teach various cultural aspects is held to be one of the problems in teaching culture. With this in mind, it is thought, and based on Chastain's (1988) argument, that many of the techniques proposed for teaching culture take reasonably little class time. Furthermore, even if such techniques take more time than the teacher might desire, then "the ends justify the means in this case". Culture is an important

component of the language in such a way that separating between them is infertile. More time, unquestionably, can be spent on culture without jeopardising the students' language skills, because culture will help them combine their language skills with communicative skills and, as a result, have a complete mastery of communication.

Irrespective of these three items, there are no statistically significant differences between CATs, CETs and CBETs with regard to the rest of the items. Accordingly, the first hypothesis is rejected and the alternative one is accepted.

The First Sub-hypothesis of the First Hypothesis

This sub-hypothesis, as related to the first hypothesis, states that:

“There are no statistically significant differences between EFL university teachers regarding their opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning an FL, in terms of their sex”.

Table (2): MTs and FTs Opinions of the Role of Culture in Teaching and Learning an FL

<i>Items</i>	<i>Sex</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t cal.</i>	<i>t tab.</i>
1	MTs	19	3.0000	1.20185	0.145	2.042 (30) (0.05)
	FTs	13	2.9231	1.80100		
2	MTs	19	3.3684	1.01163	5.382	
	FTs	13	5.5385	1.26592		
3	MTs	19	4.5158	1.24956	2.841	
	FTs	13	3.1077	1.54837		
4	MTs	19	3.3158	1.24956	0.821	
	FTs	13	2.9231	1.44115		
5	MTs	19	5.7368	1.28418	4.751	
	FTs	13	3.3846	1.50214		
6	MTs	19	4.9674	0.91127	4.831	
	FTs	13	2.7185	1.71345		
7	MTs	19	4.1168	0.99119	2.492	
	FTs	13	5.1385	1.33012		
8	MTs	19	3.0526	1.12909	0.106	
	FTs	13	3.0000	1.68325		
9	MTs	19	5.4368	0.93346	4.445	
	FTs	13	3.9923	0.85485		
10	MTs	19	2.3684	1.38285	0.283	
	FTs	13	2.2308	1.30089		
11	MTs	19	4.5263	0.84119	-0.500	
	FTs	13	4.6923	1.03155		
12	MTs	19	5.0526	0.84811	1.041	

	FTs	13	4.6923	1.10940		
Total	MTs	19	49.4577	5.56041	2.401	
	FTs	13	44.3417	6.42411		

Discussion

It is clear from table (2) that items 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 and 9 have computed 't' values that are higher than the tabulated value (3.33) at (0.05) alpha level of significance and (30) degrees of freedom. Regarding items 2 and 7, the statistically significant difference is in favour of the FTs, whereas for items 3, 5, 6 and 9, the statistically significant difference is in favour of MTs. In terms of item 2 which reads that "An EFL teacher should present a positive image of a foreign culture s/he is teaching", the result implies that FTs support the claim that an EFL teacher should present a positive image of a foreign culture s/he is teaching. This is so because FTs may think that it is not allowed to tackle the negative aspects of the FL culture which may be taboo in Iraqi society's norms and conventions. In this respect, teachers will instill in students an unrealistic image of the nature of the FL culture, and through classroom examples and exercises they create the impression that their own target language use should follow these patterns; often a recipe for frustration and failure. However, it is theorised that teachers should be responsible for conveying realistic cultural aspects of an FL. Their task is to make students aware of cultural differences, not to pass value judgments on these differences. To put it bluntly, the kind of English they are teaching is effective for survival in certain situations, but it lacks much of the cultural resonance required to make it fully meaningful for native speakers.

With respect to item 3 which states that "Fostering cultural awareness has a negative effect on students' attitudes towards their culture", MTs think that developing cultural awareness has a negative effect on students' attitudes towards their own culture. One possible explanation may be attributed to the educational and pedagogical variation between MTs and FTs as their beliefs may highly be affected by the training they have received during their undergraduates studies. In reality, one of the problems in teaching culture is that it involves dealing with students' attitudes. In this sense, it is thought that the purpose of teaching culture is not meant to make EFL students act, think or behave in an American or British way. It rather stresses the fact that they cannot render their native cultural traditions, attitudes, behaviour, values and way of life into other foreign cultural contexts. A further problem lies in students' negative attitudes towards the foreign culture as they think that the foreign culture phenomenon consists of new patterns of behaviour; therefore they attempt to understand the foreign culture according to their native culture framework.

In terms of item 5 which reads that "The linguistic and not the (inter)cultural dimension in foreign language classes should be expanded", MTs necessitates the expansion of the linguistic dimension in EFL classrooms. This may be attributed to Allen's (1985) claim who comments on language teachers' tendency to prefer teaching grammar by stating that grammar puts forward several advantages over culture. Firstly, it is the concept around which most textbooks and materials are organised. Secondly, it is finite and can be ordered in either a chronological plan of study or else in

a recurring one. Thirdly, mastery of grammar can be easily tested and evaluated. Fourthly, and finally, it is a subject matter the classroom teacher can teach using an advanced grammar text, and which, once mastered, is unlikely to change. Culture, on the other hand, is widespread, difficult to grasp, translate into instructional goals, test, evaluate and in a process of continuous change.

With regard to item 6 which states that “The study of culture in language classes can hinder progress in linguistic accuracy”, the result reveals that MTs affirm the hindrance that culture can represent in the progression of linguistic accuracy. As such, they believe that culture is not a bearer of progress in language. On this point, Kramersch (1993) states that every linguistic practice in itself is a cultural practice. More precisely, every speech act is a cultural act. In the same vein, Crozet and Liddicoat (2000) postulate that a linguistic practice always contains a cultural practice; they affirm that LT must be related to culture from the very first lessons. Based on that, it can be inferred that LT and language learning are culture teaching and culture learning. Hence, the study of culture in FL classes will enhance students’ mastery of linguistic skills.

Concerning item 7 which reads that “An emphasis on the study of foreign cultures can contribute to the student’s loss of his/her cultural identity”, the result indicates that FTs think that an emphasis on foreign cultures can contribute to students’ loss of cultural identity. Contrary to this result, it is believed that teaching culture would develop students’ cultural identity, but (one may question how is that possible?). Teaching culture involves trying to develop the students’ ability to see the world from different perspectives. Likewise, does a teacher want students to give up their Iraqi identity in order to become an American or a British person? The answer is emphatically no, even if it were possible. The most successful learners of language do not impersonate a native, they are very much themselves; therefore what they have done is to enlarge their intellectual knowledge of other identities and personalities. This point is also referred to by Kramersch (2013) when she states that language learners do not change their identity by learning an FL but rather they might be led to change subject positions. Apart from that, culture teaching does not aim at any change in the students’ behaviour and/or attitude towards the FL culture, but with an intention to increase the students’ awareness of other cultures and people for better intellectual development.

MTs, as far as item 9 which states that “With a limited number of teaching periods, I would teach linguistic competence over intercultural competence” is concerned, advocate teaching linguistic over IC. This is so because of the traditional methods teachers follow when teaching EFL, which heavily rely on teaching grammatical formations (or exercises) and the memorization of vocabulary items. On this point, it is worth noting that teaching language is not only teaching what people say and how they say it in a grammatically appropriate way. Rather, it is issued to clarify why people say this rather than that to whom and for which purpose and how they express, for example, sarcasm, anger or disdain.

Irrespective of these six items, there are no statistically significant differences between MTs and FTs with regard to the rest of the items. Accordingly, the set relevant hypothesis is rejected and the

alternative one is accepted.

The Second Sub-hypothesis of the First Hypothesis

This sub-hypothesis, as related to the first hypothesis, states that:

“There are no statistically significant differences between EFL university teachers regarding their opinions of the role of culture in teaching and learning an FL, in terms of their specialisation”.

Table (3): Ts/Ling. and Ts/Lit. Opinions of the Role of Culture in Teaching and Learning an FL

<i>Items</i>	<i>Major</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t cal.</i>	<i>t tab.</i>
1	Ts/Ling.	16	3.9125	1.53704	3.144	2.042 (30) (0.05)
	Ts/Lit.	16	2.3250	1.31022		
2	Ts/Ling.	16	3.9375	1.12361	2.834	
	Ts/Lit.	16	4.9375	0.85391		
3	Ts/Ling.	16	3.9375	1.34009	1.605	
	Ts/Lit.	16	4.6875	1.30224		
4	Ts/Ling.	16	3.0000	1.36626	1.457	
	Ts/Lit.	16	2.3125	1.30224		
5	Ts/Ling.	16	5.2625	1.26326	2.728	
	Ts/Lit.	16	3.925	1.50000		
6	Ts/Ling.	16	5.0000	1.26326	4.248	
	Ts/Lit.	16	3.0625	1.31656		
7	Ts/Ling.	16	4.5000	1.1547	0.718	
	Ts/Lit.	16	4.2125	1.10868		
8	Ts/Ling.	16	2.8750	1.25831	1.421	
	Ts/Lit.	16	2.1875	1.47054		
9	Ts/Ling.	16	4.3152	0.81394	2.903	
	Ts/Lit.	16	3.4375	0.89443		
10	Ts/Ling.	16	2.4375	1.45917	1.576	
	Ts/Lit.	16	3.1875	1.22304		
11	Ts/Ling.	16	4.2125	0.95743	2.402	
	Ts/Lit.	16	4.975	0.83417		
12	Ts/Ling.	16	4.6250	1.02470	1.324	
	Ts/Lit.	16	4.1875	0.83417		
Total	Ts/Ling.	16	46.2489	5.75000	2.938	
	Ts/Lit.	16	40.3797	5.54827		

Discussion

As shown in table (3), items 1, 2, 5, 6, 9 and 11 have computed ‘t’ values that are higher than the

tabulated value (3.33) at (0.05) alpha level and (30) degrees of freedom. Regarding items 1, 5, 6 and 9, the statistically significant difference is in favour of the Ts/Ling., whereas for the items 2 and 11, the statistically significant difference is in favour of Ts/Lit. Concerning item 1 which reads that “In an EFL classroom, teaching culture is as important as teaching language”, Ts/Ling. equalise the importance of LT with culture teaching. In terms of item 2 which states that “An EFL teacher should present a positive image of a foreign culture s/he is teaching”, the result indicates that Ts/Lit. confirm that teachers should present a positive image regarding the FL culture. However, it is argued that teachers should present a realistic image of the FL culture being studied; because if not this would lead students to stereotypical perceptions, unjust judgments and false generalisations. An FL teacher should present a realistic image of a foreign culture and so should also touch upon the negative sides of the foreign culture and society.

With regard to item 5 which reads that “The linguistic and not the (inter)cultural dimension in foreign language classes should be expanded”, Ts/Ling. prioritise expanding the linguistic over the (inter)cultural dimension. As such, the result implies that Ts/Ling. are unaware of the importance of increasing the (inter)cultural dimension which encompasses three inter-related elements (Byram & Risager, 1999) which are located in learning, namely

1. that aspect of communicative competence which puts a student in touch with the cultural world of a particular group of native speakers,
2. the capacity for analysing one’s own and the FL culture from an external perspective and understanding its relationship with other cultures in order to facilitate communication, and
3. the language teacher’s ability (and responsibility) to help students understand others as a basis for the acquisition of (inter)cultural and communicative competence.

As such, if teachers’ aim of TEFL is communication, developing the (inter)cultural dimension should be their prime goal.

With respect to item 6 which states that “The study of culture in language classes can hinder progress in linguistic accuracy”, Ts/Ling. affirm that the study of culture in EFL classrooms can hinder progress in linguistics. One possible reason of this may be the problem of time allowance. In reality, teachers are usually under constant pressure to cover materials and hardly save any time to deal with cultural issues. Time allowance for culture teaching is regarded as a big issue for teachers as lessons are already very loaded. In spite of that, if teachers know how to incorporate language and culture in LT in a flexible way, they can solve the problem easily and even make their lessons more interesting.

As for item 9 which reads that “With a limited number of teaching periods, I would teach linguistic competence over intercultural competence”, Ts/Ling., for the same reasons referred to earlier, give the advantage for teaching linguistic over intercultural competence, and also because of the traditional methods teachers follow when teaching EFL which heavily rely on teaching grammatical formations and the memorization of vocabulary items. Having this in mind, it is thought that students may have excellent pronunciation, good vocabulary items and a thorough knowledge of

grammar but may lack the cultural understanding to be able to decipher the actual meaning of particular utterances. Nonetheless, one may ask the following question: what happens in case of absence of IC? The answer is that this would lead to negative consequences and impacts at different levels. One of them is that the lack of IC might damage one's self-esteem and his/her ability to see things from different perspectives.

Concerning item 11 which reads that "Teaching the FL culture reinforces the students' already existing stereotypes of other peoples and cultures", Ts/Lit. assert that culture teaching increases the students' already existing stereotypes of other peoples and cultures. Conversely, it is thought that by not teaching culture, stereotypes will develop in the students' minds, and this is one of the consequences of not teaching culture.

Irrespective of these six items, there are no statistically significant differences between Ts/Ling. and Ts/Lit. with regard to the rest of the items. Accordingly, the set relevant hypothesis is rejected and the alternative one is accepted.

Conclusions

In the light of the data analysis and discussion of results, the following conclusions have been arrived at:

1. MTs, and Ts/Ling prioritise expanding the linguistic dimension over the (inter)cultural one and teaching linguistic competence more than intercultural competence. This latter point is also stressed by CBETs.
2. FTs, and Ts/Lit. support the claims that an EFL teacher should present a positive image of a foreign culture s/he is teaching, and that focusing on the study of foreign cultures can contribute to students' loss of their cultural identity. This latter point is also highlighted by CBETs.
3. MTs, and Ts/Ling. affirm that culture can play a negative role, i.e. as an obstacle against the progression of linguistic accuracy. MTs further think that developing cultural awareness has a negative effect on students' attitudes towards their own culture.

Recommendations

In view of the conclusions drawn above, the following recommendations are presented:

1. Teachers in their selection of teaching materials should be aware of the importance of culture in teaching and learning an FL and the role culture teaching plays in developing students cultural awareness and increasing their IC.
2. Teachers are highly recommended to participate in the international programmes aiming at raising cultural awareness and IC levels.
3. Cultural instruction in the classroom should not just happen incidentally or be taught spontaneously. Instead, it should be explicitly planned and integrated within a language syllabus for the purpose of developing students' cultural awareness and the ease of (inter)cultural interaction.

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Appendix (A)

- To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following:

No.	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	In an EFL classroom, teaching culture is as important as teaching language.					
2.	An EFL teacher should present a positive image of a foreign culture s/he is teaching.					
3.	Fostering cultural awareness has a negative effect on students' attitudes toward their culture.					
4.	The more students know about the EFL culture, the more tolerant they become.					
5.	The linguistic and not the (inter)cultural dimension in foreign language classes should be expanded.					
6.	The study of culture in language classes can hinder progress in linguistic accuracy.					
7.	An emphasis on the study of foreign cultures can contribute to the student's loss of his/her cultural identity.					

8.	Iraqi EFL students are more interested and motivated in learning the language with some background knowledge in culture.					
9.	With a limited number of teaching periods, I would teach linguistic competence over intercultural competence.					
10.	Language and culture cannot be taught in an integrated way.					
11.	Teaching the FL culture reinforces the students' already existing stereotypes of other peoples and cultures.					
12.	The development of cultural awareness should be kept only for the most advanced levels.					

HISTORICAL TIES BETWEEN TURKEY AND IRAQ: PATTERNS OF EFFECTS OF RECENT GLOBAL CRISIS ON ECONOMIC RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEM

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ABSTRACT

The world economic last crisis affected almost all economies in the world. The impact of the 2008 crisis has been observed in the Turkish economy since the middle of the year. It is known that role of the government in economy is important and government uses some policies to cope with such kind of economic problems. We studied last crisis and its effects on relationship between Turkey and Iraq. First, we analyzed trade between them, second, causes and effects of recent global crisis, third, effects of recent crisis on economic relationship between Turkey and Iraq. Last one, the effects of the changes in Turkey's exports and imports with other countries especially Iraq by using regression model established. As a result we saw that recent global financial crisis affected the world at different levels. Although Iraq is not the center of financial crisis, Iraq was affected due to low oil prices. But trade between Turkey and Iraq was not affected negatively. Crisis has affected Turkish exports in a negative manner but this wasn't the situation for Iraq. Exports from Turkey to Iraq have increased at that period.

Introduction

Before The Gulf war, Iraq was one of first countries to obtain economic relations with Turkey, with a trading sum of 5.5 billion dollars. In 06.08.1980 however, due to The United Nations' Embargo where import from Iraq was prohibited and export to Iraq was limited to food and medicine, the relations between Iraq and Turkey was about to come to an end.

The embargo of The United Nations affected The Turkish economy not only in exports but building

services, transport, transit trade, energy and tourism sectors. During this time, Turkey's losses were calculated to over 120 billion dollars.

By considering also The Outside dynamics also prevented Turkish exports and Turkey has improved a system and by that model Turkey has taken raw petroleum from Iraq exporting construction, transportation, and such services. After this attempt, in 2000s, The Turkish economy has begun to once again improve its long-term relationship with Iraq. On May, 23, 2003 U.S.A. ended the embargo during which a new period started between Turkey and Iraq. After this time, Iraq began to move forward. In comparing the years 2009 and 2010, the economic relations and the strategic partnership (politic and economic) of Turkey with Iraq have greatly improved.

By the end of 2003, Turkey had 941 million dollars of trade in Iraq, but at the end of the year 2009, although there was economic and financial crisis, this acceleration went up to 6.1 billion dollars. However, this situation shows what a strong improvement occurred in trade size between Iraq and Turkey. Due to the effects of the global crisis, the general exports of Turkey decreased by % 23, but exports in Iraq increased by % 31. As a result of this performance, Iraq, which was at 10th place at exports of Turkey, became the 5th country at the end of 2009.

However, for the last years, a significant amount of Turkish export in Iraq has been building materials, such as machinery, cement etc. This was a result of Turkish entrepreneurs having housing businesses in Iraq and needing to bring their own equipment and materials from Turkey.

One other export in northern Iraq is electricity in the equivalent of getting fuel oil. However, Turkish firms are acting in Iraq with a very important and active role at reconstructing Iraq. Construction companies in Turkey have opened many businesses in Iraq—approximately 500 projects- valuing at 7.7 million dollars and these companies have already completed almost all of their projects. In accordance with The Turkish Prime Minister, to set high level strategic cooperation was set to begin during his visit in Bagdad in 10th July 2008. Due to this cooperation, the Prime Ministers of both countries set to meet three times a year thus increasing strategic business capacity between two countries. (Turkish Embassy Commercial Counselor, 2011)

Turkish President visited Iraq on 23rd March 2009, during which another agreement was made and the “Comprehensive Economic Partnership Pact” was made to improve relations.

We studied this paper as three person by living in Iraq and observing people, talking face to face, getting first hand sources also was taken advantage of the Turgut Ozal International Conference, Causes of recent global crisis and effects to Northern Iraq, April 2010, Malatya.

We studied relationship between Turkey and Iraq under four main part. First of all we analyzed trade between them, secondly; causes and effects of recent global crisis, as third; effects of recent crisis on economic relationship between Turkey and Iraq. Last part one; the effects of the changes in Turkey's exports and imports with other countries especially Iraq by using regression model established.

Commercial Ties Between Turkey and Iraq

It was estimated that, approximately %70 of exports in Turkey is with in Northern Iraq –Erbil, Duhok and Suleymaniye-. % 80 of construction businesses of Turkish businessmen in Iraq is also achieved in these regions. If considering only external trade and construction services, the relations between Turkey and Northern Iraq exceed 5 billion dollars. The Turkish capital is very important for economic development of Northern Iraq. In the region there are over 1.200 Turkish firms acting and 500 Turkish firms have made direct investments in Northern Iraq. This numbers shows that Turkish investors made 5 times more investments than aboriginal investors. The value of the construction of airports in Suleymaniye and Erbil is grossed at 680 million dollars, and this number shows the importance of Turkish investment in Iraq.

Due to the recent wars that took place, Iraq is in need of a reconstruction. Due to the fact that Turkey is one of the most important construction servicers in the world and close to Iraq, it is important for both Turkey and Iraq cooperate and make strategic agreements. From 1975 and on, more than 260 Turkish firms have completed more than 535 projects with a total value of over 8.1 billion dollars.

Below there is “table 1” which shows the projects that Turkish firms were accepted in Iraq from 2003 to 2010; (Turkish Embassy Commercial Councilor, 2011)

Table 1: Turkish firms were accepted in Iraq from 2003 to 2010

Year	Quantity of projects	Equivalent of projects (\$)
2010	42	547.656.584
2009	44	1.270.534.179
2008	69	1.409.666.668
2007	33	506.660.448
2006	60	386.423.419
2005	114	1.291.135.615
2004	101	1.104.390.745
2003	40	242.687.504
2002	9	14.670.763
2001 and before that	23	1.400.625.477
Total	535	8.174.451.402

Source: Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor Erbil/Northern Iraq.

According to Table 1 we can see that till 2001 year, economic relations between Turkey and Iraq were not such as they were before 1980 years. On the other hand, there is a jump after 2002 and 2003 in numbers of projects. This was due to the embargo made by The United Nations. We know that the embargo finished in 2003 and a new page has been opened between the two countries. Above we have mentioned about Turkey’s attempt to start economic current with Iraq in the year 2000 because Turkey couldn’t has missed this market easily. Since the year 2004, exports into Iraq

have grown rapidly. As we can see, in construction services Turkey had many opportunities and jobs in Iraq. Even in the financial crisis and even in the economic crisis of the world, Turkey increased exports in Iraq 35% till recent.

From 2003 to recent, projects which Turkish companies -including subcontractors- accepted are more than 250. Most of these mentioned projects have been got in Northern Iraq region. Now look at the table below at Table 2; (Turkish Embassy Commercial Councilor, 2011)

Table 2: projects have been got in Northern Iraq

Name of company	Name of project	Equivalent of project	Date of agreement
UNIVERSAL ACARSAN GROUP	5 HOSPITALS IN IRAQ (KERBELA, MISAN, BABIL, BASRA, NASIRIYE)	750.000.000	2008
ENKA CONSTRUCTION AND INDUSTRY	BEKHME BARRAGE	736.000.000	1986
KARKEY BLACK SEA ELECTRIC PRODUCTION	250 KW ELECTRIC PRODUCTION FACILITY	392.886.000	2009
MAK-YOL CONSTRUCTION	INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT CONSTRUCTION IN ERBIL	372.781.821	2004
TEPE CONSTRUCTION	CONSTRUCTION OF SULEYMANIYE UNIVERSITY	258.946.526	2005
TEKFEN CONSTRUCTION	RAW PETROLEUM PIPE LINE	238.480.000	1987
GURBAG CONSTRUCTION ENGINEERING	EURO CITY PROJECT	200.000.000	2007
YUKSEL CONSTRUCTION	KORA-SHAKLAVA- KANDIL HIGHWAY CONSTRUCTION	178.884.749	2009
VINSAN VEZIROGLU & STFA	DIWANIYA- NASIRIYA RIGHT SECTION HIGHWAY	161.300.619	2005

CONSTRUCTION	AND SAMAWA SIDELINE		
OHITAN CONSTRUCTION ENGINEERING	DOHUK WATER PROCUREMENT 2. STAGE	155.126.750	2009

Source: Turkish Embassy, commercial counselor Erbil/Northern Iraq.

As far as we can see from the table, for 24 years, most of the construction projects taken place in Iraq have been made by Turkey. Reconstruction projects are occurring in Erbil, Duhok, Kirkuk, and Suleymaniye. To reconstruct suleymaniye, regional government reserved 2 billion dollars for architecture and 5 billion dollars for infrastructure.

According to this information, we can estimate that Iraq is still a very nice bazaar for Turkish companies and I think it will continue for some more years. If stability is provided, then Turkish companies will take many projects in Bagdad, Mosul, Basra, etc. In Iraq among action fields; housing projects, health facility projects, infrastructure projects, social and cultural projects, energy projects and transmission projects are playing an important part in constructing a better Iraq.

Causes and Effects of Crisis on Turkey and Iraq

Causes of Recent Global Crisis

The current financial turmoil is attributed to the sub-prime mortgage sector in the USA. The crisis could be ascribed to the persistence of large global imbalances, which were the outcome of long periods of excessively loose monetary policy in the especially advanced economies during the last decade. Global imbalances have been manifested through a substantial increase in consumption in the US, it means current deficit. On the other hand, a substantial surplus in Asia, particularly in China, and in oil exporting countries in the Middle East and Russia cause global imbalance which were the major underlying cause of the crisis. (Mohan, Mohan, 2009) Let's continue our topic – causes of recent crises- under three titles below.

-The bursting of the housing bubble causing a reallocation of capital and a loss of household wealth and drop in consumption.

-A sharp rise in the equity risk premium (the risk premium of equities over bonds) causing the cost of capital to rise, private investment to fall and demand for durable goods to collapse.

- A reappraisal of risk by households causing them to discount their future labor income and increase savings and decrease consumption. (MCKIBBIN, et. Al., 2009)

Firstly: If the circumstance is proper, the household can choose investment in a capital good. The household capital stock combines housing, and other durable goods. When we look to the past we see that the Federal Reserve cut interest rates by a total of 550 basis points in a series of steps between

2001 and 2004. The housing bubble was the result of a long period of low interest rates by the US Federal Reserve. From 2000 to 2006, house prices in some areas doubled to subsequently collapse. While house prices were rising so strongly, credit was supplied liberally to meet the demand as perceptions of risk fell. The rising wealth boosted confidence and spending. These changes in some areas have generated dramatic news headlines but, overall the United States index of house prices have fallen by 6.2 percent in real terms from the 1st quarter in 2008 to the same quarter in 2009. Falling house prices has a major effect on household wealth, spending and defaults on loans held by financial institutions. Finally we saw that housing bubble bursting fuelled financial crisis. Here you can ask why the USA cut interest rates. The answer is that: Low interest rates were due to fears of deflation and led to a boom in US housing, and, US bond yields were also low because of low world interest rates (for example, Japanese bond yields at a little over 1 per cent and short term interest rates at zero). There was also an international aspect. Japan and Europe also affected the US to keep interest rates low. (MCKIBBIN, et. Al., 2009) Secondly, Due to the bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers in September 2008, current economic and financial environment of the world economy, the global financial system and for central banks have been faced with difficult times. (Mohan, Mohan, 2009)

Lehman has held large positions in the subprime and other lower rated mortgage markets. Brothers' failure was primarily due to the large losses they sustained on the US subprime mortgage market. Losses of \$2.8 billion have been reported by Lehman in the second fiscal quarter in 2008. It was forced to sell off \$6 billion in assets. The failure of Lehman Brothers affected equity risk premiums across markets. (MCKIBBIN, et. Al., 2009) Thirdly, Firms' reappraisal of risk has discounted households' labor income that fuelled increasing saving and decreasing consumption. That situation is also another cause of financial crisis.

Effects Of Recent Crisis On Turkey

The world economic crisis that affected almost all economies in the world in the second half of 2008 imposed additional constraints for growth, and the economy almost stopped its growth in 2008 (0.7% growth), and shrunk 4.7% in 2009. The *great recession* had adverse effects on the Turkish economy beginning October 2008 as well. Turkey had faced with crisis and recessions much time that follow and the recent 2008-09 crisis is the fifth in the last 30 years. (Ercan et. Al., 2010) Turkish economy had a serious blow from the global crisis of 2008-09. This is not surprising due to degree of Turkey's integration with the global economy and the severity of the recent global recession, which has already earned names such as "Depression" (Ercan, 2010)

We can enumerate mainly impact of recent global crisis on Turkish economy;

- 1- Unemployment increased sharply in the second half of 2008 and reached record rates of 16.1% and 15.8% in February and March 2009. In the recent crisis, employment rate also declined to as low as 38.5 % in February 2009. (Ercan, 2009) In 2008, the annual average of long term unemployed for six months and more duration was 1,112 thousand persons. In

2009 the share of long term unemployed to total increased to 1,560 persons and GDP contracted by 4.7 over 2009. (Ercan et. Al., 2010)

- 2- The Current Account deficit/GDP ratio exceeded 5% between 2006 and 2008 and that this ratio fell steeply after the crisis of 2008-09 hit Turkey. Foreign trade flows have been an important channel through which the recent global crisis affected the Turkish economy since mid-2008. There was a sharp fall in the value of Turkish exports starting in October 2008. But, The fall in the value of imports was sharper. The sharp decline in the value of Turkish exports resulted from falling volumes as well as falling prices. Exports and production of different industries unevenly were affected by the recent global crisis. The most notable declines were observed in the exports of passenger cars, other vehicles, chemicals and machinery starting in October-November 2008. It was asserted that the main factor behind the contraction in Turkish exports was the sharp fall in EU demand. The share of Turkish exports to areas such as Africa and the Middle East increased significantly during the crisis of 2008-09.
- 3- Falling growth in private investment and consumption induced deceleration in growth of the Turkish economy started in mid-2007 before it was hit by the recent crisis.
- 4- The banking sector in Turkey was substantially restructured, with a set of regulations formulated together with the IMF, between 1999 and 2002. During this period, a state bank was dissolved and 18 troubled private banks were transferred to the Savings Deposit Insurance Fund (SDIF). During the recent global crisis, as of September 2009, there are as yet no banks transferred to the SDIF, no changes in ownership, no liquidation and thus there is not a fall in the number of banks. (Ercan, 2010)
- 5- The impact of the 2008 crisis has been observed in the Turkish economy since the middle of the year. The fall in output was limited in consumer goods industries, whereas capital goods industries experienced a substantial contraction. The decline in capital goods output reached 60% in the period January- March 2009. Especially the motor vehicles industry has been one of the worst affected sectors. Since consumers could delay their demand for automobiles, the motor vehicles industry faced with huge decline in demand, and, consequently, in production. (Ercan, 2010)

It is known that role of the government in economy is important and government uses some policies to cope with such kind of economic problems. So, the government has enacted a series of stimulus packages to combat aggravating unemployment and output losses spread over the last quarter of 2008 and the first half of 2009 in general. Turkish response to the global crisis mainly relied on tax reductions to increased public spending and subsidies to promote investment and employment.

Turkish government disbursed approximately US\$45 billion over 2008 – 2010 second quarter. As of June 2010, labor employment is estimated to rise by 2.324 million persons in comparison to January of the same year. (Ercan, 2010)

Effects Of Recent Crisis On Iraq

We want to introduce the recent crisis briefly then discuss its effects on Northern Iraq. When the economy faces recession, depression or a financial crisis, national output falls, profits and real incomes decline, unstable price of goods and services occur, and unemployment rates jump to uncomfortably high levels. Then economy reaches a bottom, and recovery begins. This situation can be named as Business Cycles which are economic fluctuations in total national output, income and employment, generally lasting for a period of two to ten years, marked by widespread expansion in most sectors. Upward and downward movements in national output, inflation level, interest rate, and unemployment rate form the business cycle that characterizes whole market economies. (Paul, et. Al., 2001) In order to give right political advice, economists should know the causes of boom and crisis. If a boom or crisis is the result of spending or price shock, GNP will be away from its potential. In this situation, the government should interfere with the economy to speed the return to its potential. So, the government uses monetary and fiscal policies to solve economic problem as demand shocks. (Hall, et al., 1991) The recent crisis erupted in August of 2007, and then the Fed began flooding financial markets with liquidity. The U.S. economy in the early 1930s was more heavily bank based than today, but, the current crisis has been a crisis not just for banks but for insurance companies, for hedge funds, and for the security markets themselves. (Barry, 2010) The Great Depression of 1929 is related to the current Financial Crisis in that they both originated in the U.S and have damaged the world economy at a frightful scale. For example; the financial crisis, which has taken a heavy toll on the US in just a few months was five trillion dollar. (Financial Forum, 2010) According to The Institute of International Finance's the report issued in January of 2009, forecast that net private capital flows to 28 Capital Flows to Emerging Market Economies would drop sharply to \$165 billion in 2009 from \$466 billion in 2008. (Erbilek, 2009)

Recent global financial crisis affected the world at different levels. Although Iraq is not the center of financial crisis, Iraq was affected due to low oil prices. In fact, to have rich oil reserve is a good opportunity for countries. But now that the collapse in the world's economy has caused oil prices to drop, what does the future hold for Iraq? It is known that Iraq's economy depends on oil revenues on a large scale; we can say oil clearly lies at the heart of the country's economy. Indeed, median estimates hold that oil accounts for more than 80 percent of its revenues. Iraq now faces several challenges spawned by the global recession. Iraqi deputy prime minister Barham Saleh said that the economic crisis "has had a serious impact" on Iraq's economy, with "plummeting oil prices" forcing the country "to constrain our government spending." Impact on Iraq's economy means that impact on Northern Iraq or Kurdistan region. Because of the oil boom economy had a surplus of \$35 billion from 2008 but Iraq's 2009 budget was slashed about 25 percent by government. It went down from 80 billion to about \$60 billion. However, these budgetary shortfalls will likely directly impact Iraq's

ability to maintain security and salaries. America has economic woes but, U.S. will provide additional aid to cover Iraq's budgetary shortfalls, but it is also unlikely that the U.S. will decrease substantially its current commitments to Iraq. (Ross, D., 2009) Iraqi Central Bank Consultant, Dr. Mazhar Mohammad Salih, said "Iraq received a grant from the IMF worth one point eight billion dollar to support liquidity, achieve development and come out of the recession caused by the global financial crisis. Dr. Salih appreciated this step, which he described as 'distinctive', and the grant to push the Iraqi economy forward and enable it to overcome the recession which may affect the Iraqi economy due to the global financial crisis." (Iraq Directory, 2010) Oil-producing countries got burned by the financial crisis, by investing in the West, and they're looking to use their capital in the region instead. Iraqi officials hope that foreign direct investment can make up for the revenue shortfalls caused by declining oil prices. The "Invest Iraq 2009" conference in London earlier this year reportedly attracted more than 200 companies, including heavy hitters like General Electric and Vodafone. Iraq has also opened its oil fields to bids from multinational firms for the first time since 1973, when its oil industry was nationalized. As one British Petroleum spokesman told the *Financial Times*, "we could see ourselves back in Iraq by the end of the year barring any unforeseen delays." (Ross, D., 2009) As Baghdad steps up oil production Kurds have been awarding contracts to overseas companies since 2002. Today, Canada's Addax Petroleum (acquired by China Petrochemical), Norway's DNO International, and Turkey's Genel Enerji International have contracts for the Taq Taq and Tawke fields in Kurdistan. According to the Kurds, these foreign investors could produce 200,000 barrels a day by the end of 2010—about ten percent of Iraq's current output—. It was 100,000 barrels daily in 2009. (Holland, 2010) Iraq's Prime Minister Nouri al-Maliki on third January said in a statement to the press; "The revenue will be part of the national revenue that is distributed equally to all Iraqis". The anticipated revenue that the Federal Government will receive from the oil production of the Kurdistan Region in the forthcoming five years from 2010 to 2014 will be: two point seventy five billion (2010), eight point twenty three billion (2011), 12.45 billion (2012), 18.27 billion (2013), and \$25.62 billion (2014). This shows that the Federal Government (Ministry of Finance) will receive in total about \$67 billion as net revenue from the oil produced by companies contracted in the Region in the coming five years. (Hawrami, 2010) This issue illustrates that oil revenue coming from the Kurdistan Region will expand economic development of Iraq in general, and it will increase the prosperity of all the Iraqi people. But if price of oil or demand of oil decreases in world market as a result of the crisis, that will affect Iraq as a whole especially Kurdistan region. Arab world would cope with rapidly rising food and raw material prices that threatened their economies and social stability by using high price of oil during the first half of 2008. However, the effects of the financial crisis and expectations of much lower global growth caused a collapse in oil prices. Arab oil exporters experienced deterioration in their terms of trade, and declining surpluses on their balance of payments. OPEC basket price of oil sharply fell by 70 percent from a peak of just over 130 per barrel to under \$40 per barrel. In September 2008, with the collapse of Lehman Brothers and the turmoil on Wall Street, stock markets all over the world were affected, including those in the Middle East. In April 2009, oil prices stabilized at about \$50 per barrel, despite falling demand for the international economy. The main reason for this was that oil had become a source of value for those who lost confidence in the

US dollar. According to the U.S. government's Energy Information Agency, oil income for Arab members of OPEC continued to fall from 678 billion in 2008 to \$268 billion in 2009. Iraq's export revenues are forecast to decline from 59 billion to \$23 billion. This is the clear direct impact on the economies of the larger oil producers. On the other hand, everyone experienced rise in food prices as well as the increases in other costs. This situation is not a manner of dying for these regions, because, according to IMF in 2009 economic growth in the Middle East will be two point five percent compared to six percent in 2008. As we mentioned before Iraq's and Regional Government's economy is dominated by the petroleum sector, which has traditionally provided about 95 percent of foreign exchange earnings. (Rivlin, 2009) They are not significant exporters of non-oil products, so they are less exposed to the contraction of world trade. Overall, they were affected as much as Iraq could not export amount of oil. When we pay attention to: Prime Minister Barham Salih told that "The Kurdistan Region has been a success, and can be an economic example for development throughout Iraq. We are therefore committed to sustained contact between our governorate officials and governorates throughout Iraq. I would also like to say that a strong Kurdistan Region translates into a stronger Iraq, a stronger Baghdad, a stronger Basra. I am Kurdish, but I am also Iraqi. And as part of Iraq, the KRG hopes you will benefit from our experience, especially in promoting investment." (International Republican Institute, 2010) This tells us that Kurdistan region (Awsat, 2008) has a positive economic situation and wants to share that with other parts of Iraq. In this situation FDI shows its importance as well as neighborliness of Turkey: About 1,200 foreign companies working in Kurdistan, the greatest number - some 620 - were from Turkey. (Kimball, Agrawi, 2010) In ongoing global financial crisis, according to data from the Turkish Statistics Institute, Turkey's exports to seven neighboring countries decreased except Iraq and Syria from 2008 to 2009. (Today's Zaman, 2010) Exports to Iraq saw a rise of 30.9 percent, increasing from three point ninety one billion in 2008 to five point twelve billion dollar in 2009. (Today's Zaman, 2010) According to the Board of Investors of the Kurdistan Regional Government non-oil investment in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq totaled more than \$12 billion over the last three years. Overall, about 70 percent of foreign investment in the Kurdistan Region comes from neighboring Turkey. (PRNewswire-USNewswir, 2010)

When I searched such kinds of firms in Iraq, it was seen that tradition people in Iraq is very suitable for family business as well. Although most of them are first and second generation family business owners there are businesses that are 100 years old. Number of family businesses is increasing after Saddam's time. Most of the businesses are on construction, computer network technology and telecommunication, engineering, health care, crude oil and energy, food and security. I have interview an Iraqi entrepreneur who runs business in Erbil and I included it at the end of this paper. According to interview entrepreneurs are hopeful for their and region's future. They have planned to enlarge and to step forward. If this security goes on at this level, number of such kind of local business will increase.

Effects Of Recent Crisis On Economic Relationship Between Turkey And Iraq

Crisis has affected Turkish exports in a negative manner by %23 all over the world. But this wasn't

the situation for Iraq. Exports from Turkey to Iraq have increased by 60% at that period. This may be because of a lack of industry in Iraq. On the other hand, Turkey is one of the first countries which Iraq imports from. Before the year 2008, Iraq was the 10th country that Turkey exported with, but trade performance in the year 2009 has shown that Iraq became the 5th country that Turkey exported to the most. When the effects of the recent global crisis started to get lower in 2010, trade size was over 6.5 billion dollars. (Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor, 2011)

Now let's take a look at table 4.1 below and see what happened to the trade size between Turkey and Iraq at the recent global crisis;

Table 4.1: Trade size of Turkey to Iraq at recent global crisis

YEARS	EXPORTS	CHANGE %	IMPORTS	CHANGE %	SIZE	BALANCE
2004	1,820	119,5	467	316,9	2,288	1,353
2005	2,750	51,1	458	-1,9	3,208	2,291
2006	2,589	-5,8	375	-18,1	2,965	2,213
2007	2,811	8,5	645	72	3,456	2,167
2008	3,912	39,1	1,320	104,6	5,233	2,591
2008/6	1,590	-	594	-	2,183	996
2009/6	2,540	59,7	347	-41,5	2,887	2,193

SOURCE: Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor Erbil/Northern Iraq.

Now let's analyze what happened during the crisis period with regards to the trade size and changes in trade from Turkey and Iraq. As we can see, 2004 was Turkish start year and the trade size for that year was 2.288 and this range has changed by 316.9% according to 2003 statistics. We can say that this increase was prolonged till the year 2008. We know that financial crisis started in 2007. If trade size between Turkey and Iraq increased till the middle of 2008, there should have been an explanation for that situation. Countries which don't have enough industry are generally affected by the crisis later than countries which have industry. The reason is; countries, which don't have enough industry, don't get its main income from export. Because of that, they are not affected by financial and economic crises directly. But still they need import because they don't have manufacturing. That is why economy is affected by the crisis later on. This explanation shows why the trade size between Turkey and Iraq has upgraded still the middle of 2008. But after that year, general prices in Turkey were higher than a year before and that may be a reason why the trade size (exports + imports) was lower. On the other hand, it has again started increasing the trade size. We can say that trade size in Turkey was lower by 23% in year 2009 in exports but, as we can see, numbers on table 4.1 for the year 2009, change in exports for 2009 by 60% and this number was not enough to compensate the trade size of one year before but still it was a good increase for such kinds of global crisis. (Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor, 2010)

We have explained that Turkish exports to Iraq generally are for construction services like iron,

steel, cement, furniture and so on. Let's see what happened with these exports. First of all, let's look at iron and steel exports... Exports of iron and steel in 2007 are numbered at 255.527.912 (two hundred fifty five million five hundred twenty seven thousand nine hundred twelve). It goes on to increase to 347.880.148 in 2008. We see a decrease for the exports of these materials in 2008/6 to 177.383.982. The reason is the same as we have explained above. After we explain results of exports of cement, furniture and so on, we will see that a construction service also has fallen down for this period. Export of cement and salt were 146.281.562 in 2007 and this number increased to 194.753.679 by 2008. It decreased in 2008/6 to 86.701.167. (Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor, 2010) Now we can see all exports about construction services below:

Table 4.2: construction services from Turkey to Iraq in a period

Name of good	2007	2008	2008/6	2009/6
Iron and Steel	255.527.912	347.880.148	177.383.982	287.402.642
Salt and Cement	146.281.562	194.753.679	86.701.167	167.195.412
Furniture and Prefabricate Constructions	140.869.953	171.987.047	80.823.501	76.764.950
Electricity Energy	97.577.634	65.124.267	26.685.490	46.745.481
Flooring	2.559.535	54.100.512	11.210.793	27.362.632
Underground Wire	51.525.218	52.942.313	22.978.830	29.115.393

4. SOURCE: Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor Erbil/Northern Iraq.

As a conclusion, we can say that Turkish-Iraqi trade was affected by the recent global crisis only in 2008/6. Still we can see that many investors are coming to Iraq to invest and are increasing day by day and it is about to reach a breakeven point which existed before the recent global crisis. (Turkish Embassy, Commercial Counselor, 2010)

Data And Application

The data used in this study was obtained from the Electronic Data Distribution System (EDDS) of the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey (CBRT). The mentioned data was generated from the data which covers the period of 114 months from June 2003 to November 2012. Analysis of the data was performed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 21.0 package program. The effects of the changes in Turkey's exports and imports with other countries on the volume of exports and imports with Iraq were statistically analyzed using Univariate Regression Analysis Technique. Turkey's exports and imports with other countries and the relationship with Iraq were examined by Pearson correlation analysis. The level of significance were accepted as $p < 0.05$ during the analysis.

After having been established separate figures for the correlation and regression analysis for import and export, a regression and correlation analysis was done over the total import and export volume. The following conclusions were attained as a result of the analysis.

- 1- The regression model established when analyzed over the export figures to Iraq and the export figures to all countries was statistically significant ($p=0.000$). Although the regression model was significant, the coefficient of determination was low. Determination coefficient is the ratio for independent variable to clarify the dependent variable; namely, the ratio of export to other countries clarifies only 59% of the export to Iraq. The regression equation established as follows;

$$y = -201365191,8 + 0,067 * x$$

When the correlation between the two variables analyzed, it was seen that the correlation is a positive and a strong one. ($r=0,776$; $p=0,000$)

- 2- The regression model established during the analysis of the figures of import from Iraq and import from other countries wasn't significant statistically ($p=0,095$). Similarly, the correlation between the two variables was not significant ($r=0,157$; $p=0,095$).
- 3- The regression model established during the analysis of the figures of Turkey's total import and export with Iraq and other countries was significant statistically ($p=0,000$). Determination coefficient is 64% and the regression equation established as follows;

$$y = -173814155 + 0,025 * x$$

When the correlation between the two variables analyzed, it was seen that the correlation is a positive and a strong one ($r=0,779$; $p=0,000$).

- 4- The regression model established during the analysis of the data of Turkey's export with Iraq and other countries was significant statistically ($p=0,000$), but determination coefficient was low (54%). The regression equation established as follows;

$$y = -185606780,5 + 0,069 * x$$

When the correlation between the two variables analyzed, it was seen that the correlation is a positive and a strong one ($r=0,378$; $p=0,000$).

- 5- The regression analysis about import from Iraq and import from other countries wasn't significant ($p=0,097$).
- 6- The regression model established during the analysis of the data of Turkey's total import and export with Iraq and other countries was significant statistically ($p=0,000$). Determination coefficient was %58,3. The regression equation established as follows;

$$y = -168581271,4 + 0,025 * x$$

When the correlation between the two variables analyzed, it was seen that the correlation is a positive and a strong one ($r=0,766$; $p=0,000$).

Result: It has been detected that the trade volume of Turkey to both Iraq and other countries portrayed a positive correlation within the analyzed period. However, during the economic crisis of 2008, it has been detected that the export and import volume of Turkey to other countries was decreased, while the trade volume to Iraq was increased. The most important factor for this rise was the strong trade bonds between Turkey and Iraq based on the historical bonds.

1. Analysis of comparing Iraq's exports and other countries' exports

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,776 ^a	,602	,599	147997886,7

a. Predictors: (Constant), ihracat_X

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,715E+18	1	3,715E+18	169,622	,000 ^b
	Residual	2,453E+18	112	2,190E+16		
	Total	6,168E+18	113			

a. Dependent Variable: ihracat_Y

b. Predictors: (Constant), ihracat_X

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-201365191,8	46646038,66		-4,317	,000
	ihracat_X	,067	,005	,776	13,024	,000

a. Dependent Variable: ihracat_Y

2. Analysis of comparing Iraq's imports and other countries' imports

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,157 ^a	,025	,016	5638615,093

a. Predictors: (Constant), ithalat_X

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9,023E+13	1	9,023E+13	2,838	,095 ^b
	Residual	3,561E+15	112	3,179E+13		
	Total	3,651E+15	113			

a. Dependent Variable: ithalat_Y

b. Predictors: (Constant), ithalat_X

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	7223502,972	1653880,976		4,368	,000
	ithalat_X	,000	,000	,157	1,685	,095

a. Dependent Variable: ithalat_Y

3. Analysis to Iraq's total trade and others countries total trade

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,779 ^a	,608	,604	147586335,3

a. Predictors: (Constant), toplam_X

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,776E+18	1	3,776E+18	173,370	,000 ^b
	Residual	2,440E+18	112	2,178E+16		
	Total	6,216E+18	113			

a. Dependent Variable: toplam_Y

b. Predictors: (Constant), toplam_X

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-173814155,0	44892650,60		-3,872	,000
	toplam_X	,025	,002	,779	13,167	,000

a. Dependent Variable: toplam_Y

4- Analysis of comparing Iraq's exports and other countries' total trade

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,738 ^a	,544	,540	158415236,4

a. Predictors: (Constant), ihracat_X1

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,358E+18	1	3,358E+18	133,801	,000 ^b
	Residual	2,811E+18	112	2,510E+16		
	Total	6,168E+18	113			

a. Dependent Variable: ihracat_Y

b. Predictors: (Constant), ihracat_X1

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-185606780,5	50991668,72		-3,640	,000
	ihracat_X1	,069	,006	,738	11,567	,000

a. Dependent Variable: ihracat_Y

5- Analysis of comparing Ira's imports and other countries' total trade

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,156 ^a	,024	,016	5639703,165

a. Predictors: (Constant), ithalat_X1

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8,886E+13	1	8,886E+13	2,794	,097 ^b
	Residual	3,562E+15	112	3,181E+13		
	Total	3,651E+15	113			

a. Dependent Variable: ithalat_Y

b. Predictors: (Constant), ithalat_X1

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	7245079,534	1653411,782		4,382	,000
	ithalat_X1	,000	,000	,156	1,671	,097

a. Dependent Variable: ithalat_Y

6-Analysis of comparing Iraq's total trade and other countries' trade without Iraq

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,766 ^a	,587	,583	151381571,7

a. Predictors: (Constant), toplam_X1

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,649E+18	1	3,649E+18	159,241	,000 ^b
	Residual	2,567E+18	112	2,292E+16		
	Total	6,216E+18	113			

a. Dependent Variable: toplam_Y

b. Predictors: (Constant), toplam_X1

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-168581271,4	46372218,98		-3,635	,000
	toplam_X1	,025	,002	,766	12,619	,000

a. Dependent Variable: toplam_Y

Discussion And Suggestion

It was seen that economic crisis has been years in the making and is largely due to lack of regulation and enforcement within the financial system. It is also become severe in a lack of confidence in how the international financial institutions are governed. Turkey and Iraq, of course, are different in many ways, but each faces global financial crisis and each one wants to avoid from financial instability's destruction. World economy is more dependent and more interrelated due to phenomenon of Globalization. In response to the global financial crisis, central banks and governments have taken different measures to rectify the problems and put financial markets and the economies back into right path. Corrective measures have to be taken collectively to reduce the severe effects of global crisis.

Governments in Turkey and Iraq should focus on their fiscal spending and stimulus packages on infrastructure and construction activities which will be leading economic growth rather than bail-outs and subsidy programs.

- 1- Nations should implement economic regulatory and legal policy reforms instead of protectionist and nationalist policies.

- 2- Government can take over burden of new worker who becomes employed for first year. This can make burden lighter for business and can lessen high rate of unemployment.
- 3- Domestic demand for goods and services can't be enough so export should be encouraged to cope with this.
- 4- Each country can favor to attract foreign direct investment to country.
- 5- Government can ensure the loan guarantee between the banks of member states to establish the confidence.
- 6- Government can stimulate private sector under developed region by curbing tax or giving credit with no interest
- 7- Chambers of commerce in Iraq and Turkey can visit each other and organize meeting regularly
- 8- Port of entry of Habur can be reorganized to easy entry-exit or new ones can be opened
- 9- Number of fairs should be increased in both country and attendance can be increased.
- 10- Turkish bank should be opened to easy transfer of many.
- 11- Mersin port can be point of transit and link between Iraq and other countries.
- 12- Turkish government can ensure financial support to Turkish private sector which runs the business in Iraq.

Conclusion

It is known that there was/is turmoil in Iraq for a long time. In addition global crisis happened and affected countries especially developed countries all over the World. Iraq needs investment, capital, skillful labor force, goods and services etc. In war time Iraq itself can not ensure these and needs foreign direct investment. Turkey has advantages to transport and to transfer what Iraq needs.

It was seen that Turkish firms have completed lots of projects with a total value of over billions dollars. As we have seen that in construction services Turkey had many opportunities and jobs in Iraq. Even in the financial and economic crisis of the World, Turkey had trade that is value amount in Iraq. Generally, reconstruction projects were/are occurred in Erbil, Duhok, Kirkuk, and Suleymaniye that are all in northern Iraq. According to this information, we can say that Iraq especially northern Iraq was/is still a very nice bazaar for Turkish firms.

In short; we saw that crisis has affected Turkish trade negatively all over the World. But this was not the situation for Iraq. According to regression model established we analyzed that It has been

detected that the trade volume of Turkey to both Iraq and other countries portrayed a positive correlation within the analyzed period. However, during the economic crisis of 2008, it has been detected that the export and import volume of Turkey to other countries was decreased, while the trade volume to Iraq was increased.

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