In the Name of God

Journal of Language Horizons

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She states, "the 'placebo effect' ... disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner" (Miele, 1993, p. 276), but she did not clarify which behaviors were studied.

Direct citation 2: Fewer than forty words
Lee (1999) found that "The EAP writing curriculum incorporate reading and analysis of major academic journal articles in the specific field to identify macro-level organization an obligatory 'moves' in conjunction with writing practice." (p. 21)

Direct citation 3: More than forty words
Miele (1993) found the following:
The "placebo effect," which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner. Furthermore, the behaviors were never exhibited again, even when reed rings were administered. Earlier studies were clearly premature in attributing the results to a placebo effect. (p. 276)

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Contents

Black as A Redeeming Hero in
My Name is Red

Elham Mohammadi Achachelooei[1]

Abstract

This article applies Joseph Campbell's mythological perspective to discuss Black's character as a redeemer in Orhan Pamuk's *My Name Is Red* (2002). This is done through discussing him as a lover whose dialogic interaction with the outside world helps him restore peace and order in an exemplary multicultural Ottoman society of the sixteenth century that is suffering gradual disappearance under the pressure of monologic strategies of communication. The strategies include Eastern and Western traditions of painting and a religious anti-painting one which refutes the other two as blasphemous. This investigation challenges the dominant reviews of *MNR* as a pessimistic political allegory that regrets the disappearance of traditional Turkish cultural identity, and argues that *MNR* develops an optimistic stand toward cultural formation through detailing Black's practice of self-understanding and adaptability. Highlighting the notion of life-and-death struggle, this article introduces Black as a reviver whose success is signified through his marital reunion.

Keywords: Joseph Campbell, Orhan Pamuk, savior, dialogism, monologism

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Introduction

This article analyzes Black's characterization as a lover and the embodiment of the concept of life in Orhan Pamuk's *My Name Is Red*. The analysis is done through applying Joseph Campbell's notion of monomyth to investigate the breaking of constructive and destructive powers in the world of *MNR* where confrontation results in the reestablishment of peace and order in the novel. Black is discussed as the strongest representation of constructive forces through the notion of love; someone who restores peace, order, and life through the recognition of difference, in cooperation with other figures who symbolize diverse aspects of these constructive forces. In doing so, this analysis illuminates Pamuk's optimistic viewpoint in this Ottoman fictional historiography that, despite the dominant reviews of this novel as a pessimistic political allegory of present, modern Turkey, reflects an optimistic perspective of struggle for dynamic sociocultural interactions amid the rising restrictive views against them.

MNR is a postmodernist detective love story about the concepts of sociocultural formation and sense of identity in an Ottoman society. As a novel, it is set in the sixteenth century Ottoman era, reflecting a multiethnic, multireligious, multicultural society and narrating Eastern and Western interaction in shaping the cultural identity of Ottoman society. To explain briefly, the story narrates the returning of Black, a miniaturist and the protagonist of the novel in one sense, to Istanbul after twelve years of self-exile resulting from developing loving feelings toward his twelve-year-old cousin, Shekure. He is called back to Istanbul by his uncle to help him in a secret mission commissioned by Sultan Murad III for completing a book that is going to have a portrait of Sultan drawn in Western naturalist tradition along with some Eastern miniatures to be assigned with written texts. Black is expected to provide the texts. His arrival coincides with a chain of murders that starts among the miniaturists who work on this book and spreads in to the city. This puts Istanbul in a chaotic situation. With some other characters' aids, Black succeeds in resolving the mystery of murders. Notably, this achievement is prefigured through his marriage with his cousin in the middle of the novel.

To detail the analysis of Black's characterization, the polyphonic structure of the novel discussed by Ali and Hagood (2012) is considered as representing a heteroglossic, multicultural Ottoman society. In this respect, the notion of family life

through the reunion of Black and Shekure is focused on and discussed as the symbol of dynamic social life that intakes apparently contrastive strategies of visual, oral, and written forms of expression that are associated with binary oppositions of East and West, male and female, and life and death in the novel. In line with this, there is a discussion of the representation of Black, the storyteller, and Orhan, namesake of the writer, as the embodiment of the different aspects of a completing figure who, despite the challenges highlighted through the notion of violence, completes the incomplete book of the novel and, as such, harmonizes its disharmonized world. Accordingly, Pamuk's presence in *MNR* is introduced as a writer who completes an incomplete book of "Ottoman historiography" that "places traditional Turkish storytelling elements within a Western tradition of novelistic writing" (Ali & Hagood, 2012, p. 506). This traditional storytelling that, in East, has always been in an oral form, serves as an explanatory text for the miniatures of the novel and works to bring together the apparently Self and Other of the novel through the figure of a saving miniaturist who appears as a writer narrating his story.

Theoretical Framework

This paper is a type of mythological reading based on Joseph Campbell's perspective of hero as a lover whose struggle against death and disorder guarantees the retrieval of peace and subsequent life in *MNR*.

Campbell discusses lover as one of the different roles of a hero, such as warrior, emperor and tyrant, world redeemer, and saint, in an adventurous journey, who confronts and settles the havoc that is disrupting natural, civilized human life. According to Campbell, any myth and mythological representation is the symbolic embodiment of the struggle of life-giving forces against annihilating ones. In his book, Campbell elaborates on this struggle through discussing the concept of heroic journey. The journey embodies life and the process of hero's struggle to release his and others' internal, life-giving energies through exposing all internal and external conflicts that afflict natural life. Campbell believes that this process or pattern is a recurrent theme, visible in all past traditions all over the world, and it is incessantly produced and reproduced in modern times. According to Clarissa Pinkola Estes, "everything of interior and exterior life is approached as though it is an old story just now returned to new life (2004, p. IV).

The heroic journey, Campbell (2004) argues, is completed in three phases which he describes as "separation," "initiation," and "return". In the first stage, there is a call which the hero refuses. But, later he responds to "ventures forth from the world of common day" to fulfill what he is called for and then, receiving some aids, successfully wins "a decisive victory and returns and resolves the conflicts" (p. 28). Of course, this winning is not always completed in full physical returning. In some cases, the hero faces physical injuries or even death whose final result is still the revival and reestablishment of social order.

To elaborate the hero's characterization as a lover, Campbell (2004) starts by discussing beloved's role. According to him, she "is the 'other portion' of the hero himself—for 'each is both' … She is the image of his destiny which he is to release from the prison of enveloping circumstances" (p. 316). In other words, she is the illustration of life – considering the notion of female productivity – which the hero is going to embrace. While, as the beloved, she is the first call that summons the lover, or his own internal demanding voice for the beloved, simultaneously, she embodies the final end. In this way, the hero's response to the call as the "prerequisite to the bridal bed" (p. 318) symbolizes the completion of his mission for the restoration of life.

In this process, the hero confronts antagonistic forces illustrated as jealous rival, demanding father, and outdated, sometimes religiously sensitive traditions. Campbell (2004) discusses these antagonistic forces through the archetype of the "tyrant-monster." This figure appears as a "monster avid for the greedy rights of 'my and mine.'" Any contact with him leads to blight, even the extinction of his civilization. As such, his "inflated ego is a curse to himself and his world." Undisturbed as a "self-terrorized" and "fear-haunted" person, he is "alert at every hand to meet and battle back the anticipated aggressions" that threaten his "self-achieved independence." Being so, he is "the world's messenger of disaster, even though, in his mind, he may entertain himself with humane intentions." Accordingly, wherever touched by his hand will let a cry: "a cry for the redeeming hero, the carrier of the shining blade, whose blow, whose touch, whose existence, will liberate the land." (Campbell, 2004, p. 14)

This paper follows the reflection of the same heroic journey taken by Black in confronting various antagonistic forces like a demanding father and a rival and

finalizing his mission. Along with it, it looks at Shekure as a beloved or the physical embodiment of lover's internal motivation and determination in fulfilling his decisive role. Accordingly, Shekure is considered as the symbol of the very notion of the call of life for the hero that summons him for a heroic journey whose final end is liberation, peace, and order. As such, Black appears as a lover whose response to the call will guarantee life and survival in the world of *MNR*.

Literature Review

The literary reviews written on Orhan Pamuk's style and his *MNR* mostly discuss his regret for the loss of historically international, multicultural perspective in Turkey along with his tendency for reflecting this regret in a written way. These reviews discuss West and East as collaborating concepts whose collaboration has worked and is working - while not recognized in Modern Turkey - to shape Turkish cultural identity. Göknar (2012) discusses Pamuk's literary works as the political reflection of "Istanbul cosmopolitanism" (p. 305). He believes, focusing on this concept, Pamuk has struggled against the secular nationalism which has persistently tried to authorize its definition of Turkey and Turkish cultural identity through silencing and denying whatever that is outside modern, national Turkishness. In this way, Pamuk deals with "number of elite national 'taboos' including multi-ethnicity, multi-lingualism, multi-culturalism, cosmopolitanism, homosexuality and religion" (Göknar, 2004, p. 55) as the constituting elements of cultural identity in Turkey. According to Göknar, this multicultural cosmopolitanism is reflected through writing a novel that, as a Western cultural manifestation, narrates a sixteenth century Ottoman history of completing a book of illustrations via employing both Western realist style of painting and Eastern miniature one that avoids the realist depiction because of some infidelity allegations.

Similarly, Çiçekoglu, in her articles, discusses Pamuk's inclusive perspective in relation to East and West collaboration in *MNR*. Comparing the Eastern and Western traditions of painting that are alternatively associated with word and image, Çiçekoglu (2003a) explains that Pamuk does not take side with any of these traditions and his novel is a balanced representation of their overlapping in shaping the cultural identity in the sixteenth century Ottoman Empire. According to her, Istanbul is a focal point in this reunion of East and West and, in itself, it

embodies a multicultural sense of identity. In her other article (2003b), she talks about the same traditions. She develops her argument by discussing the reflection of visual and narrative images in *MNR* and their connection with common cinematic concepts such as point of view, scene, space, and time. As she acknowledges, Pamuk's novel is a postmodernist one in which voices and points of view are not exclusively restricted to any of the two traditions, and their interaction saves the novel from being a representation and praise of an exclusively Orientalist Western or Eastern, Turkish Ottoman perspective of cultural identity. Setting the novel in the sixteenth century highlights the atmosphere opposite to that of contemporary Turkey.

Sooyong Kim (2009) follows the same line of discussion. While he talks about "encounter between East and West" and "different ways of seeing" in *MNR,* he emphasizes "it would be mistaken" to regard *MNR* as solely the reflection of this confrontation (p. 53). According to him, "*My Name is Red* is constructed according to the literary as well as visual frame of reference" (p. 54) where Pamuk as a novelist appears as a miniaturist who provides the plot of the narrative text for these miniatures. The plot unfolds through "European representationalism" and, yet, it is "filled with descriptions of miniatures, mainly Persian, and anecdotes about miniaturists" as an Eastern tradition (p. 53) with a sense of nostalgia for that mixed harmony.

Likewise, Farred (2007) talks about the multidimensionality and multivocality of Pamuk's literary creation. Göknar discusses this multivocality through Pamuk's international perspective that ties Turkish identity with what is beyond recognized national Turkish culture and language "in an inclusive, outward-looking, 'neo-Ottoman' cultural development in direct contrast to the exclusive inward-looking aspect of Turkish republican nationalism" (2006, p. 36). Farred explains this reunion as an "internal globalization" (p. 81). Farred's internal globalization discusses Istanbul as a place where the interaction of Self and Other through the merging binaries of past/present, East/West, religious/secular, Muslim/non-Muslim …, shapes a complicated text as the embodiment of multivocal, multidimensional Turkish cultural identity. He believes whatever Pamuk writes about, either through creating a religious historical Ottoman setting or a secular modern state, is to protest against the monovocal monodimensionality of the modern

Turkish national discourse that is systematically imposing its definition of secular Turkey at the expense of Othering the entire of constituting sociocultural groups.

Ali and Hagood (2012) discuss the very concept of multivocality in *MNR* under Bakhtin's theory of heteroglossia which presumes "actual social life and historical becoming" a polyphonic interaction confronting monologic ideologies that struggle to create a homogenous society (p. 505). They discuss *MNR* as the reflection of heteroglossic spree where three communicative strategies of painting, storytelling and writing cooperate. Yet, they believe the novel represents the weakening of this heteroglossic entity in the particular era of the Ottoman society described in the novel as a political allegory of modern Turkey (p. 506). This perspective explains their argument about the fading away of oral storytelling and painting and emergence of the novel written by Orhan (p. 518), a character in the novel, as the only communicative strategy that monologically plays the dialogical role.

The works that were reviewed here totally discuss *MNR* as a requiem to the loss of peace and order in an Ottoman society whose dynamic social life was based on the cultural recognition of Other as part of Self. They also discuss *MNR* as a political allegory that illustrates the disappearance of the very harmonious interaction of Self and Other in modern Turkey. As Göknar emphasizes:

> *Pamuk uses the novel form … to pose political challenges to the legacies of Turkism (the ideology of Turkish nationalism) that advocated the dismissal of Istanbul cosmopolitanism and the denigration of the Ottoman Islamic past …, championing the multifaceted cultural history of Istanbul over Anatolian nationalism. (2012, p. 305)*

Despite the pessimist perspective discernible in all these analyses, this article sees Pamuk's literary perspective in *MNR* an optimistic one that highlights hope for the actualization of constructive change for peace and order through the recognition of difference and tolerance. This investigation discusses Black's characterization as an effective factor in this procedure. Arjomandi and Faghfori (2015) have discussed the importance of characterization in *MNR* to some extent. Yet, it is done through a feministic lens where, highlighting Shekure's role as a strong woman, they emphasize the male-female division in the novel and interpret it

as another aspect of Self-Other division under the West-East confrontation (with a connotation of the motherly aspects of native Ottoman culture). The current investigation is concerned with the opposite of this understanding. It discusses Shekure as another part of Black; someone whose presence encourages Black to undertake the dangerous mission and resolve the tension erupted from the chain of murders in the novel. In this way, Shekure and Black emerge as a unified whole and the embodiment of the harmony and balance that are established by the recognition of affinity among the seemingly binary oppositions of the novel.

Heroic Journey: Love, Multivocality, and Sociocultural Life

MNR is a detective love story about the adventurous journey of a hero whose mission is to complete an incomplete secret book and, then, resolve a chain of murders that rises from the very mission. As such, it is a story about life and death and the breaking into the novel of the forces associated with this division. The illustration of violence underlines this life-and-death struggle in the novel. This analysis focuses on Black as a hero who, motivated by love, fights for guaranteeing life. Accordingly, the analysis investigates his features to see if he is equipped with the necessary capability to fulfill his mission. As it is related in the novel, he succeeds in winning his beloved's hand, of course with the bravery she shows in her turn. This family formation can be regarded as the reflection of the winning of life-giving forces and the symbol of success in sociocultural reestablishment. This investigation considers the interaction of positive forces that under Black's leading role, revive a sustainable form of this life.

The family formation is done at the expense of dying to the past and being born to the future (Campbell, 2004, p. 14) which is a must for a hero. As Campbell explains, it is a return for a hero who is restricted by the mental afflictions resulting from previous difficulties that he eradicates (p.16) and, undergoing an "awakening of the self" (p. 47), comes back "with creative power" (p. 33). In social life, this creative power challenges the destructive ones that repress dynamic sociocultural interactions and aim for a monologic society that is run by sticking to ancestral rules and patterns. The analysis of Black's role as a hero follows the same pattern: the whole novel narrates a process of coming to oneself through eradicating the mental anxieties resulting from a previous frustrated love affair and responding to the

voices that summon him for sharing this understanding with his chaotic society.

MNR is narrated within a circular frame. The frame is developed through the separate non-linear narrations of different characters and things. There are two parallel narrations or levels of the story within this frame where the first one paves the ground for the emergence of the second one. The first level relates Black's separation from his family and country, his adventurous travel to Persia, and his returning as an experienced person after twelve years. The second narration uses the same tripartite structure to elaborate on Black's struggle to resolve the mystery of the assassination of his uncle and others and, as a reward, marry his beloved cousin Shekure.

Mystery and its resolution are fixed concepts in mythological narrations; they reflect the life-and-death conflict within stories. As Estes states, the mystery reflected through a "question at the beginning of a story—or at any point along one's own life line—grants the seeker a bar to measure against, to see then which directions to take most profitably in order to find one's own answers" (2004, p. xlviii). Black goes through the same process, facing the question of murder and discovering, in collaboration with others, who is the murderer. This unraveling is a dangerous mission that emboldens Black as a redeemer who, summing up the three types of communicative figures of novelist, storyteller and miniaturist in himself, revivifies peace and serenity in imperial household and his city. This is specifically achieved through conquering the fears that postponed his return for twelve years.

Fear and anxiety are inseparable aspect of the heroic journey. This fear rises from the anxiety of facing new, unknown situations or the repetition of bitter past experiences. In *MNR*, this fear is discernable in the struggle for the preservation of traditional values, particularly artistic tradition of miniature painting before the Western one, as well as the protagonist's personal fears of returning to the social norms and people who had rejected him twelve years ago. Of course, it is not peculiar to him and the beloved shows symptoms of similar anxiety.

In the first case, the story revolves around three opposing perspectives. The first one strictly recommends the traditional miniature painting. The second one is in favor of the Western realist tradition, and the third one is a fundamentalist perspective which considers painting sinful or a form of *shirk.*[1] The conflict arises

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[1] as kind of idolatry or putting painter at the place of God

from Ottoman Sultan's secret calling to have some painters draw his face in Western style. The believers in the other two perspectives come to know about this secret mission and, worried of God's wrath, earnestly try to stop it in any way they can. This indicates the refusal of the call by these painters, who refuse to be active agents of a cultural activity which can bring Eastern and Western perspectives to a kind of unity. Campbell discusses this refusal as "a refusal to give up what one takes to be one's own interests" (2004, p. 55). He further explains this through the concept of fearing to go beyond the safe zone of established principles in which one's systems "of ideals, virtues, goals, and advantages were to be fixed and made secure" (p. 55). The followers of the traditional style of painting and those who strongly oppose painting strive to keep their perspective alive as the only valid one.

In the second case, we have Black and Shekure who have their fears of an initial frustrated love, yet they dare to face the fears and in this way share their fate that is reestablishing life. Shekure's role as a female figure who can give birth to new life is very symbolic here. She challenges the patriarchal culture that strives to render her a possession of her father or keep her in her ex-father-in-law's house and unite her with her previous brother-in-law. Talking about her ex-brother-in-law, she explains: in "his last letter, Hasan pledged that I would no longer be a slave to housework, and that he'd made a lot of money" (Pamuk, 2002, p. 46). In the case of her father, she affirms: "My father doesn't want me to be declared a widow by verdict of the judge either. If I am granted a divorce, he thinks I'll find myself a new husband and abandon him" (p. 151). Both father and brother-in-law can be considered as the illustrations of antagonistic forces or the "tyrant monster" (Campbell, 2004, 14) that the lover shall conquer. To actualize this, contrasting the dominant culture, she summons Black and motivates him to finalize her undecided widowhood status and marry her. As such, she claims the control of her life and lets her personal feelings be expressed and realized. She gives birth to her love in this way and practices her equality to men.

Similarly, Black faces his previous fears which kept him away from Shekure. Now he is experienced due to twelve years of travel and dares to fight for his beloved through meeting the uncle and confronting the jealous rival Hasan, defeating and killing him - because he attacks to kidnap Shekure - with his supportive friends' aids. His consciousness has outgrown the view of shared life and

destiny with Shekure before his eyes and, responding to her call, he comes to himself and embraces life. This reflects an inclusive perspective which lets him acknowledge the validity of Shekure's invitation which is apparently against the dominant ethical codes of that society. The main point in this case is that it does not image another master-slave binary and, unlike what Arjomandi and Faghfori argue, it does not represent men as "weaker and more dependent" on women (2015, p. 113). Black's response to Shekure is not out of his need and misery. Through responding to Shekure, Black is not dominated and controlled by her. On the contrary, he is a free man acting based on his personal feelings, understanding: "I had no doubts about my love or that it was reciprocated—we were married in a state of great contentment" (Pamuk, 2002, p. 51). From this perspective, his union with Shekure is a constructive one which symbolically prefigures the happy ending of the novel which is the resolution of the mystery of the murders, catching and sentencing the murderer, and reestablishing life and order.

In fact, in this novel, Black's arrival brings to the fore the "manifestation of the powers that are breaking into play" (Campbell, 2004, p. 46). In *MNR*, the struggle among Western and Eastern traditions of painting and the religious anti-painting perspective represents confronting powers. In this categorization, Black is the illustration of a positive, balancing tendency that brings all these confronting traditions in to a harmonious interaction. In this way, he is assisted by some supportive figures whose appearance is common to most of mythological narrations. The example is the introduction of another female figure, Esther, in *MNR*. She stands for the "supernatural aid" as a female power that interferes on behalf of the hero and facilitates the fulfillment of his mission (Campbell, 2004, pp. 63-67). She is a Jewish peddler who surreptitiously carries letters between the lovers and when Shekure is abducted by her previous in-laws, interferes and argues about the legal consequences of abducting a woman whose widowhood certificate is issued and has no ties with this family (Pamuk, 2002). In this way, she convinces them to set her free and brings her back to Black. In other words, Esther is a figure on the side of the constructive force whose role in bringing life to the fore by accelerating the reunion of Black and Shekure cannot be denied.

The color symbolism in the novel comprehensively reflects the life-and-death struggle and the wining of pro-life forces. The title of the novel is *My Name Is*

Red. The color red in one sense reflects the bloodshed and violence related to the repression of nonconformist ideas and artistic traditions in the novel. It is strengthened by the description of dark gloomy winter in the beginning of the novel that somehow reflects Black's internal feelings when he arrives, also stressed by his very name. This is in agreement with the dominant pessimist analyses of *MNR,* as a political allegory, which believe the story leads nowhere and no clues offer "any explanation to the mysteries" (Çetintaş, 2006, p. 56). That is to say, the story mirrors Pamuk's negative view about the disappearance of a polyphonic Ottoman society, ending in the most restrictive form in secular Republic of Turkey (Göknar, 2006; Göknar, 2012). Yet, another reading of this color symbolism is meaningful. The color red can stand for excitement, energy, happiness, and merriment. Interestingly, in traditional Turkish culture, it is associated with wedding and the start of a new life where the bride is dressed in red. This is supported by the union of Black and Shekure and the resolution of the mystery of murders in the end of the novel.

On the other hand, as a female figure, Shekure symbolizes the Ottoman motherland. Being united with Black who carries an international experience of travelling in non-Turkish territories, she stands for the perfection of multicultural understanding in Ottoman society that confronts suffocating monologic ideologies. The metaphor of incomplete book can be of help in clarifying this concept. Black's first summon to Istanbul by the uncle was for the examination of the "illustrations made in half-Venetian, half-Persian mode and write[ing] a story suitable to accompany the opposite page" (Pamuk, 2002, p. 119). The reason for writing the accompanying text was that in Eastern miniature painting, the painting could have no independent existence and had to represent a text, except to Quran the illustration of whose narrations was blasphemous. In this form of painting, meaning was the final end and no true form was acceptable (Çiçekoglu, 2003a, p. 1; Çiçekoglu, 2003b, p. 127) because the creation of true form was exclusive to God. This points to "the core ideological tension" that confronts "'two books'—the secular secret and the public, and publicly permissible, koranically inflected, koranically sanctioned text" (Farred, 2007, p. 93). The two books here reflect the "art of the book" and the "Renaissance Painting" that are described by Çiçekoglu. According to her, solely "art of the book" as "the only form of illumination allowed in Islam" was recognized (2003b, p.127) and that was based on being attributed to a text. If Black succeeded

in completing the book, it meant he had solely acted as a miniaturist being loyal to the "art of book" and, bereft of creativity, had duplicated a text based on an already existing "Central Asian template" (Çiçekoglu, 2003a, p. 8). Traditionally, all miniature paintings were copies of fixed patterns based on fixed texts and originality was blasphemized. Against this tradition, Black is positioned in an unpredictable situation to discover the stolen sketch drawn to be completed by a text and, in this way, resolves the mystery of murders. As such, he appears as a novelist whose text, according to Kim, is the very *MNR* that as a Western production accompanies the illustrations (2009, pp. 57-61). The illustrations in the novel are, after all, represented as characters who are narrating their views of events. These narrations are then renarrated by a storyteller in his coffeehouse - signifying an Eastern oral tradition of storytelling - that renders him a shadow of the writer. In fact, there is a parallelism here. The pages of the novel represent the polyphonic space of a coffeehouse where Black as the writer and storyteller creates the story of his life through concretizing, that is to say giving physical form to the details of his life, described by the narrators, in a very imaginative way.

It is certain that the demonstration of this polyphonic interaction cannot be imagined without the representation of resistance before it, particularly considering the religious sensitivity of the Islamist conservatives against the presence of any ideology, tradition, or discourse that parallels that of God. In view of that, the representation of violence in the novel can be justified. On the one hand, it demonstrates the resistance of those associated with both Eastern traditional way of painting before the Western one and the conservative anti-painting Islamic ideology. On the other hand, it reflects hard challenges of the people who want to live their real life, not the duplication of what is dictated and fixed by established models, and to push back the monologic discourse that is silencing the voices that do not subscribe to the prescribed traditional and religious ideology. Ali and Hagood (2012) associate the very understanding by describing the violence as the representation "of the paradigm shift to a more dialogic perspective" signified by the assassination of Elegant effendi, the first murder, as a conservative with sympathetic feelings toward the ideological Islamist preacher (p. 507). It is done by a miniaturist who has Eastern sensitivities and is, likewise, killed at the end of the novel.

The first murder in the novel is the initiatory "blunder," to use Campbell's

term, that "account[s] to the opening of a destiny" which is "the appearance of the carrier of the power of destiny" (2004, pp. 46-47). The destiny here is the revival of life actualized through Black's response, as the carrier of the power of love and life, to the calls of his uncle and cousin who summon him back to Istanbul and real life. To put it differently, Black in this novel is a hero who interferes and reconciles the life-and-death struggle represented through the confronting traditions as well. What is of importance here is that the cycle of life is not imaginable without death and, in real, their collaboration shapes the entity of life in this world. The same goes for traditions, either Eastern, Western, or religious; imagining a Turkish cultural identity without any of these constituting elements will not be complete; it will be an incomplete book.

Black's interference embodies a "willed introversion" in *MNR*. To use Campbell's explanation, willed introversion "is one of the classic implements of creative genius … It drives the psychic energies into depth and activates the lost continent of unconscious infantile and archetypal images" (2004, p. 59). In counteraction with the powers broken into play, "if the personality is able to absorb and integrate the new forces, there will be experienced an almost super-human degree of self-consciousness and masterful control" (p. 59). This happens in Black's case. Though Campbell emphasizes that this cannot take place as "an answer to any specific call" and is rather "a deliberate, terrific refusal to respond to anything but the deepest, highest, richest answer to the as yet unknown demand of some waiting void within" (p. 59), Shekure's call works as a motivation for Black. In chapter 32 of the novel, discovering the assassination of her father, she proposes Black to marry her, protect her, and resolve the mystery of her father's murder. This call strengthens the first call by her father and brings Black closer to the destiny that he is going to write himself: "I was speaking to Black in such a high-handed … manner. ..only by assuming such a tone might I convince Black … to believe in the possibility of events that even I have a hard time believing will come to pass" (Pamuk, 2002, p. 192) . Convinced of Shekure's approval, Black is relieved of the frustrated infantile dreams of having Shekure, which are unconsciously controlling him, and tries to focus on the mission and have the situation under his control. Here, he is more conscious and determined to resolve the mystery. As Shekure asserts: "fixing my gaze into Black's eyes, in which I was gladdened to see attentiveness more than

love" (p. 190).

In chapter 33, Black starts a trip to finalize Shekure's divorce from her apparently dead husband and marry her. At this phase, he emerges as a meticulous seeker who is reviewing everything in his mind to facilitate and accelerate the procedure. He details every point or creates the process in his mind. This mental illustration reveals Black's visual mind (Çiçekoglu, 2003b, pp. 128-129) and as the chapter unfolds, the line that separates this mental imagery from the outside reality disappears. In fact, Black's inward contemplation reveals the mechanism of the outer world to him and he shapes his outside world based on this internal understanding; his mental contemplation and the outside reality are unified here. This is another aspect of the balanced interaction of Eastern inward-looking, meaning-based perspective with Western external-looking, form-based realist one. As it is clear, Black, here, emerges as an actor who is conscious of individual mental observations and practices them through active involvement with the external, physical reality.

It may be argued that Black's physical injury (Pamuk, 2002, p. 402) reflects the incompletion of his mission as this is strengthened by his fruitless life with Shekure – having no child – and the ascension of Sultan Ahmed I who shatters the watch gifted by Queen Elizabeth I (p. 411) as the symbol of Eastern-Western interaction in Ottoman society. Yet, the success of the hero's mission does not necessarily mean his full physical returning or presence. Campbell emphasizes: "the physical body of the hero may be actually slain, dismembered and scattered over the land or sea" (2004, p. 85). Further, as the reflection of antagonistic forces that resist and confront Eastern- Western interaction, all these cases embody the very notion of violence before change.

As it was explained, one essential aspect of this violence is death that is also signified through the notion of silencing other voices. As a hero, Black confronts this type of death. His cycle of journey provides him with the necessary ability to face silencing and liberate his family, occupation, and city from its consequences. Concepts of adaptability and recognition of difference are important here. In fact, the murders in the novel root in the stubbornness of the three perspectives whose fans and practitioners are not open to the other stands. For example, Olive, the murderer, has not learnt to adapt himself to the Western

tradition of painting and the religious vision that prohibits any form of representation. In this way, wandering between these traditions and developing a sense of doubt, he is unable to harmonize his interactions with the external world: "he kills one for being overly bound to Eastern tradition and one for being too slavish to Western innovation. Much like Pamuk himself, he tries to juxtapose, synthesize, or transcend both" (Göknar, 2004, p. 54). Unable to do so due to the lack of original personal perspective or self-understanding, reflected through his failure in depicting himself in a natural way (Pamuk, 2002, p. 398), he loses that sense of balance that is essential for a harmonious life. As such, there will be no option than disappearance for him who cannot establish that sense of connection and belonging with a community which, despite monotonous appearance, is a multicultural, multivocal one. In this way, he becomes the opposite of the responsive forces in the novel represented by Black. Black as the embodiment of love and life positively responds to the voices that summon him, while, confused, Olive is not responsive before the various voices that call him. This reflects a failure in completing the adventurous cycle of his life. Therefore, and based on the natural system of life, he is defeated by the one who succeeds in completing his cycle:

> The capturing and the blinding of the murderer is a collective act.
> ... while the one who carries the needle in to do the deed is none
> other than Kara [black], ...who is expected to solve the mystery
> and to undertake the mission of completing the book. (Çiçekoglu,
> 2003a, pp. 9-10)

Here, there are references to Sultan's secret book and the concept of blindness. These two are related to the major conflict of the story between life and death. Death can be associated with blind dedication to fixed disciplines, symbolized through the concept of blindness in the novel. The ones considered as the masters of a particular tradition of painting experience blindness and death in the novel. This is true about Master Osman, the head of the miniaturists working on the book of *Festivities,* who blinds himself as well as Uncle who favors Western naturalist painting and is killed by Olive. The notion of blindness, on the other hand, signifies perfection through internalized mental image and shows that in the case of these blind masters (as the great Bihzad is also mentioned as a blind master in the novel), the perfection in their particular tradition is attained at the expense of disregarding

external world and denying other disciplines or traditions of painting. Yet, the result makes no difference; it is a blind dedication to fixed patterns and there is no place for such figures in a dynamic society with various sociocultural communities. Therefore, these masters disappear step by step and give way to representatives who recognize the diversity.

Disregarding the artistic value of each tradition, the blindness and death in the novel stop the completion of the books under the supervision of these masters, at least for a while. In this respect, one thing is clarified. As it is understood from the novel, the clue that aids Black to discover the identity of the murderer is the recognition of the murderer's personal style through finding the lost miniature drawn by him and comparing it to the illustrations in Sultan's treasury (Pamuk, 2002, pp. 357-366). That is to say, despite copying the fixed patterns of miniature painting, the miniaturists cannot evade applying their personal style, even in an unconscious way. This is the very sense of liveliness that guarantees the survival of these masterpieces through the test of time, notably via *MNR* here, while Sultan's portrait drawn based on blind dedication to Western style vanishes in the world of the novel.

To summarize, Campbell in his book points to Professor Arnold J. Toynbee's arguments about recurrent deaths and how they can be confronted: "Only birth can conquer death—the birth, not of the old thing again, but of something new" (Campbell, 2004, p.15). There are many deaths which result from silencing Other in the novel and what is the birth that stops them? Shekure invites Black to express his love and when he responds, she accepts it. Came to himself through his journeys, Black has learnt to meet the prerequisites of successful social interactions to tackle difficulties and finalize his life-long dream. This represents the birth of a love that they conceived and carried for a long time. This is not the rebirth of an old thing because this love had not already gone through birth. In finalizing his dream, Black comes out of the previous life replete with disappointment, confronts the terrible perspective of the new world, suffers and tolerates the blocking hardships, keeps moving despite the physical injury, and completes the book of his life that is symbolized through stopping the raging death in *MNR*. As Campbell has beautifully scribed: "there is nothing we can do, except be crucified—and resurrected; dismembered totally, and then reborn' (Campbell, 2004, p.15).

Conclusion

This article was an investigation of Black's role in reestablishing peace and order in the Ottoman society reflected in *MNR*. It was done through applying Joseph Campbell's theoretical discussion of heroic journey with a peculiar focus on the role of the lover, among other heroic roles. To discuss the success of this heroic journey, the chaotic sociocultural condition in the beginning of the novel shall be compared with the sociocultural one in the end of it. The novel starts with the words of a corpse and lets the reader understand the main conflict of the novel that is the confrontation of life and death symbolized through the reflection of the clash of Eastern and Western artistic traditions of painting and the religious anti-painting one. As it emerges from the investigation, the overall plot of the novel represents a progressive movement toward the betterment of the situation by spotting and conquering previous fears, recognizing difference, and taking practical actions for tackling the conflict in collaboration with others. As a lover being motivated by her beloved's calling, Black emerges as the embodiment of the carrier of hope and life and pushes away the all antagonistic forces that side with death.

As a unified whole, Black and Shekure represent different aspects of herohood, in both masculine and feminine forms, while facing traditionally restricting personal and local-historical challenges to develop a natural, authentic form of human life. As lovers, both of them dare to face fears resulting from the bitter memories of past failure in union and finalize their love. This is along with the demise of the sociocultural prejudices which are working to stop them by imposing the social pressure of what is the norm. As a strong woman, Shekure has achieved the maturity to decide for her life and free herself from the restricting chains that keep her under the control of her father and ex-husband's family. At the same time, as Black's beloved, she embodies the internal motivation that encourages him to terminate his self-exile and respond to the first call, which is that of his uncle, to come back to Istanbul and accept part of the responsibility commissioned to the uncle and his group of miniaturists by the Sultan.

There are two cycles of heroic journeys that are represented by the callings of the uncle and Shekure. The cycles merge with each other, letting the novel unfold. They reflect Black's success in completing the mission that is stopped by a chain of murders initiated by a figure who feels threatened by Sultan's secret

mission. Skillfully, the story of the completion of the heroic journeys is narrated through the metaphor of an incomplete book. Its completion brings Black, as a miniaturist, to the fore as a novelist, who, unwillingly stick to any particular artistic tradition stipulated in the novel, practices diaological perspective. He actualizes it via conquering the chain of murders that result from monological slant and, doing so, revives his society. This is emphatically signified through his reunion with his beloved. This all illustrates the idea that "[t]he effect of the successful adventure of the hero is the unlocking and release again of the flow of life in to the body of the world" (Campbell, 2004, p. 37).

As it was discussed in the previous section, Black is the self-representation of Pamuk who develops his apparently Western novel, which Kim (2009) discusses as the very text written for the illustrations (pp. 57-64),[1] as an Eastern oral storytelling – represented through the coffeehouse storyteller narrating the stories of the nine miniatures in the novel – revealing the merging of these two traditions. This reveals the interaction of the three different artistic and religious traditions through Black's figure and reveals the incessant deconstructive resistance of the context represented in the novel to be exclusively associated with any of these traditions. This explains Pamuk's interference as the novelist in the end of the novel as a Western literary genre with solid ties with outside reality: "For the sake of a delightful and convincing story, there isn't a lie Orhan wouldn't deign to tell" (2002, p. 413). As such, the novel, deconstructing its realist roots, appears as a miniature which carries the very miniaturistic feature of being not the real representation of what has happened, but aiming at communicating meaning. Therefore, the writer, here, is a miniaturist who focuses on the meaning or content, not the exact physical form or reality. This incessant shifting among these traditions renders *MNR* an artistic creation that, evading classification under any of these, perpetuates dynamism. This dynamism is the very bone of Turkish identity that Black represents.

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[1] Kim argues the plot and the characters of the novel as parallel representations, or duplications, of famous Eastern love stories like the ones by Nizami, notably his famous Hüsrev and Shirin. As such, the novel emerges like a miniature painting that is created by copying fixed, pre-established patterns originating from central Asia. For further information refer to Çiçekoglu, Feride (2003). "A Pedagogy of Two Ways of Seeing: Word and Image."

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Rhetorical Functions in English Review Articles' Conclusions

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Abstract

Genre analysis studies have refined our understanding of the rhetorical organization of scientific articles. The present paper reports on a study which investigated the rhetorical organization of the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles in linguistics and applied linguistics fields. Drawing on a move-based genre analysis approach, the study was based on a corpus of more than 500 English conceptual review articles. The analysis involved detecting the generic moves and sub-moves that writers use to achieve communicative purposes. The results showed that first, conclusions in English conceptual review articles differ from conclusions in research papers in terms of primary communicative purposes. Second, conclusions of review articles contain a set five moves, including 1) territory, 2) purpose, 3) structure, 4) conclusion, and 5) suggestion. Third, conclusions of review articles feature a cyclic pattern in the last two moves, as the writer reports main findings of prior research, interprets them, relates them to educational practice, and recommends further research based on what is felt most necessary. Last but not least, unlike research papers conclusions, review articles conclusions contain 'suggestion' as a core feature of their rhetorical organization. The results of the study benefit both theoreticians and practitioners.

Keywords: English conceptual review article conclusions, move, sub-move, rhetorical function, linguistics, applied linguistics

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Introduction

The English scientific article is probably the most important publication genre that academics are required to deal with in higher education institutions (Moreno et al., 2011). The importance of English scientific articles is mainly because it is one of and probably the most important means of disseminating knowledge. To understand and advance knowledge in a certain scientific field, academics need to read and write scientific articles in English. Additionally, the importance of scientific articles is rooted in today's status of English as the international lingua franca. The Anglicization of the research world has caused almost all international peer-reviewed non-Anglophone journals to disappear (Cargill & Burgess, 2008; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Perez-Llantada, 2012; as cited in Moreno & Swales, 2018). Hence, to get a PhD degree, funding, or promotion, academics need to write scientific papers in English. As a matter of fact, it is through English that "knowledge is constructed, academics are evaluated, universities are funded and careers are built" (Hyland, 2016, p. 58). Therefore, nowadays, published papers act as an academic's permanent record of research and passport to the community of scholars.

Despite its importance, students find it difficult to write English scientific articles and have them published in reputable English-medium international periodicals (Martín-Martín et al., 2014; Paltridge, 1993; Zare et al., 2016). The main difficulty is related to the fact that most students even postgraduate ones are not aware of discourse elements and genre conventions of the particular field (Cooley & Lewkowicz, 1997). As Nwogu (1997) note, "most research article writers are familiar with the IMRD format, but not all are conscious of the fact that there exists an internal ordering of the information presented in the various sections of the research article" (p.119). Ever since Swales' (1990) seminal approach to the study of genres, namely 'genre analysis', many researchers have followed this approach to describe the underlying schematic structure of scientific articles (e.g., Basturkmen, 2012; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Lim, 2010; Moreno & Swales, 2018; Moritz et al., 2008; Peacock, 2002; Posteguillo, 1999; Sheldon, 2019; Swales, 1990, 2004; Yang & Allison, 2003). However, almost all of these studies have been related to research papers and review articles have been neglected. The present study sought to investigate the move-based rhetorical organization of the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles in linguistics and applied linguistics fields.

Literature Review

Genre Analysis Research on Different Sections in a Research Paper

Swales (1990) defines genre as a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes, ... recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. (p. 58)

Genre analysis relies on the identification of moves as "a socially recognized, highly structured and communicative discoursal event or activity which fulfills a particular communicative or social function in a certain community or in spoken or written discourse" (Swales, 2004, p. 29). Moves contain at least one proposition. Hence, they are realized by a clause or several sentences. Smaller segments of text that make up moves are known as sub-moves (Santos, 1996) or steps (Hyland, 2004). The difference between moves and sub-moves is mainly in the fact that a text fragment at the level of step is usually interpreted in more specific terms (e.g. 'indicating a gap') than at the level of move (e.g. 'establishing a niche') (Moreno & Swales, 2018). The ultimate aim of move analysis studies has been to discover textual regularities which characterize different communicative moves in different genres for pedagogic purposes (Moreno & Swales, 2018). Referring to this research gap as "the function-form gap", Moreno & Swales note that "filling this gap involves establishing the most salient types of text items, or patterns, occurring in a specific rhetorical context in an RA, or any other genre, that may lead a competent reader to interpret a given communicative function" (Moreno & Swales, 2018, p. 41).

Move-based genre analysis studies have refined our understanding of the rhetorical organization of scientific articles. These studies have explored different sections of the main body of scientific articles, i.e., introduction (e.g., Duszak, 1994; Swales, 1990, 2004), method (e.g., Lim, 2006; Swales & Feak, 1994), results (e.g., Basturkmen, 2012; Brett, 1994; Lim, 2010; Nwogu, 1997), discussion (e.g., Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Peacock, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003), and conclusion (e.g., Adel & Ghrorbani Moghadam, 2015; Moritz, et al., 2008).

Introduction is the first major section of the body of scientific articles. The purpose of introductions is to outline the goals of research and link it to the previous

body of research. Introductions move from general to specific (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016). Research on introductions of scientific articles shows that three moves are crucial in this section, including 'establishing a territory', 'establishing a niche', and 'occupying the niche' (Swales, 1990, 2004).

Method, another major section of the body of scientific articles, is mainly concerned with providing a description of the experimental design of the study. Details about how the study is done from the beginning to the end go in this section. Describing data collection and data analysis procedures are two central moves that almost all method sections share (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Lim, 2006).

Results section, still another major section of the body of scientific articles, presents statistical analyses of the data. Swales and Feak (1994) point out that the results section is descriptive and deals with facts. The results section features a cyclic pattern of presenting results and commenting on them (Brett, 1994; Posteguillo, 1999; Yang & Edwards, 1995). Research on the results section of scientific articles points to the presence of three major moves in results, i.e., metatextual, presentation, and comment (Brett, 1994; Posteguillo, 1999; Yang & Edwards, 1995).

Two other major sections in the body of scientific articles are discussion and conclusion. Discussions are interpretive and deal with points (Swales & Feak, 1994). They are mainly concerned with commenting on specific results through interpreting, accounting for, evaluating, or comparing the results with those of prior research. On the other hand, conclusions deal with summarizing the study by highlighting overall findings, evaluating the study, suggesting implications and applications of research, and suggesting possible lines for further research (Yang & Allison, 2003).

The discussion section is seen as a mirror of the introduction section (Hill et al., 1982). Unlike introductions which begin with general information and proceed to specific ideas, discussions begin with a specific hypothesis and relate it to the existing literature (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016). Therefore, moves in discussions follow a reversed order of moves in introductions. Research on the discussion section of research articles points to the existence of three moves in discussions, including 'occupying the niche', '(re)-establishing the niche', 'establishing additional territory' (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995). 'Occupying the niche' is a

statement of the main findings of the study; '(re)-establishing the niche' involves comparing the results to those of prior research to show that they are either superior or of a different nature; 'establishing additional territory' is stating the implications/applications of the study or suggestions for further research. Swales and Feak (1994) observe three moves for discussions, i.e., 'consolidate research space', 'limitations', and 'further research'. What is important here is that like moves in results sections, moves in discussions have a cyclic pattern (Posteguillo, 1999; Swales, 1990).

Unlike research on other sections in scientific articles, research on the conclusion section of research articles, to the best of our knowledge, is scarce (e.g., Adel & Ghrorbani Moghadam, 2015; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013; Moritz, et al., 2008; Yang & Allison, 2003; Zamani & Ebadi, 2016). This may be due to the fact that researchers consider this section as part of the discussion section (Posteguillo, 1999; Swales, 1990), as some articles conflate conclusion and discussion sections into the same heading. Swales and Feak (1994) do not "distinguish between these two terms (discussion and conclusions) since the difference is largely conventional, depending on traditions in particular fields and journals" (p. 195). Research shows that the conclusion sections of applied linguistics articles consist of three moves, i.e., 'summarizing the study', 'evaluating the study', and 'deductions from the research' (Yang & Allison, 2003). The first move involves giving a brief explanation of the main points and overall findings from the perspective of the study; the second move deals with evaluation of the study by 'indicating significance/advantage of the study', 'indicating limitations', and 'evaluating methodology'; the third move requires 'recommending further research', and 'drawing pedagogical implications'. Research shows that 'summarizing the study' is the most frequent move (Adel & Ghorbani Moghadam, 2015; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013; Yang & Allison, 2003; Zamani & Ebadi, 2016).

In another study, six moves, including 'restating the introductory statement', 'consolidating the research space', 'summarizing the study', 'commenting on results', 'evaluating the study', and 'making deductions from the research' were found in applied linguistics articles conclusion sections (Moritz et al., 2008). The first move, 'restating the introductory statement', which appears at the beginning of conclusion sections incorporates three steps, including 'purpose,

research question or hypothesis', 'territory/niche', and 'reference to previous research'. The second move, 'consolidating the research space', involves five steps in conclusions, including 'summarizing findings/results', 'stating method', 'making reference to previous research', 'suggesting future research' and 'raising question'. The third move, 'summarizing the study', involves giving a summary of the study. The fourth move, 'commenting on results', involves validating the significance of findings in relation to the field by 'interpreting results', 'comparing results with literature', and 'raising questions'. The fifth move, 'evaluating the study', mainly evaluates the overall study by 'indicating limitations', indicating significance', 'evaluating methodology', and 'suggesting future research'. The last move, 'making deductions from the research', aims to go beyond the results of the study and link it to the wider world of practical and pedagogic implications/applications by 'drawing implications/applications', 'recommending/suggesting', 'making reference to previous research', 'suggesting future research', and 'making overall claim'. Among these six moves, the last one was the most frequent move. Bunton (2005) also observed five moves in the conclusions chapter of humanities and social sciences theses. These moves were 'introductory restatement', 'consolidation of research space', 'practical implications and recommendations', 'future research', and 'concluding restatement' He stated that conclusions restate purpose, consolidate research space, recommend future research, and address practical applications, implications, or recommendations.

Comparing the last three sections of scientific articles, Yang and Allison (2003) point out that the results, discussion, and conclusion sections differ more in emphasis than in kind. That is, moves recur across these sections. Therefore, moves dealing with the results can cross over to the discussion section in terms of the 'commenting on results', and discussion moves can appear in the conclusion section in the form of 'summarizing the study', 'evaluating the study' and 'deductions from the study' (Yang & Allison, 2003). As can be seen, all these move-based genre analysis studies have focused on research papers and the rhetorical organization of review articles is left, to the best of our knowledge, unexplored.

Research on Review Articles

A review article is different from a research paper in that the latter is written on original empirical research which involves collection and analysis of raw data, whereas the former summarizes the current literature in order to present the current understanding of the topic. Review articles are generally of three kinds: conceptual or theoretical review, systematic review, and meta-analysis or synthesis (Dochy, 2006). Conceptual or theoretical review articles are mainly descriptive, lack method sections and a systematic search of the literature (Uman, 2011). Systematic reviews, on the other hand, have a method section and involve a detailed and predetermined plan for searching the literature (Uman, 2011). Systematic review articles often include a meta-analysis component which involves synthesizing data from several studies into a single statistical measure or effect size (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006).

To the best of our knowledge, there is only one study that has investigated the rhetorical organization of review articles. Zare and Naseri (2021) investigated the moves of English review article abstracts, along with their associated linguistic realizations. They observed that writers of English conceptual review articles use a set of moves in their abstracts, different from that of writers of research papers. These moves include 'territory', 2) 'problem', 3) 'purpose', 4) 'structure', and 5) 'conclusion'. The move 'territory' deals with (1) 'making statements about the topic' and (2) 'summarizing what previous research offers'. 'Problem' is concerned with (1) 'indicating the abundance of research in an area' and (2) 'showing the gap or problem in that area'. 'Purpose' involves (1) 'stating the aim(s) of the article' and (2) 'narrowing down the scope of the article or focusing'. 'Structure' deals with (1) 'stating the methodology of review' and (2) 'structuring the article'. Finally, 'conclusion' involves (1) 'presenting the author's own reflection, argument, or proposed model' and (2) 'stating what it means or what contributions it makes to the literature'. In terms of range, Zare and Naseri (2021) found 'purpose' and 'structure' as the most widely used moves. In terms of frequency, they found 'structure' as the most frequently used move.

Review articles serve different functions, i.e., to organize literature, to evaluate literature, to identify patterns and trends in the literature, to synthesize literature, and to identify research gaps and recommend new research areas (Mayer,

2009). Hence, they advance dissemination of knowledge and are crucial. Nevertheless, they are few and far between which may be due to the fact that their overall structure is not clear (Webster & Watson, 2002).

With the above points in mind, a clear image of the rhetorical organization of the review article genre, in general, and its subgenres or different sections, in particular, is missing. As an attempt to fill this gap in the literature, this study was done to investigate the move-based structure of the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles in linguistics and applied linguistics fields.

Materials and Methods

Corpus

The present investigation was based on a corpus of more than 500 English conceptual review articles, published between 2000 and 2018. The corpus constituted articles mainly from linguistics and applied linguistics fields, each equally accounting for half of the articles. Only linguistics and applied linguistics articles were gathered in the corpus because the two fields are closely related. Linguistics concerns the scientific study of language and applied linguistics, as a branch of linguistics, deals with the practical applications of language studies. Due to varying publishing norms and as an attempt to ensure that the corpus presents a representative image of the language of this genre, the articles in the corpus were chosen from different journals and publishers. Attempts were made to include articles from major publishing houses and journals. The publishers include Oxford University Press, Cambridge University Press, Elsevier, Wiley, Sage, Routledge - Taylor & Francis, De Gruyter Mouton, John Benjamins, and Linguistic Society of America. The journals include Applied Linguistics, ELT Journal, Language Teaching, Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, ReCALL, System, Journal of English for Academic Purposes, Journal of Second Language Writing, TESOL Quarterly, Language Learning, Language Testing, Computer Assisted Language Learning, Language, Journal of Linguistics, Lingua, Theoretical Linguistics, Linguistics, The Linguistic Review, Australian Journal of Linguistics, Annual Review of Cognitive Linguistics, and International Journal of Corpus Linguistics.

In terms of authorship, articles with one or more than one author were all compiled in the corpus. However, the level of English language knowledge of the

contributors to articles and whether they were native speakers of English were not considered. It was assumed that publishing in major journals of the field requires a good command of English writing and as such the writers of articles have this level of familiarity with English. It also goes without saying that review articles, published in major scientific journals, are solicited by the journal editor(s) and written by key figures in the relevant fields and as such know enough English. In terms of intercultural rhetoric, as contributors to journals are members of the same discourse community and are assumed to stick to the norms and conventions of their discourse community, they were all considered English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) writers, whether English was their first, second, or foreign language.

From articles in the above corpus which had separate conclusion sections, a sample of 100 conclusion sections (50 from linguistics and 50 from applied linguistics articles) was randomly selected and standardized for further analysis, using AntFileConverter. The word count of the sample amounted to more than 30,000 words.

Analytical Procedure

We followed a two-level analytic approach, move and sub-move, for the analysis of review articles conclusions. That is, the analysis involved detecting and investigating the generic moves and sub-moves that writers use to achieve communicative purposes (Swales, 1990). A move is a semantic and functional unit in a text which is used for a particular purpose (Ding, 2007). Sub-moves (Santos, 1996) are smaller units of discourse that realize moves (Hyland, 2004). Due to their communicative purpose and linguistic boundaries, moves and sub-moves can be identified and used to describe textual regularities of genres (Connor et al., 1995).

Analysis of moves in English review articles involved a corpus-driven discourse analytic top-down approach. The discourse analytic top-down nature of the approach involved identifying moves based on the content or communicative functions of discourse units, rather than their lexical or structural features (Pho, 2008). Additionally, the corpus-driven nature of the study was related to the fact that instead of taking the moves and sub-moves, already identified and described in the literature as the starting point for analysis (e.g., Jiang & Hyland, 2017), we identified and described moves and sub-moves with no preconception about them

from the literature review. That is, the 100 English review article conclusion sections were carefully read and coded to see what moves and sub-moves emerge from them (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001).

Moves may vary in length from a phrase to a clause, sentence, an entire paragraph or multiple paragraphs. Because of the corpus-driven nature of our approach, we did not determine the unit of coding for moves and sub-moves in advance. Moreover, because of "our initial emphasis on function and content rather than form", and as moves and sub-moves were primarily identified based on their communicative purposes, we followed Moreno and Swales (2018) and did not adopt a formal criterion (Moreno & Swales, 2018).

Data Analysis

An emergent methodology, based on grounded theory, was followed in the present study. That is, instead of testing preconceived hypotheses about the data, we tried to uncover the theory and meaning in the data itself. The corpus-driven discourse analytic top-down approach, followed in the study, was in keeping with this. In terms of software, identification of the moves and sub-moves was done using MAXQDA 2018. Moreover, to ensure inter-coder reliability in identifying moves and sub-moves, we read and coded the conclusion section of articles independently. In case, the same portions of discourse were coded differently by the two researchers, a third coder was invited. For a more accurate and precise identification of moves and sub-moves, 50% of the coded conclusion sections were also coded by the third coder. Inter-coder reliability was also calculated, using Cohen's k in IBM SPSS Statistics 24. Cohen's kappa for the two reliability analyses were computed as 0.85 and 0.80, respectively.

After identifying moves and sub-moves, their range and frequency distributions were computed. Range is the percentage of conclusion sections that contained each move or sub-move. The basis of range comes from the presence or absence of each move or sub-move in every article. That is, if a certain move or sub-move is present in 50% of the articles, then we have a range of 50. In order to cater for the idiosyncrasies of individual writers and varying publishing norms and conventions of different publishers, no cut-off was determined for range. Frequency is the sum of the number of times each move or sub-move is repeated in the entire

corpus. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, no statistical tests, other than range and frequency distributions, were run for the data.

After computing the range and frequency distribution of each move and sub-move, the next step was to build sub-corpora from the associated texts of each move. The purpose of this phase of the analysis was to see if the identified moves vary from each other. Each sub-corpus was investigated, using AntConc's Concordance feature.

Results and Discussion

We observed a set of five moves in the conclusion section of conceptual review articles in English linguistics and applied linguistics fields. These include: i) 'reestablishing the territory' (territory), ii) 'reintroducing the present research' (purpose), iii) 'reorganizing the paper' (structure), iv) 'concluding or reflecting' (conclusion), and v) 'suggesting' (suggestion).

These moves are somewhat different from what Yang and Allison (2003) and Moritz et al. (2008) observed. Yang and Allison (2003) found three moves, i.e., 'summarizing the study', 'evaluating the study', and 'deductions from the research', in the conclusion section of applied linguistics research papers, among which 'summarizing the study' almost corresponds to our 'conclusion' move and 'deductions from the research' is the same as our 'suggestion' move. Here, the difference is mainly in the presence of 'territory', 'purpose', and 'structure' moves in our corpus. Moritz et al. (2008) found six moves, i.e., 'restating the introductory statement', 'consolidating the research space', 'summarizing the study', 'commenting on results', 'evaluating the study', and 'making deductions from the research'. Among them, 'restating the introductory statement' is partially similar to our 'territory' and 'purpose' moves; 'commenting on results' is somewhat similar to our 'conclusion' move; and 'making deductions from the research' is corresponds to our 'suggestion' move. Therefore, here the distinction is in the presence of 'structure' move in our corpus. On the other hand, our moves are almost similar to the moves found in English conceptual review articles abstracts, i.e., 'territory', 'problem', 'purpose', 'structure', and 'conclusion', with only one difference (Zare & Naseri, 2021). Instead of 'problem' move, conclusion sections of English conceptual review articles include 'suggestion'. The presence of 'structure' move in English

conceptual review articles, as Zare and Naseri (2021) note, is related to the fact that the overall organization of review articles is not clear and because of this they do not have a uniform structure; therefore, the writers of review articles inform their readers about their particular content structure. The presence of 'territory' and 'purpose' moves in this study may be explained by the fact that our corpus only contained conceptual review articles and because of their argumentative nature, it is crucial to situate the argument within a well-established area of study and discuss what earlier research has to offer, as Zare and Naseri (2021) note. The absence of 'problem' move in our corpus is related to the fact that reputable journals do not publish unsolicited conceptual review articles, as Zare and Naseri (2021) note. As such, authors of conceptual review articles are not required to write about the significance of their article by indicating the gap in the literature, as their article eventually gets a place in the journal.

In order to further explore our model of moves and see which ones are obligatory or optional, we computed their range. Table 1 presents the results of calculating the range and frequency of these moves.

Table 1

Range and Frequency Distribution of Moves

Moves	Range		Frequency distribution	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Territory	43	43	88	8.53
Purpose	43	43	72	6.98
Structure	30	30	78	7.56
Conclusion	97	97	608	58.91
Suggestion	62	62	186	18.02
Total			1032	100

In terms of range, as Table 1 shows, of all the moves in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles, only 'conclusion' and 'suggestion' had a range of more than 60%. According to Kanoksilapatham (2005), if a move is present in every article in the corpus, it is regarded 'obligatory'; if it occurs in less than 60% of the articles in the corpus, it is considered 'optional'; and if its occurrence in the corpus ranges from 60% to 99% of the articles, it is considered

'conventional'. Therefore, in this study, there were no obligatory moves in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles; 'conclusion' and 'suggestion' were conventional moves; and 'territory', 'purpose', and 'structure' were optional moves. Also, in our corpus, 'conclusion' was the most widely used move, followed by 'suggestion', 'territory', 'purpose', and 'structure'. This is in line with the findings of Amnuai and Wannaruk (2013) who found 'summarizing the study' which almost corresponds to our 'conclusion' move as the only conventional move in their corpus. Amnuai and Wannaruk (2013) found the other two moves, i.e., 'evaluating the study', and 'deductions from the research' to be optional. Unfortunately, Yang and Allison (2003) do not report on the essentiality of their moves in the conclusion section of applied linguistics research papers.

Considering frequency distribution, as Table 1 shows, 'conclusion' was the most frequently used move, followed by 'suggestion', 'territory', 'structure', and 'purpose'. This is in keeping with the findings of Adel and Ghorbani Moghadam (2015), Amnuai and Wannaruk (2013), Yang and Allison (2003), and Zamani and Ebadi (2016). This finding also mirrors the results of Moritz et al. (2008) who found 'making deductions from the research' as the most frequent move, as Moritz et al.'s move is a combination of our 'conclusion' and 'suggestion' moves. Unlike Zare and Naseri (2021) study where moves dealing with 'purpose' and 'structure' were among the most widely and frequently used moves in the abstract of English conceptual review articles, their use was very limited in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles. Instead, moves dealing with 'conclusion' and 'suggestion' were the most widely and frequently used moves. This may be due to the purpose of the conclusion which is to go beyond the findings of the study through "suggesting personal positions, attitudes and behaviors to solve the problems identified by the research, and as linking it to the wider world of practical and pedagogic implications/applications as well as to future research" (Moritz et al., 2008, p. 240).

Table 2 presents the results of computing the range and frequency distribution of the sub-moves, associated with each move, in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles.

Table 2

Range and Frequency Distribution of Sub-moves

Moves	Sub-moves	Range		Frequency distribution	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Territory	1	32	32	54	5.24
	2	23	23	34	3.29
Purpose	1	45	45	53	5.13
	2	11	11	19	1.84
Structure	1	23	23	50	4.84
	2	15	15	28	2.72
Conclusion	1	77	77	352	34.11
	2	72	72	256	24.81
Suggestion	1	42	42	102	9.88
	2	45	45	84	8.14
Total				1032	100

As Table 2 shows, moves in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles were each realized through a distinct set of sub-moves. These sub-moves are outlined below.

i) Territory
   (1) making/drawing statements/generalizations about the topic
   (2) reviewing the results of previous research

ii) Purpose
   (1) restating the aim(s) of the article
   (2) narrowing down the scope of the article or stating limitations

iii) Structure
   (1) Structuring the article
   (2) stating theoretical framework/methodology of the article

iv) Conclusion
   (1) reporting the results or points derived from the literature
   (2) interpreting/commenting on the results or presenting the author's own reflection, argument, or proposed model

v) Suggestion
   (1) stating applications/implications of the article

(2) stating recommendations for further research

Overall, the presence of both moves and sub-moves in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles indicates that authors of such articles "use alternative rhetorical strategies for the realization of the same rhetorical goal" (Tankó, 2017, p. 48). On the other hand, these moves and sub-moves are different from their counterparts in research papers conclusion sections (e.g., Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013; Moritz, et al., 2008; Yang & Allison, 2003). The difference is due to the nature of articles in our corpus. Review articles, due to their particular audience, follow their own rhetorical structure.

The following five sub-sections deal specifically with each move and present examples for their associated sub-moves.

Territory

The first move, 'territory', in English conceptual review articles involves reestablishing the territory by giving an overview of the topic of the study. This is mainly done through two sub-moves, i.e., (i) 'making statements/generalizations about the topic' (1) and (ii) 'reviewing the results of previous research' which are deemed important to the argument of the article (2). The first step, as the name suggests, involves making general statements about the topic; the second step concerns reviewing previous research.

(1) *Sign* language shows that we can only hope to understand phonology … (L-5)

(2) … describe language as … (AL-10)

As Table 2 shows, both sub-moves are considered optional, with the first sub-move partially more frequent than the second sub-move. This mirrors Moritz et al.'s (2008) analysis where 'restating the introductory statement' is one of the least used moves, incorporating both of these sub-moves. What is important here is that Moritz et al.'s move corresponds to our 'territory' and 'purpose' moves in combination. The low occurrence of these two sub-moves in English review article conclusion sections is consistent with the fact that conclusions in research papers review articles are not summaries of other sections. The infrequent occurrence of the second sub-move is in line with Bunton's (2005) observation that conclusions contain the lowest number of references to previous research.

'Territory' is comparable to Swales' (1990) 'establishing a territory' in the

introduction section of research papers. However, Swales' move contains 'making a centrality claim' which was totally absent in the conclusion of English conceptual review articles. This sub-move aims to promote the significance of the article by informing the reader that the research being reported lies within a well-established area. The absence of this sub-move may be related to the fact that most linguistics and applied linguistics conceptual review articles, published in reputable journals, are solicited by the editor or board of editors and thus there is no need to indicate their significance.

Purpose

The second move, 'purpose', deals with restating the aim(s) of the article. Here, the article is introduced and its scope is determined (3). This is mainly done in two sub-moves. These are (i) 'restating the aim(s) of the article' (4) and (ii) 'narrowing down the scope of the article or stating limitations' (5).

(3) *This* article reviews the significant synergies CALL … *The* goal was to … (AL-34)

(4) *This* paper analyzes English aspectual particles and particle verbs … *(L-9)*

(5) *In* particular, it evaluated the mechanisms … (AL-1)

The second sub-move may also serve an evaluative function. That is, the writer evaluates the article by delineating areas which fall outside the scope of the article as limitations. In this sense, this sub-move is similar to Swales and Feak's (1994) 'limitations' move, Yang and Allison's (2003) 'expressing the limitations of the study' sub-move under 'evaluating the study' move, and Moritz et al.'s (2008) 'indicating limitations' sub-move under 'evaluating the study' move. According to Table 2, in terms of range and frequency, both sub-moves are optional, with the first sub-move being more frequent and widely present than the second one.

'Purpose' was also found in English conceptual review article abstracts with the same sub-moves. Yet, its rhetorical function in the conclusion section is different from that of the abstract (Zare & Naseri, 2021). In abstracts, the aim is to fill a gap in some cases where it follows 'identifying the problem' move. Here, however, the aim of 'purpose' move is only to introduce the article and put it within a scientific area, along with 'territory' move.

Structure

The third move, 'structure', concerns restructuring the article. Here, the conceptual organization of the article, along with its theoretical framework or methodology, is described. This is mainly done through two sub-moves, including (i) 'structuring the article' (6) and (ii) 'stating theoretical framework/methodology of the article' (7).

(6) *I* began by arguing for the centrality of language to culture … (AL-10)

(7) *The* semantic and syntactic aspects of each verb are represented by means of a semantic metalanguage … (L-12)

The presence of 'stating theoretical framework/methodology of the article' move is mostly related to linguistics articles (7). As Table 2 shows, in terms of range and frequency, both sub-moves are optional; the second sub-move is less frequent and widely present than the first one. This may be related to the fact that review articles do not report on empirical experimental research and thus lack procedural aspects to discuss within the article. Overall, according to Table 1 and Table 2, moves and sub-moves dealing with the organization of the article were among the least frequent and widely present moves. This is strikingly different from what Zare and Naseri (2021) found. Zare and Naseri (2021) observe this move as the most widespread and frequent move in English conceptual review articles.

Conclusion

The fourth move, 'conclusion', deals with highlighting main findings and interpreting them. This is done through two sub-moves, including (i) 'reporting the results or points derived from the literature' (8) and (ii) 'interpreting/commenting on the results or presenting the author's own reflection, argument, or proposed model' (9, 10).

(8) *Nonetheless*, this review of classroom studies finds that songs … (AL-20)

(9) *To* account for this pair of facts I have proposed an alternative to the … (L-69)

(10) *I* argue that English aspectual particles are not markers of telicity … (L-9)

What is important about the first sub-move in review articles is that it concerns the main findings of the research studies it reviews, whereas its counterparts in research papers, namely Yang and Allison's (2003) 'summarizing the study' and Moritz et al.'s (2008) 'commenting on results' moves, deal with the

main results of their own research. Presence of the second sub-move 'interpreting/commenting on the results or presenting the author's own reflection, argument, or proposed model' in English conceptual review article conclusions can be seen as another point of difference between the conclusion section of review articles and that of research papers. According to Yang & Allison (2003), "the Discussion focuses more on commenting on specific results, while the Conclusion concentrates more on highlighting overall results and evaluating the study" (p. 379). Therefore, unlike conclusions in research papers, conclusions in review articles spare some space to interpreting findings. This can be attributed to the fact that there is no such a section as Discussion in review articles. According to Table 2, both sub-moves were more widespread and more frequently used than any other sub-move which indicates their importance in conceptual review article conclusions. This is in keeping with the fact that the main aim of the conclusion section is advancement of knowledge. The first sub-move was more frequent and widely present than the second one. This is in line with the results of prior research (e.g., Adel & Ghorbani Moghadam, 2015; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013; Yang & Allison, 2003; Zamani & Ebadi, 2016).

Suggestion

The last move, 'suggestion', is concerned with relating the article to broader field issues. This is mainly done through two steps, including (i) 'stating applications/implications of the article' (11, 12) which involves linking theoretical knowledge to educational practice and (ii) 'stating recommendations for further research' (13) which requires stating what research areas are felt most needed.

(11) *When* it comes to design, CALL needs to closely observe and adopt … (AL-34)

(12) *Continued* efforts for classroom applications and teacher training will … (AL-40)

(13) *Many* questions of … remain to be illuminated by studies of lifespan change. (L-60)

The move 'suggestion' is analogous to Berkenkotter and Huckin's (1995) 'establishing additional territory' move. Berkenkotter and Huckin's move appears in the discussion section of research papers and gives information about the implications of the study or directions for future research. 'Suggestion' is also

similar to 'deductions from the research' in Yang and Allison (2003), 'making deductions from the research' in (Moritz et al., 2008), and 'further research' in Swales and Feak (1994) analyses. As Table 2 shows, the two sub-moves under 'suggestion' were both among frequent and widespread sub-moves with a slight difference. The widespread and frequent use of these sub-moves, along with their associated move 'suggestion' is in line with the results of Moritz et al. (2008). On the other hand, the widespread and frequent use of the second sub-move is in contrast to Berkenkotter and Huckin's (1995) observation that writers of English-medium science research ignore this move to avoid scientific competition.

Conclusion

The present paper reports on a study which investigated the rhetorical organization of the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles in linguistics and applied linguistics fields, drawing on a move-based genre analysis approach. Though limited in a number of ways, including the small number of articles in the corpus which was due to the small number of such articles published in peer-reviewed journals, and the fact that the analysis was restricted to investigation of English conceptual review articles conclusion sections as a genre product (Yang & Allison, 2003), the study resulted in a number of observations which are worth noting.

First, conclusions in English conceptual review articles differ from conclusions in research papers in terms of primary communicative purposes. Unlike writers of research papers who see the conclusion section as less prominent than the discussion section and only as an alternative for the discussion section (e.g., Nwogu, 1997; Posteguillo, 1999; Swales & Feak, 1994; see Bunton, 2005 for a complete review), this study finds it as an important section with different rhetorical purposes. This is evident in the new set of moves and sub-moves identified in this sub-genre.

Second, the moves and sub-moves identified in the conclusion section of English conceptual review articles include: 1) territory ('making statements/generalizations about the topic' and 'reviewing the results of previous research'), 2) purpose ('restating the aim(s) of the article' and 'narrowing down the scope of the article or stating limitations'), 3) structure ('structuring the article' and 'stating theoretical framework/methodology of the article'), 4) conclusion

('reporting the results or points derived from the literature' and 'interpreting/commenting on the results or presenting the author's own reflection, argument, or proposed model'), and 5) suggestion ('stating applications/implications of the article' and 'stating recommendations for further research').

Third, a cyclic pattern is observed only in the last two moves, i.e., 'conclusion' and 'suggestion', as the writer reports main findings of prior research, interprets them, relates them to educational practice, and recommends further research based on what is felt most necessary. In this sense, the conclusion of review articles is different from the conclusion of research papers, as the latter mainly summarizes the study by highlighting findings and indicating significance of the study. Additionally, in this regard, unlike most research paper conclusions, conclusions in review articles are considered more field-oriented than thesis-oriented, using Bunton's (2005) terms. This is mainly because the main goals of writing such articles are to identify patterns and trends in the literature, to evaluate, organize and synthesize it, and to identify gaps and recommend new areas of research (Mayer, 2009). Last but not least, unlike research papers conclusions, review articles conclusions contain 'suggestion' as a core feature of their rhetorical organization.

The results of our study can benefit both theoreticians and practitioners. Theoretically, our model of moves and sub-moves may be used by scholars as a basis for research on other genres and sub-genres. Pedagogically, our results may be used by EAP teachers and materials developers to raise the students' awareness of the rhetorical organization of review articles. Further research may focus on the disciplinary variation of the proposed model of moves and sub-moves, and the effect of linguistic and cultural differences on writing conclusions for review articles.

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Switches that Count: Perceived Functions of University Instructors' Code-Switching Practices in English Major Undergraduate Content versus Language Classes

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Abstract

There are contradicting views about the place of L1 and code-switching (as a common phenomenon) in language classrooms. Despite the plethora of studies investigating classroom code-switching, there is a lack of research comparing trans-languaging practices of university instructors across different contexts particularly in Iranian EFL undergraduate classrooms. The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the actual practices and perceived justifications and functions of code-switching in university level language and content classes. To do so, two groups of Iranian instructors (2 males and 4 females) teaching English major content classes (i.e., *Principals of Translation, Translating Journalistic Texts*, and *Research Methodology*) and language courses (i.e., *Speaking and Listening, Reading Comprehension*, and *Writing*) were observed, their classes were recorded, and they were interviewed through the stimulated recall technique. The switches' professed functions were qualitatively analyzed and then were categorized into three broad pedagogical functions (*curriculum access*, *classroom management*, and *interpersonal relations* along with their sub-functions), and,

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ultimately, they were counted and compared quantitatively. The findings revealed that code-switching was perceived as a goal-directed strategy which was considerably more prevalent (especially intersentential type) in content classes. The findings in this study can make contributions to the work of university instructors, language teachers, and other educational skateholders.The purposeful and fruitful practice of judicious code-switching as a communicative teaching strategy canhelp teachers reduce students' cognitive and affective burden while improving their comprehension and learning.

Keywords: classroom code-switching, content classes, language skills classes, perceived functions, undergraduate, university instructors

Introduction

As a common yet controversial phenomenon in most bilingual situations, including the language learning contexts, code-switching has attracted the attention of scholars over the last few decades, and many researchers have attempted to identify its types and functions in the classroom (e.g. Bullock & Toribio, 2009; Dailey-O'Cain, & Liebscher, 2009; Ferguson, 2003; Jouibar, et al., 2021; Macaro, 2009; Momenian & Samar, 2011; Nazeri, et al., 2020; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014). Some researchers believe that only the target language should be used in the classroom to ensure that learners have received as much input as possible in the target language (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Wong-Fillmore, 1985), while some researchers argue that L1 use should be allowed in the foreign language classroom to improve comprehension (Levine, 2014; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Rivers, 2011; Stern, 1992; see also Jouibar et al., 2021). Investigating the functions of classroom code-switching, Willans (2011) observed that learners' code-switching was purposeful and in fact improved their learning rather than only compensating for their lack of proficiency in the official language. He concluded that there should be a policy which does not hinder learning by not allowing the use of other languages and at the same time help learners to improve their English proficiency (Willans, 2011).

As noted above, code-switching can be a resource conducive to learning.The next issue, however, is clarifying the determinant criteria for its classroom application by leaners and teachers in order for code-switching to be beneficially applied, while not depriving the students of the necessary input they

need to receive in the target language. The optimal level for code-switching which "will ultimately lead to enhanced language learning and the development of bilingual communicative practices" was addressed in Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain's work (2009, p. 183). They proposed that an optimal level of L1 use can operate as a cognitive tool resulting in the development of language learning. Code-witching practice in its optimal level will scaffold learners and take advantage of L1 resources and at the same time prevent learners' and educators' dependence on the first language (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain's, 2009). More specifically, it depends on the teachers' knowledge and awareness of the functions and reasons for (beneficial versus detrimental) code-switching based on the context of use.

In an inspiring study which accentuates the significance of context in classroom code-switching practices, Ferguson (2003) investigated the phenomenon in content classrooms where the medium of instruction was a foreign language. He identified the functions of code-switching as well as the attitudes, and policies towards it. Moreover, discussing the scaffolding role of code-switching in content classes, Ferguson argued that a resort to the local language of the students can reduce the difficulties they may encounter in content classes. In a relevant investigation, Mokgwathi and Webb (2013) compared code-switching in language versus content classes. They observed that teachers of the content-based classes used code-switching more than language teachers, and code-switching was tolerated less by language teachers indicating that the subject played a significant role in code-switching tolerance.

Previous domestic investigations on the actual practices as well as the cognitive knowledge structure of Iranian language teachers underscore the existence of and a resort to the contested practice of code-switching as an integral component of the teachers' practical knowledge-base (e.g., Ebrahimzadeh & Talebzadeh, 2021; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014). In fact, in spite of the surge in the number of Iranian studies on the functions of code-switching in the language classroom (e.g., Jouibar, et al., 2021; Momenian & Samar, 2011; Nazeri, et al., 2020; Rahimi & Eftekhari, 2011; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014), little research, if any, has been conducted exploring and comparing types and functions of code-switching (as a context-bound phenomenon) in content versus language classes in the Iranian universities.

To address some of the above-mentioned gaps in the literature, the present

small-scale exploratory study intends to monitor and analyze the actual code-switching practices of a sample of Iranian university instructors in order to ultimately tap into their cognitions of code-switching as a teaching strategy; in so doing, the researchers investigate and compare the perceptions of the language versus content course instructors about the reasons and functions underlying their actual classroom practices. Specifically, the following questions are raised:

1. What are the functions of teacher code-switching as perceived by the Iranian university instructors?

2. To what extent are the instructors' code-switching practices and professed functions different in the language classes versus content classes?

The findings of this study can shed new light on the cognition of language teachers (Akbari & Dadvand, 2011; Akbari, Dadvand, et al., 2012; Ebrahimzadeh & Talebzadeh, 2021; Samar & Moradkhani, 2013) as well as on the potential pedagogical role of translingual practices in the language classroom, and how they can benefit the teachers and their learners without hindering learning at the cost of mere target language use.

Review of Related Literature
Description of Code-switching

Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009) consider code-switching as a common phenomenon in bilingual speech and define it as "the systematic, alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single conversation or utterance" (p. 131). Gumperz (1982) defines code-switching as "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (p. 59). Code-switching is a universal characteristic of multilingual speech which emerges in multilingual groups with shared identities and "displays the underlying linguistic and social flexibility of speakers in conversation" (Franceschini, 1998, p. 67).

As Gafaranga (2009, p. 125) proposes, code-switching contributes to some aspects of talk organization, including ""turn-taking (participant selection), opening sequences (see language negotiation), repair organization, preference organization, and inserted and aside sequences". Bullock and Toribio (2009) believe that all the speakers, even monolinguals, vary the language they use in different conditions.

They further argue that code-switching is not a sign of lack of control in separating the languages or lack of proficiency, rather it is a communicative resource for bilingual speakers. Bullock and Toribio (2009) characterize code-switching as a phenomenon which may range from inserting a single word in another language to larger segments of discourse.

Various factors determine bilinguals' preference for using a particular type of language switching, including, as noted by Bullock and Toribio (2009), "bilingual proficiency, level of monitoring in the two languages, the triggering of a particular language by specific items and the degree of separateness of storage and access systems" (p. 8). It is claimed that there is a greater occurrence of intra-sentential code-switching (i.e. switches within a sentence) in the speech of balanced bilinguals, because high level of proficiency in both languages is needed in order to be able to mix languages at the sentence level (Muysken, 2000).

Types of Code-switching

Code-switching has been conceptualized under different models with varying orientations to the cognitive or social aspects of the phenomenon such as the minimalist program, the matrix language framework, the language production model, and conversation analytic model of code-switching, among others (Cantone, 2007; Cantone & MacSwan, 2009; Gafaranga, 2009; Myers-Scotton & Jake, 2009; Muysken, 2000). In line with the major aim of the current study, we mainly focus on three categories of code-switching types.

Winford (2009) categorizes language mixing into two groups of insertional code-switching and structural convergence. He further assumes two types of insertional code-switching, called classic code-switching and composite code-switching. In classic code-switching, the content morphemes or phrasal elements of one language are inserted in the structural frame of the other while in composite code-switching, there is a shared structural frame which is taken from both languages (Winford, 2009).

Another typology, which is provided by Muysken (2000), uses code-mixing as the general term to describe the processes involved in mixing languages in bilingual speech; Muysken (2000) chooses this terminology over code-switching because he believes that code-switching should only be attributed to the alternation

process, which itself is a type of code-mixing. He further argues that code-switching draws a distinction between code-mixing and borrowing which is too sharp. Muysken (2000) proposes that there are three main processes of code mixing, namely insertion (i.e. putting content components of one language in the structure frame of the other language resulting in inhibition of each language activation at specific points of language shift), alternation (also called code-switching, where the speakers alternates between the structures of the languages using both languages' lexicon and structures), and congruent lexicalization (i.e. putting into a shared structure the lexical items of two languages with similar grammatical structures). Code-swithcing in the current study is used in the general sense of code-mixing (as proposed by Muysken (2000)).

From a grammatical point of view, Poplack (1980) categorizes code-switching into three types of inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and emblematic or tag switching. In inter-sentential switching, the switch takes place at sentence boundary; to produce this type of switch more knowledge of L2 is needed. Intra-sentential switch occurs within the clause boundary and requires the speaker to have enough knowledge of the grammar of both languages in order to produce grammatical utterances. The third type is tag switching which includes interjections, fillers, tags, and idiomatic expressions produced in the second language with minimal knowledge of its grammar. Poplack suggests that bilinguals' ability can be measured based on their code-switching behavior. She illustrates the grammar of the bilingual speakers in the following figure:

Figure 1

Representation of Bilingual Code-switching Grammars (Poplack, 1980, p. 239)

a. Inter-sentential switching   b. 'tag'-switching   c. Intra-sentential switching
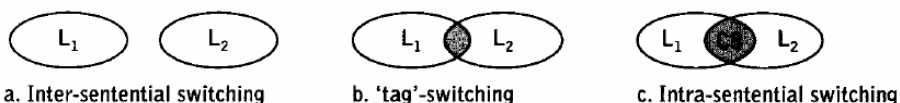
Code-switching in the Classroom

Jouibar, et al. (2021) highlight the position of the "bilingual approach to teaching a foreign language" which proposes "that students' foreign language is built upon their first language knowledge and abilities …. [and] the starting point of learning a foreign language is students' first language (Enama, 2016; Hofweber et

al., 2020; Narayan, 2019)" (p. 147). Although nowadays the systematic use of first language in the classroom is gaining varying levels of acceptance , some programs still insist on the exclusive use of target language in the classes. French immersion is one of these programs which holds to the idea that exclusive use of target language is the best practice, yet the results of the studies conducted on the use of first language in these programs reveal that students code-switch in classroom for cognitive and social purposes and their first language use improves their learning and does not hinder it (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009).

In a study investigating teacher code-switching practices in French immersion program, where the target language is the medium of instruction rather than its purpose, McMillan and Turnbull (2009) examined two experienced teachers' perceptions and practices regarding first language use. One of the teachers advocated the exclusive use of the target language, yet he used a small amount of students' first language in his teaching practice. The other teacher advocated the systematic use of first language and used it in order to ensure learner comprehension while teaching. The results of this study revealed that although the policy of the program was against the use of first language, both teachers used it in their teaching practices (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009).

Evans (2009) studied code-switching in a computer-mediated communication context where the students were learning their interlocutors' language. He investigated the natural interaction between native and non-native speakers of two languages and the way students might have learned from each other. The analysis of the data showed two kinds of switches, between-post switching and within-post switching. The majority of the switches were within posts, either inter-sentential or intra-sentential code-switching. The functions of these switches were similar to the switches in bilingual speech. Most of the intra-sentential switches to target language were produced by more proficient bilinguals suggesting that this kind of switching demands a high level of proficiency in both languages (Evans, 2009).

Sali (2014) observed three EFL classes in a secondary school in Turkey to explore the reasons teachers had in mind for using students' L1 in the classroom. In so doing, she found three broad academic, managerial, and social/cultural reasons for employment of L1. The most widely used reason was the academic function

through which teachers spoke students' first language to convey the content of the lesson. Teachers also used L1 for managing purposes among which giving instructions for classroom tasks and activities was the most frequent. Another reason for employing L1 was concerned with cultural and social issues when teachers used the familiar code, students' first language, to establish rapport, communicate shared cultural expressions, and praise students (Sali, 2014). When interviewed, all Sali's (2014) participating teachers expressed a positive attitude toward using L1 in the classroom and attributed positive pedagogical values to L1 use. They believed that the employment of first language can improve learners' comprehension and reduce their anxiety.

According to Nagy and Robertson (2009, p. 85) the following factors influence the choice of language in the classroom:

- *External factors*: The curriculum, examinations, expectations in the school, the attitudes of the head-teacher, colleagues, parents and the political context

- *Internal (teacher-related)*: Professional experience, training, proficiency in the target language, self-confidence, beliefs about and attitudes towards the target language

- *Internal (learner-related)*: Age, ability, proficiency level, motivation, attitude towards the target language

- *Internal (context-related)*: The stage in the lesson and the nature of the task or activity

- *Internal (use of language)*: The extent to which language use is formulaic or predictable in the context

Examining the benefits and drawbacks of code-switching in content and language classes, Mokgwathi and Webb (2013) observed that code-switching happened in the classrooms in all the locations, subjects, levels, and by both genders. Teachers of the content-based classes used code-switching more than language teachers, and code-switching was tolerated less by language teachers indicating that the subject played a significant role in code-switching tolerance. Most of the switches by content teachers were intra-sentential, while language teachers mainly used inter-sentential code-switching. The findings of their study posit some positive (e.g. improving comprehension) and negative (e.g. constraining

L2 input) educational effects for code-switching.

In an Iranian context, a rather sizable sample of EFL students along with their teachers were observed and surveyed by Nazari et al. (2020) through an observation checklist and questionnaire developed to study the motivational determinants of code-switching in EFL classrooms. The results of their quantitative and qualitative analyses of institute classes revealed that there were six factors motivating the students to code-switch (i.e. forgetting or not knowing the English equivalent; forgetting or lack of word in language that the person speaks; transforming information easily; intricacy of some words in the language that person speaks; expressing emotions easily; and better understanding). Rather than being incentivised by their own personal comfort or the presence of classroom observers, the teacherswere motivated by more practical, pedagogical factors, namely preventing students' confusion; saving time; simplifying teaching,   understanding better (for students); teaching new terms, and providing better teaching (Nazari et al., 2020).

Samar and Moradkhani (2014) investigated teachers' purpose for code-switching, too. They observed EFL classrooms and interviewed four teachers to find out their cognitions about the aims of code-switching. Students' better comprehension was the most significant justification while efficiency was the least frequent reason for code-switching. They argued that language institute teachers employ code-switching strategy in their classes regardless of the (institutional) policies that forbid the use of any language other than the target language. They use translanguaging as a tool which helps them to accomplish curriculum objectives and reduce affective filters, ultimately leading to a better learning. Being among the extant quality studies tapping into the Iranian teachers' code-switching cognitions, Samar and Moradkhani (2014) is limited to language institute practitioners.

From among the few studies of code-switching in the Iranian academic settings, Shabani et al. (2016) as well as Rahimi and Eftekhari (2011) aimed to investigate the motivations and/or perceptions of Iranian university lecturers. The former interviewed 6 TEFL instructors and gave questionnaires to some of their students to investigate the purposes of code-switching, the preferences of the students, and the (mis-)match between that of the students and their instructors. No distinction was made, however, between the language skills and subject classes.

Shabani et al. (2016) concluded that although some lecturers were against code-switching to Persian in the classroom, others found it a useful pedagogic and affective strategy; additionally, the learners were generally positive about this practice as a strategy which is conducive to learning.

Rahimi and Eftekhari's (2011) qualitative analysis of the perceptions of two university lecturers (one teaching General English and the other ESP courses) is the closest in objective to ours. To identify functions of code-switching, perceptions of the instructors, and the words triggering cognitive code-switching, Rahimi and Eftekhari (2011) observed and interviewed the two instructors and found some differences between the two contexts. In addition, they identified the following six functions common between the two EFL contexts: providing equivalent for the key words, explaining grammatical structures, highlighting some lexical elements of vocabulary, inspiring students, expressing humor, and explaining next programs and assignments. Moreover, both lecturers "considered code switching as the crucial and influential part of Iranian EFL classrooms which aimed to facilitate the continuity of classroom interactions" (Rahimi & Eftekhari, 2011, p. 61). Their limited sample, nevertheless, did not leave much room for either a quantitative data analysis or a distinction between TEFL skills and subject area classes/lecturers.

All in all, being a context-sensitive phenomenon, code-switching and the pertinent actual practices, justifications, and functions (perceived by different stake-holders) in various domestic contexts are not yet amply scrutinized. In fact, it can be deduced from our literature review that, although there are several studies addressing code-switching forms and functions in different contexts, there is still paucity of investigations which qualitatively explore and compare the actual practices and the self-professed functions of instructor code-switching in content versus language classes in the context of language major programs at Iranian universities.

Methodology
Participants

The research questions of this exploratory qualitative-quantitative study address teachers' code-switching practices with regards to their functions, types, and differences in two contexts of content versus language university classes.

Accordingly, six instructors participated in the study, three of them were instructors at Kharazmi University and the other three were teaching at Azad University of Karaj holding PhDs (4) and MAs (2) in English Language Teaching. The classes of these six teachers (2 male and 4 female instructors) were observed and recorded from the beginning to the end of the session. Immediately after the classes finished, the instructors were interviewed using stimulated recall technique about their perceived justifications and functions of the code-switching practices they had employed during class time.

Procedure

The data of the study was collected through observation and interview. A total of six classes were put into two groups. All the classes were undergraduate English language majors' and their medium of instruction was English. In the first group, there were three content classes of *Theoretical Foundations and Principals of Translation, Translating Journalistic Texts*, and *Research Methodology*. Inthe second group, there were three general English language classes: *Speaking and Listening, Reading Comprehension*, and *Writing*. Each class lasted for 90 minutes which gave us 540 minutes of class time in total. The classes were both observed and audio recorded; additionally, whenever the instructors switched codes in their speech, their utterances and the exact time and context were marked and transcribed (either on the spot or later when the files were reviewed) to be used for the stimulated recall phase in the interview held immediately after the class (Gass & Mackey, 2016). The instructors were not informed in advance about the objectives of the research in order to prevent any change in their natural class routine. After the class was recorded from the beginning to the end, the instructors were interviewed on their switches during class time to elicit her/his perception of the function of each switch. The stimulated recall technique was used to evoke these perceived functions. The interview sessions were recorded, too. Afterwards, all the recordings were transcribed by the researchers to explore and compare types, frequencies, and functions of code-switching in content versus language skills classes. Due to the nature of the collected data, the analysis of the data is in the form of frequency counts.

Data Analysis

As mentioned above, the data from the speech of six university instructors were recorded and transcribed. In order to investigate the functions of teachers' code-switching, the functions that teachers assigned to each switch had to be coded. The framework adopted to code the data in the present study was inspired by Ferguson's (2003) pedagogic functions of code-switching since our initial analysis of a small proportion of the data (around 10 per cent) revealed that it can best account for our data as the functions proposed in our data set were similar to Ferguson's broad pedagogical functions. In his review of functions of classroom code-switching in postcolonial contexts, Ferguson (2003) states that the claimed functions of these switches can be put into three broad categories:

i.   CS for curriculum access. Basically, to help pupils understand the subject matter of their lessons,

ii. CS for classroom management discourse. e.g. To motivate, discipline and praise pupils, and to signal a change of footing,

iii. CS for interpersonal relations. E.g. To humanize the affective climate of the classroom and to negotiate different identities. (p. 2)

According to Ferguson (2003), the *curriculum access* function is related to elaborating the meaning which was presented in English in the first place. The purpose is to make the meaning understandable for students. *Scaffolding knowledge construction* which helps the students learn the content of the lesson better is a sub-function of curriculum access. *Classroom management* is related to the circumstances when the teacher uses the students' first language to attend to 'off-lesson' issues and to manage what is not related to the subject matter; such as controlling students' behavior, gaining their attention, and dealing with latecomers. It may also include managing students' learning; such as elaborating task instructions, addressing a specific student, and encouraging students' participation. Finally, *interpersonal relations* is related to instances when the teacher engages in a friendly talk with students during class time. From time to time, teachers may use the local language of students in order to get away from the formal teacher-student relationship and create empathy with students as members of the same society (Ferguson, 2003).

In the present study, code-switches with *curriculum access* functions are

coded as scaffolding knowledge construction, clarifying, reiterating, emphasizing, checking for understanding, and pointing out the obvious. *Classroom management* functions are coded as encouraging students, lightening the mood, gaining students' attention, giving directions, confirming and checking, controlling student's behavior, dealing with latecomers, addressing a specific student, and inviting student participation. And *interpersonal relations* are coded as building rapport. A brief summary of these pedagogical functions and sub-functions are presented in table 1. Moreover, following Poplack's (1980) typology, we categorized instructors' code-switching into three types of inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and tag switching.

Table 1

Broad Functions, Sub-functions, and Instances of Code-switching in the Study

Function and sub-function	Description	Examples taken from the study dataset
Curriculum access	To help the students understand the lesson better	
Scaffolding knowledge construction	*The teacher explains and elaborates the lesson*	"سبکش حماسی هست his poems are like Ferdowsi's" (Content class, Translation Theories, Female, PhD)
Emphasizing	*The teacher emphasizes on something to make the students aware of its importance*	"خیلی اهمیت داره که بدونید For what type of text you are translating" (Content class, Translation Theories, Female, PhD)
Reiterating	*The teacher repeats an utterance*	"تا اونجاییکه می تونیم خلاصه باشه، concise " باشه (Content class, Translation of Journalistic Texts, Female, PhD)
Clarifying	*The teacher gives an equivalence or rephrases a statement*	"Now in Farsi we say "کارد بخوره به اون شکمت "In this situation, I code-switched to clarify the exact meaning … because it was not clear enough

Function and sub-function	Description	Examples taken from the study dataset
		..." (Language Skills class, Reading Comprehension, Female, MA)
Checking for understanding	*The teacher checks students' understanding of the lesson*	"OK, so you should be able to tell me تفاوت این دو تا design در چی هست؟" (Content class, Research Methodology, Male, PhD)
Pointing out the obvious	*The teacher points out that the meaning of something is clear*	"خوبه به شرطی که بخواید Functional کار کنید" "The students have been taught and are quite familiar with the term functional and it is obvious to them." (Content class, Translation of Journalistic Texts, Female, PhD)
Classroom management	Managing classroom issues and students' behaviors	
Encouraging students	*The teacher encourages students*	"اونایی که درس نخوندن حداقل Listen کنن" (Content class, Translation of Journalistic Texts, Female, MA)
Lightening the mood	*The teacher changes the mood and tone of the class to prevent exhaustion*	"اون دیگه چه Demon ی بوده که عرضه نداشته تا Tribe بره و Was easily fooled by the paints" "It was intended as fun and to lighten the mood while repeating the key terms of the listening passage."

Function and sub-function	Description	Examples taken from the study dataset
		(Language Skills class, Speaking and Listening, Male, PhD)
Gaining students' attention	*The teacher draws students' attention on the task or the lesson*	"خوب بچه ها ا The first paragraph …. [again in Persian, then in English] What does it say in the first paragraph?" (Content class, Translation Theories, Female, PhD)
Giving directions	*The teacher gives directions and elaborates task directions and class activities*	The instructor who had elaborated on the task ahead in Farsi explained that "the class is heterogeneous, and some would and some would not understand the task requirements; to invite and give equal chance of participation to all class members [the instructions are supplemented in Farsi] (Language Skills class, Speaking and Listening, Male, PhD)
Confirming and checking	*The teacher confirms or seeks confirmation on what has been asked or said*	"Yes, آرد میزدن به خودشون To look attractive یا گل (میزدند)؟" "To ensure that students have heard 'flour' and not 'flower'" (Language Skills class, Speaking and Listening, Male, PhD)
Controlling students' behaviors	*The teacher disciplines student's behavior, talk, or their interactions*	[Reacting to a student's unfavorable behavior] "What happened همینجوری بدون اجازه؟" (Content class, Translation Theories, Female, PhD)
Dealing with latecomers	*The teacher attends to the student who has arrived late*	"اصلا چرا اومدی؟ اومدی که حاضر بخوری؟" (Content class, Translation Theories, Female, PhD)
Addressing a	*The teacher contacts*	"It was like a rainbow.

Function and sub-function	Description	Examples taken from the study dataset
specific student	*one specific student*	"هررنگی که دستش رسیده." "I code-switched here to help the struggling student through restating the gist and relieving some tension and to show him/her that s/he had done the task correctly." (Language Skills class, Speaking and Listening, Male, PhD)
Inviting students' participation	*The teacher asks students to participate in class procedures and activities*	See also "Giving directions" example above
Interpersonal relations	Creating a friendly environment in the classroom	
Building rapport	*The teacher creates empathy and establishes rapport with students*	"At some points, I use Farsi to establish rapport with my students or to avoid their becoming bored (so that) they'd laugh or understand the point, like example 2." (Content class, Translation of Journalistic Texts, Female, PhD)

Results

The purpose of this study was to scrutinize code-switching practices in higher education English-medium content and language classes. Through the data collection procedure, it was observed that code-switching practices were purposeful and served different functions; they are utilized to enhance students' learning, to help the teacher control classroom setting, and also to enable learners and instructors to communicate as members of the same discourse community leaving behind the student-teacher roles and reducing the distance between them when the occasion was appropriate. In this section, a detailed description of the findings of the study which help to answer the research questions are presented.

To answer the first research question, university lecturers were interviewed about their perceptions of functions of the switches they had employed during class time. The justifications and perceived roles were analyzed, coded, and categorized

into three broad functions (and their sub-functions) inspired by Ferguson's (2003) scheme. Most of the code-switching practices functioned as *curriculum access* and *classroom management* (43% and 41%, respectively). *Interpersonal relations* category was the least frequent function among others with only 16% (see Figure 2). Among sub-functions of *curriculum access*, scaffolding knowledge construction followed by clarifying were employed relatively more frequently. And for *managing classroom setting*, gaining students' attention and lightening the mood were the aim of most of the switches (See Figure 3 as well as Tables 2 and 3).

The second research question deals with comparing code-switching practices in language classes versus content classes in terms of frequency, function, and type. It was observed that the employment of code-switching in content classes was almost three times more frequent than language classes. From a total of 205 observed code-switches, 155 of them belonged to content classes while only 50 of them pertained to language classes. Regarding types of code switching (Poplack, 1980), the most popular kind was inter-sentential code-switching with 56% of all switches. Next was intra-sentential with 37.5% of use. And only 6.5% of them could be classified as Tag switching. Figure 1 illustrates the number of each type in two groups of language and content classes.

Figure 1

Frequency of the Three Types of Code-switching in Language and Content Classes
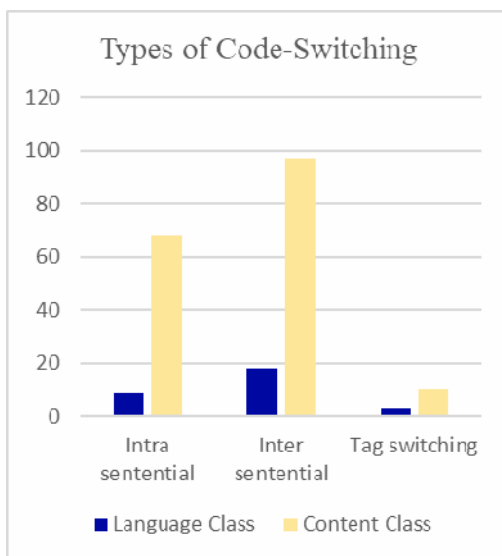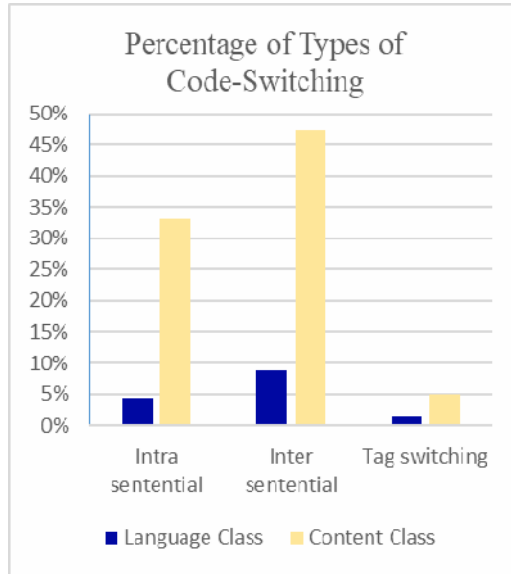
In terms of the purpose behind the practice of code-switching, the most frequent pedagogical function in content classes was *curriculum access* and in language classes it was *management of classroom*. *Interpersonal relations* function was employed the least in both classes. Figure 2 shows the frequency of these broad functions in language and content classes.

Figure 2

Frequency of Broad Pedagogical Functions of Code-switching in Language and Content Classes
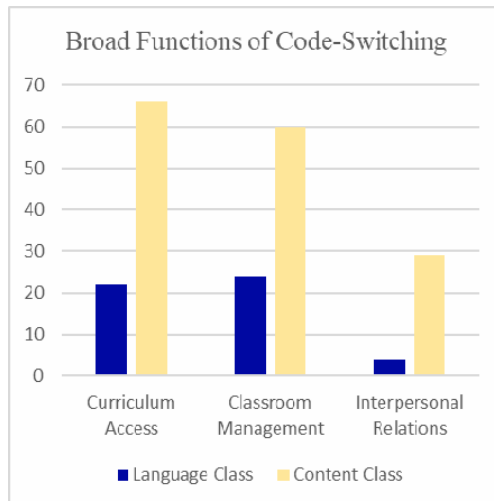
Investigating sub-functions of these broad functions revealed that teachers mostly used code-switching for scaffolding and clarifying when the purpose was *accessing the curriculum* (Table 2).

Table 2

Sub-functions of Curriculum Access in Language and Content Classes

Context	Scaffolding knowledge construction	emphasizing	reiterating	clarifying	Checking for understanding	Pointing out the obvious
Language Classes	15%	0	0	7.5%	0	2.5%
Content classes	20%	7.5%	12.5%	20%	10%	5%
Total	35% (n=31)	7.5% (n=7)	12.5% (n=11)	27.5% (n=23)	10% (n=9)	7.5% (n=7)

As can be seen in table 3, for *managing the classroom*, teachers code switched mostly to focus students' attention and lighten the mood.

Table 3

Sub-functions of Classroom Management in Language and Content Classes

Context	Encouraging students	Lightening the mood	Gaining students' attention	Giving directions	Confirming and checking	Controlling students' behaviors	Dealing with latecomers	Addressing a specific student	Inviting students' participation
Language Classes	0	7.89%	7.89%	2.63%	2.63%	2.63%	0	2.63%	2.63%
Content classes	5.26%	18.42%	28.98%	5.26%	2.63%	2.63%	2.63%	2.63%	2.63%
Total	5.26% (n=5)	26.31% (n=22)	36.87% (n=32)	7.89% (n=7)	5.26% (n=4)	5.26% (n=4)	2.63% (n=2)	5.26% (n=4)	5.26% (n=4)

Table 4 reports the amount of code-switching occurrence for *interpersonal relations* during the class time observed.

Table 4

Sub-function of Interpersonal Relations in Language and Content Classes

Context	Building rapport
Language Classes	13.33%
Content Classes	86.66%
Total	N=33

As can be seen in figure 3, scaffolding and clarifying were the most frequent functions in both language classes and content classes while only content classes made use of code-switching for emphasizing, reiterating, and checking for understanding. To *manage the classroom*, teachers of language and content classes used similar amounts of code-switching to confirm and check, control behaviors, address a specific student, and invite students' participation. A summary of the frequency of sub-functions utilized is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Sub-functions of Code-switching in Language and Content Classes

Discussion

This study aimed at investigating code-switching practices employed by university instructors teaching courses in two different contexts of language and content classes for undergraduate English majors; it, firstly, intended to examine the purpose(s) behind the use of this communication and learning strategy (Ferguson, 2003; Macaro, 2005), and secondly to compare the teachers' code-switching practices in these two contexts. In so doing, we drew upon Ferguson's (2003) tripartite broad pedagogical functions, namely, *curriculum access*, *classroom management*, and *interpersonal relations* (and their diverse sub-functions) as well as Poplack's (1980) typology of code-switches in terms of *inter-sentential*, *intra-sentential* and *tag switching*. As far as code-switching functions are concerned, it was observed that the employment of code-switching strategy was totally purposeful and teachers code-switched for *achieving curriculum objectives* as well as *managing classroom*. And sometimes these switched codes served the purpose of *communicating with students* in a more friendly environment away from professional distances (Tables 1-4 and Figures 2 and 3). Regarding comparison of code-switching practices in language classes versus content classes in terms of frequency, function, and type, we found that code-switching was employed much more frequently in content classes (almost three times) compared to language classes. Moreover, in terms of Poplack's (1980) three-way typology of switches, inter-sentential code-switching was the most frequent (56%) of all switches, followed by intra-sentential switching (37.5%) and a meager number of tag switching instances (only 6.5%) (Figure 1).

Comparabale to the three categories of functions (inspired by Ferguson, 2003) emerging in our findings, Sali (2014) explored three main reasons for using L1 by Turkish EFL teachers as *academic, managerial, social/cultural* functions, the employment of which would lead to an acceleration in learner comprehension and elimination of anxiety the learners may feel in classroom. In a similar vein, Samar and Moradkhani (2014) scrutinized teachers' cognition of classroom code-switching in EFL classroom. They found helping students understand better as the most significant reason for switching codes during class time, which is in accordance with our finding of using L1 to scaffold students and to enhance their lesson comprehension as the most prominent reason behind teachers' code-switching. In

general, the current findings lend ample support to other studies which identify code-switching as an integral component of the teachers' cognition and practical knowledge-base (e.g., Ebrahimzadeh & Talebzadeh, 2021; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014).

Taking into account the context of teaching, we observed that code-switching occurred in all the classes with different subjects, from content classes to language classes. All teachers (in varying degrees) resorted to students' first language in order to make the lesson more comprehensible to learners, although it was more favored by content teachers than by language teachers. In fact, the nature of the class and its requirements appear to require and induce differing levels of switches in and out of Persian. For instance, we noticed that *translation* related classes (and to a lesser extend *Reading* course) seemed to depend on the instructors' (manifesting their) proficiency in both languages, while *Methodology*, *Writing,* and *Speaking and Listening* tended to rely more on target language in their respective content versus language categories. As pointed out in the bilingualism literature, bilinguals have different proficiencies in their languages according to their "age of second language acquisition, the quality of linguistic input received, the language most used, and the status of the language in the community" (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 7) and the quality and quantity of code-switching might be affected by such considerations. It should be noted that as suggested by the Processes View of Bilingual Memory the effect of task (e.g. conceptually-driven versus data-driven) type on cognitive resources should be taken into account, too (Heredia & Brown, 2004). However, as will be noted in the following paragraphs, rather than being merely affected by external factors or teacher-related factors like proficiency (Nagy & Robertson, 2009), the circumstances of content versus language classes are more likely to require instructors to draw on different types of cognitive processes and language-mixing strategies.

In both content and language classes, inter-sentential switching was the most prominent type, in comparison to other types of code-switching. This finding was similar to Mokgwathi and Webb's (2013) and Gwee and Saravanan's (2016) results where content teachers tended to alternate languages more often in comparison to language teachers; however, Mokgwathi and Webb found inter-sentential code-switching more frequently used among language teachers, while

intra-sentential switching was the most recurring type among content teachers. As contended by our studies' interviewees and might be deduced from our data-set (e.g. Table 1), it seems that inter-sentential switches are less likely to create confusion and, consequently, serve better the instructional purposes (e.g. curriculum access; giving directions) of the code-switching; however, intra-sentential switches can be more suitable for interpersonal, attention-gaining, rapport-building purposes (e.g. encouraging the students; lightening the mood). Generally, given the rather high proficiency levels of the participating instructors, it seems that a recourse to either inter-sentential or intra-sentential switches was triggered more by functional and pragmatic considerations rather than merely by language proficiency constraints (as suggested in the literature, e.g. Evans, 2009; Muysken, 2000; Poplack, 1980).

We observed that the main purpose behind teachers' use of L1 in content classes was related to *curriculum matters*, among which scaffolding knowledge construction and clarifying were the most important reasons (Tables 1 through 3). Looking into language teachers' purposes of code‑switching, it was revealed that their main concern was to manage the classroom mostly to lighten the mood and gain students' attention (Figure 2 and Tables 2 and 3). Consistent with the findings of the present research, Gwee and Saravanan (2016) also found that *curriculum access* was the most prominent function in content classes while *classroom management* was the most prevalent category in language classes. Observing language classes and a range of content classes with different subject matters, they identified scaffolding as the most recurring sub-function of *curriculum access* across all classes. Nonetheless, the most frequent sub-function of *classroom management* in their study was not congruent with what was observed in our study. They declared that teachers used L1 mostly to give directions for classroom tasks or homework in both subject and language classes, whereas in the present study teachers desired for a more focused and exciting classroom, changing languages in order to lighten the mood and draw students' attention on the classroom procedure (see Tables 1, 2 and 3). All in all, being less constrained by Nagy and Robertson's (2009, p. 85) external factors, the university instructors contended to be more influenced by internal factors, particularly learner-related and context-related rather than teacher-related and language use factors (see our literature review above for more details of the internal and external factors).

As it was observed, rather than being merely a sub-conscious practice, teachers' code-switching was used as a pedagogical tool and resource to help students learn the subject better, participate in the classroom more efficiently, and overcome the affective factors which may hinder learning. By employing this pedagogical strategy, teachers attempted to reduce the cognitive and affective burden learners may bear in the classroom (Sali, 2014); it is in spite of the fact that code-switching between languages and dialects may increase the cognitive load in bilinguals (Terry et al., 2010) and it can have a processing cost (for the lecturers) since "speakers expect the input signal to continue in the same language, and hence their processing strategies are tuned to that language" (Bullock, 2009, p. 167).

These findings seem to be of significance in teacher education programs and awareness raising about the role of L1 in EFL classes. Teachers need to be aware of the positive effects of this strategy and even encouraged to use it as a facilitative tool to help students in constructing knowledge and understanding the lesson better in a more comfortable environment. Of course, while a systematic use of L1 can improve and accelerate teaching and learning, care must be taken not to make learners overly dependent by excessive use of L1 (as noted by one of our participants, too). Therefore, a need for informing teachers about the optimal level of code-switching arises in order to get the best results from this valuable technique in their classrooms.

Conclusion

This study, with its focus on instructors' trans-linguistic practices and perceptions, could fill a number of gaps in the rather populated literature on classroom code-switching. In particular, underscoring the academic context of Iranian English majors and the distinction between skills courses and subject courses could set it apart from similar studies. Considering its objectives and focused methodology, the findings of the present study can have important pedagogical implications for university instructors, teacher educators, and policy makers. Particularly, our findings lend ample support to the position favored by the advocates of a judicious application of first language in the (language) classroom against an exclusionist position.

Raising the practitioners' and teachers' (particularly the novice ones')

awareness about the diverse justifications and functions of code-switching as an instructional strategy can broaden their perspectives. Specifically, it can be of immense relevance for the instructors who teach undergraduates majoring in English (as prospective or practicing language teachers) with a predisposition for exclusive target language application at the expense of the students' optimum learning, efficient classroom management, and meaningful teacher-student relationship. Broadening and sharing their insights on how and when they should switch codes to facilitate their students' learning without being accused of excessive use of first language, university lecturers can be both perfect practical knowledge repositories as well as dependable role models for their students. Furthermore, both groups can affect all the stake-holders (learners, parents, policy makers, institute managers and supervisors, etc.) that tend to impose a mindless target-language only policy regardless of the context of use, level of the learners, and possible multi-faceted justifications and benefits of healthy doses of mother-tongue in the classrooms.

Our study was among the few recent domestic studies comparing practices and perceptions of code-switching in higher education context of language versus subject classes; nevertheless, a number of potential limitations might constrain making strong claims and generalizations and also call for addressing them through future inquiries. First, it is the exploratory nature of the study and the rather limited sample size (though similar to or better than comparable, domestic studies reviewed above). Second, the context of the study was delimited to undergraduate university classrooms, while other contexts and levels were excluded. Therefore, we invite future studies to utilize a larger sample in varied contexts including in different (higher education) institutions and online (versus traditional) classes across curricular levels.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests
The authors do not have any conflicts of interest to declare.

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Texture in EFL Learners' Expository Essays: An Exploratory Approach

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Abstract

Although grammatical range and accuracy have been widely explored in EFL learners' expository essays, texture, which is realized through linguistic resources related to cohesion, has remained relatively unexplored. Guided by Halliday and Hassan's (1976) model, this study aimed at exploring the frequency and use of these resources by analyzing a random sample of essays written by MA TEFL students at Shahrood University of Technology. Analyses revealed that the participants overused common forms of lexical cohesion, such as repetition and synonymy, but rarely did they use grammatical cohesive ties such as ellipsis and comparative references; hence, the analyzed essays were found to be underdeveloped as far as texture is concerned. The findings of this study have clear implications for materials developers, language teachers, and educators who are involved in second language writing instruction.

Keywords: texture, cohesive devices, academic writing, discourse analysis

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Introduction

Writing is a critical skill particularly at academic and professional levels. It is then incumbent on language instructors to bring under the spotlight the issue of how the awareness of text, context, and their interaction gives rise to a remarkable command of writing in English. EFL learners need to realize that grammatically correct sentences do not necessarily create a cohesive piece of writing. To create one, they need to forge a link between separate sentences of a text, on the one hand, and between the text and the social context in which the text is taking place, on the other. This link of meaning between separate sentences of a piece of writing which turns it into a unified text is known as texture.

It is taken for granted in systemic functional linguistics (SFG) (Halliday, 1985; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014) that a text is not a random constellation of sentences; instead, a text emerges when it has texture (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Hasan, 1989; Halliday, 2009; Paltridge, 2012; Webster, 2019); that is, the building blocks of a text are grammatically and lexically glued together to constitute a coherent whole which is perceived as appropriate by a certain community according to the socio-cultural and discourse environment that the text inhabits. As Forey and Thompson (2009, p.1) straightforwardly put, creating texture within the text is a tool at a writer's disposal to "monitor and control the flow of information through the text in a manageable way so that the reader is guided towards the kind of interpretation intended by the writer". Put another way, texture is the process whereby different threads of meaning are interwoven and worded via lexicogrammar into an interpretable current of discourse instead of "spilling out formlessly in every possible direction" (Halliday, 1994, p. 311).

Crucially, one aspect of the study of texture is cohesion which deals with how successive strings of clauses are lumped together to form a text. The term owes its emergence to research inspired initially by Halliday (1964) in a paper entitled *cohesion* written for teachers taking part in the schools Council Programme in Linguistics and Language Teaching. The paper opens with the following paragraph:

> *'Cohesion' refers to the way in which sentences of a text hang together. An awareness of cohesion is one of the basic kinds of intuitive knowledge that everyone has about their native language once they have mastered it. The mature person can tell, if faced*

with a set of sentences in speech or in writing, whether they make up a coherent whole or not. Such a coherent whole is what is referred to in linguistics as a TEXT (spoken or written): we could say therefore that the mature person is aware of 'texture' in his language. (Cited in Bartlett, 2019, p.288)

Cohesive ties introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976) are a set of nonstructural resources in language providing the writer with a certain kit that enables her to construct relations in discourse. Cohesion, studied within the textual metafunction (as opposed to ideational and interpersonal metafunction) is realized across the text via an inventory of grammatical and lexical resources. Interestingly, texture is thought to be intimately associated with coherence, which is defined in terms of a process whereby the interpretation of a text becomes possible in the spirit of what is referred to as *context of situation*. In connection with this, Martin (2001, p. 25) maintains that coherence has to do with "understandings and expectations about the social context a text dynamically construes" and that texture arises out of the naturalization of a reading position by the text for listener/readers. This explains why the creation of texture is indebted to semantic configurations of two kind- namely register, characterized with reference to variation according to use (Halliday, 1989, p. 41), and cohesion. The interwovenness of cohesion, texture, and register is vividly expressed by Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 23) in the following quote:

The concept of cohesion can therefore be usefully supplemented by that of register, since the two together effectively define a text. A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive.

Two caveats here are in order. Firstly, cohesion *per se* does not guarantee the constitution of texture although non-cohesive texts can be rendered as coherent, given "the bridging assumptions brought to bear by a reader's real-world knowledge and expectations" (Bartlett, 2019, p. 290). Secondly, the texture of the text needs to be differentiated from the structure of the text, which pertains to the appearance and sequencing of the different stages that it moves through to achieve its social purpose (Hasan, 1989, 1996). The structure of the text comes in two guises: *generic structure*

potential (GSP) and *schematic structure*. The former represents "the total potential of structures for a genre" while the latter represents a "particular configuration permitted by the GSP itself" (Hasan, 1996, p.53).

Literature Review

Research on texture takes different guises. Some studies (Ahmed, 2019; Ahmadi & Parhizgar, 2017; Juniardi, 2013; Masadeh, 2019) have explored the features of cohesion and coherence in learners' writing. For instance, Ahmed (2019) studied errors of unity and coherence in writing exam scripts written by EFL learners along with structured interviews. To this end, he explored unity in students' writing based on Connor and Kramer's (1995) perspective and in line with Oshima and Hogue's (1999) definition of coherence. The results of his research revealed that students commit errors both in unity and coherence due to their inadequate knowledge of coherence and unity techniques in paragraph writing, their lack of motivation, interference of their first language in the EFL learning process, and unsuitable teaching strategies and techniques employed by teachers in teaching coherence and unity of English paragraph writing. Furthermore, Ahmadi and Parhizgar (2017) studied coherence errors according to Mann and Thompson's (1988) Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) in Iranian EFL learners' writing and found that students make frequent errors due to their tendency to write inductively (viz. writing without any advanced thinking or outline), their lack of competence in writing coherently and finally the genre variation. This results from the belief that the coherence depends on the writers' cognitive knowledge of that specific genre. Juniardi (2013) also investigated the coherence and text unity in students' research paper using the 'variation analysis approach' and found that students apply a narrative style in their abstracts and that they lack language productivity and creativity in their writings. Accordingly, Masadeh (2019), using three constructed rating scales for measuring coherence, including holistic rating scald, cohesion rating scale, and coherence rating scale showed that cohesion and coherence were not highly established on undergraduates' essays. The most problematic areas that students faced were: very low ability to use synonymous words/phrases when needed, the bad use of accurate conjunctions and transition words to link sentences and/or paragraphs together to convey relationships throughout the essay, the

repetition of the same ideas, their failure to split their paragraphs in terms of content relevance, as well as their inability to elaborate their ideas.

In a similar line, several researchers (Altikriti & Obaidat, 2017; Bahaziq, 2016; Satria & Handayani, 2018) investigated cohesive devices in different texts. For instance, Altikriti and Obaidat (2017) explored cohesive ties in scientific texts and found that reference as a grammatical cohesive tie and reiteration as a lexical cohesive tie carry the highest frequency among others. These results confirmed the significant role of cohesive ties in scientific texts. Similarly, Bahaziq (2016) studied cohesive devices in an essay written by one of the students in a standardized exam for assessing foreign language learners' proficiency called The Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB). He found that although cohesion is clearly apparent in student's writings and that they apply grammatical and lexical devices in their writings, still they need improvements on these areas. Additionally, Satria, and Handayani (2018) studied the use of grammatical cohesive devices in student's descriptive writing and discovered that, even though students use grammatical cohesive devices in their writings, they are yet unaware of the appropriate use of such devices, for the most part conjunctions.

As another line of research, several studies (Assadi Aidinlou & Shahrokhi Mehr, 2012; Allami & Serajfard 2012; Yunus & Haris, 2014) considered the application of discourse markers in EFL Learners' Writing. For example, Assadi Aidinlou and Shahrokhi Mehr (2012) found that teaching discourse markers significantly affects students' appropriate use of DMs in their writing as well as raising students' awareness of discourse, consequently improving their writing proficiency. Similarly, Serajfard and Allami (2012) found that teaching engagement markers leads to more effective writings by IELTS students. Furthermore, the results of the study conducted by Yunus and Haris (2014) revealed three categories of discourse markers in EFL Learners' writing in terms of misused, overused and advanced used.

On the other hand, some studies (e.g., Andrews, et al. 2006; Collins & Norris, 2017; Farrokhi, Ajideh, Zohrabi, & Panahi, 2018; Nur Amin's, 2009) have explored the effect of teaching grammar on writing development. For instance, Andrews, *et al*. (2006) found that teaching sentence-combining grammar is more effective than teaching formal grammar; however, there is insufficient quality of

research to prove the case with either approach. Similarly, the results of the study by Collins and Norris (2017) on the effect of teaching grammar within the context of reading and writing on written language performance revealed improvements in written grammar following a very short period of instruction. Farrokhi, Ajideh, Zohrabi, and Panahi (2018) also conducted a research to see how teaching grammar in authentic context (discourse-based grammar) enables EFL learners to overcome the difficulty they encounter when engaged in writing. The results showed instructing discourse-based grammar teaching positively effects learners' writing. Accordingly, the results of the study of Nur Amin's (2009) showed that teaching grammar in context reduces grammatical errors in students' writing, illustrating that the students who learned grammar in context made less grammatical errors in writing than those who conventionally learned grammar.

Focusing on effective interventions, other studies have explored the effect of instructional strategies on students' writing development (e.g., Anson & Beach, 1995; Fitzgerald & Markham, 1987; Graham & Harris, 1997). To start with, Anson and Beach (1995) described the rationale and purposes for using journal writing as a tool for improving students' writing fluency and critical thinking skills in their book *Journals in the Classroom: Writing to Learn*. Similarly, Fitzgerald and Markham (1987) studied the effects of instruction in revision strategies on children's writing improvement. The researchers concluded that while instruction affected students' knowledge of the revision process and enhanced their revision efforts, it seemed unlikely that short-term instruction would have a significant impact on the overall quality of writing. On the other hand, Graham and Harris (1997) reported that providing direct and systematic instruction in writing strategies may be beneficial to students who experience difficulty with writing.

Reviewing previous studies, we note that many studies have been conducted on the basis of finding the causes of students' lack of proficiency in writing and finding solutions to improve this skill. For instance, some have studied the impact of instructional strategies on writing skill; some have examined the impact of teaching discourse markers and others have investigated grammar instruction effect on writing skill. There have also been some researches on the account of cohesion (unity), coherence and cohesive ties in students' writings, which reveal that: (1) students have difficulty with both coherence and cohesion due to the

lack of knowledge of these two important features of writing, unsuitable teaching strategies, their mother tongue interference, and students' tendency to write inductively (without having any plan in advance); (2) cohesive ties are an integral part of writing any sort of text, be it scientific or general; (3) although students have problems with almost all components of cohesion, it seems that conjunctions baffle them most; (4) there's a scarcity of research on investigating texture in students' writing particularly based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) perspective for educational purposes.

A critical review of the previous studies showed that texture has been misinterpreted. While the previous studies have considered any appearance of grammatical or lexical device as a cohesive device, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976) only those which create a bond *between* separate sentences of a text are considered as cohesive devices. To fill this gap, based on Halliday and Hasan's view, this study will explore texture in expository essays written by undergraduate students of English language and literature studying at Shahrood University of Technology (SUT), Iran. We have particularly chosen Halliday and Hasan's perspective on texture since they offer a comprehensive and complete view of texture, offering distinct and measurable criteria to study this phenomenon. The goal is to see how far students are aware of the available linguistic resources required for writing an expository text and the extent of their mastery over these resources.

Methodology

Research Context

The participants who shared their writing samples for analysis were all undergraduate students studying English Language and Literature at the English department of Shahrood university of Technology, Iran. One of the main courses of this program is advanced writing. In collaboration with the professors who ran this course, a sample of the expository essays, which were handed in as partial fulfillment of the requirements of "Advanced Writing" were randomly selected for analysis.

Data Analysis

The sample texts when gathered were analyzed based on the criteria

associated with the constitution of the texture as defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976). As stated by Halliday and Hasan (1976), texture is the relation of meaning between separate sentences of a text. They name every single one of these relations in the text a "tie", and use this concept to study the texture of the text systematically by finding and categorizing the linguistic resources which contribute to generating each one of these ties. These linguistic resources are called cohesive devices and are categorized into grammatical cohesive devices and lexical cohesion devices.

Hasan and Halliday (1976) categorized grammatical cohesion into reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. According to Hasan and Halliday (1976) only references which repeat a certain meaning in the text (endophoric reference) are considered as cohesive devices (p. 37). These references may refer back to another word or phrase used formerly in a text (Anaphoric reference) or a word or phrase which would be mentioned later in the text (cataphoric reference). In addition, among different types of reference, just *third person personal* pronouns, demonstrative, and comparative references that refer to items mentioned in the text are considered cohesive (p.48). Substitution is also subcategorized into nominal, verbal, and clausal. Ellipsis consists of nominal (a noun is omitted), verbal (a verb is removed), and clausal (removing the whole clause). In addition, conjunctions are divided into additive, adversative, causal and temporal by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) categorized lexical cohesions into two main groups of reiteration and collocation. Reiteration consists of repetition, synonyms or near-synonyms, super-ordinates and general words. Instances of reiteration are as follows: repetition, synonymy and near-synonymy, and hyponymy. Collocation is the second category of lexical cohesion. It is very significant to mention that according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), collocational phrases that we are familiar with (e.g., the combination of verbs and nouns and alike) are so tied up together that they are considered as one lexical item; therefore, they cannot contribute to the cohesion of the text. Cohesion is made when two lexical items which have a similar collocational pattern appear in adjacent sentences.

Considering Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework as the basis of analysis, first, any form of lexical or grammatical device used in any sentence is found, afterwards its tie to other items in the text is explored. If the tie is found, then

it is considered a cohesive device. It is very significant to note that since texture is about the cohesion between separate sentences of a text, considering the cohesion made in a sentence through grammatical structure is irrelevant (p.9). Therefore, only devices that create a tie between individual sentences are considered as cohesive devices. This tie may be present in instant or distant sentences of the text. Finally, the frequency of cohesive devices used is calculated.

Results

In line with Halliday and Hassan's (1976) conceptualization of texture, this study aimed at exploring cohesive ties in a sample of expository essays written by undergraduate students of English Language and Literature. Table 1 schematically represents the number and percentage of each element that contributes to the overall texture of the sample essays.

Table 1

Cohesive Ties Distribution

cohesion ties	Number of ties	Percentage
References	185	15%
conjunction	224	18%
Ellipsis	3	0.2%
lexical	822	67%
Total	1234	

As shown in Figure 1, the occurrence of cohesive ties is not evenly distributed in the sample essays. It clearly shows that at a discourse level learners connected sentences by relying solely on lexical ties while their use of grammatical ties is far less frequent.

Figure 1

Frequency Percentage of Cohesive Ties
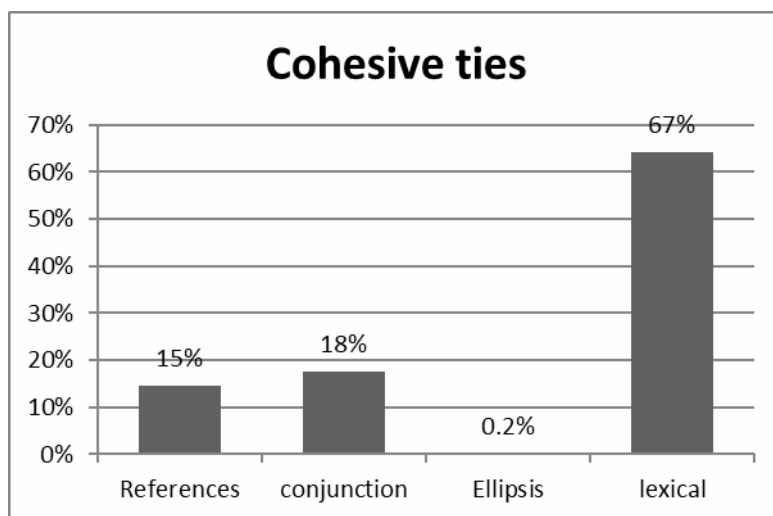
As shown in Table 1, the most cohesive ties used in students' writings were of lexical cohesion type which covered 67% of the ties used in students' sample expository essays. Conjunctions and references were the second and third most frequently used ties, each consisting 18 and 15 percent of the ties, respectively. Nevertheless, very few applications of ellipsis and no tokens of substitution were found. All in all, the results revealed the students' lack of mastery over grammatical cohesive ties. In what follows, each of the cohesive ties will be discussed separately.

Reference

Table 2 displays the frequency and percentage of each type of reference used by the participants in this study.

Table 2

References Distributions

References	Number of ties	Percentage
reference /demonstrative	47	25%
reference /personal	137	74%
reference/comparative	1	1%
Total	185	

In line with Halliday's taxonomy, we explored three types of reference including demonstrative, personal, and comparative. As shown in Table 2, in 185 instances students used references to creates texture in their texts. 74 percent of the references used were personal references such as *it*, *they*, *their*, *them* and demonstrative references including *this*, *that*, *these*, and *the*, covering 25% of the references. Comparatives were hardly ever used as cohesive ties, allocating only 1 percent of the total references used. Figure 2 visually represents students' use of reference.

Figure 2

Frequency Percentage of References
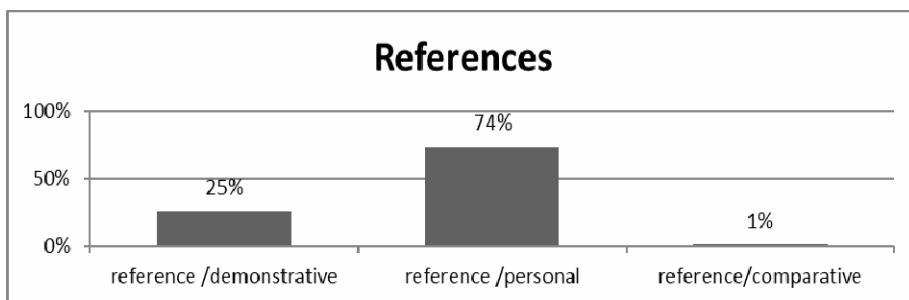
The most frequent references used were personal references such as *they* (50 times) and *it* (46 times), consisting together about half the references used. Here are some examples:

> (1) Today, the internet has become one of the most important tools in human life that helps people in various stages of life. **It** is also accessible and usable for most people these days.

In example (1), the participant used *it* to refer back to the *internet* in order to tie the two sentences.

> (2) Students do not have to carry heavy backpacks full of books. **They** can easily enter a classroom where all this equipment is already placed.

In example (2), *they*, a personal reference, refers to *students* in the preceding sentence.

(3) Online businesses include activities like advertising, online shops and content creation. **This** type of business is becoming more and more popular among people.

In example (3), *this* (*type of business)* as a demonstrative reference refers to *online businesses* mentioned in the preceding sentence, hence constituting anaphoric reference.

(4) People cannot afford to live on low incomes because the cost of all living things [sic] has risen so much that it has eroded people's satisfaction with low incomes. We know that life and passing it comfortably became so hard for people and they don't know which ways they should go on to make an easier life for themselves. Well, as long as there are **such** problems, how can people live easily and be satisfied with low income?

In example (4), the participant used the comparative reference *such* to refer to the problems mentioned earlier in the text.

Conjunctions

Based on the results, among grammatical cohesion devices conjunctions were the most frequent ties used in students' writings with the frequency of 224. Accordingly, four different types of conjunctions, including additive, adversative, casual, and temporal were explored in students' essays. The results revealed that there is an almost normal distribution between different categories of conjunction use, ranging from 29% for temporal conjunctions to 20% for adversative conjunctions. Here are some examples of the conjunction use:

(5) Additive conjunction:

If the young do not sleep enough, their health will be affected seriously by losing weight or always feeling tired. Their brains **also** will not work effectively and they will be in a sleepy condition.

(6) Adversative conjunction:

People who were physically abused by their parents in their childhood might show aggressive behaviors in society. **Although** you may sometimes consider these

people selfish or even narcissist, deep down they are suffering from some problems and they choose the wrong solution to prove themselves.

(7) Casual conjunction:

Your job will have a big impact on your personality so that if your job is appropriate, others will ask you to do their important things and trust you. **As a result**, you will be a trustworthy person in the eyes of others.

(8) Temporal conjunction:

They help ease people out of social isolation or shyness and walking with them will increase social interaction. **Finally,** dogs can make you feel less alone and relieve your stress.

Table 3 shows the distribution of conjunction types. As shown, temporal conjunctions are the most frequently used conjunction type and the adversative type is the least frequently used conjunction. All in all, however, the use of different categories of conjunctions is roughly evenly distributed.

Table 3

Conjunctions Distributions

Title	Number of ties	Percentage
Conjunction/additive	64	28%
Conjunction/adversative	44	20%
Conjunction/casual	51	23%
Conjunction/Temporal	65	29%
Total	224	

Figure 3 better helps your come to grasp with the students' use of conductions. As vividly illustrated by Figure 3, students show a higher level of mastery over additive and temporal conductions and a lower level of mastery over adversative and causal conjunctions.

Figure 3

Frequency Percentage of Conjunctions
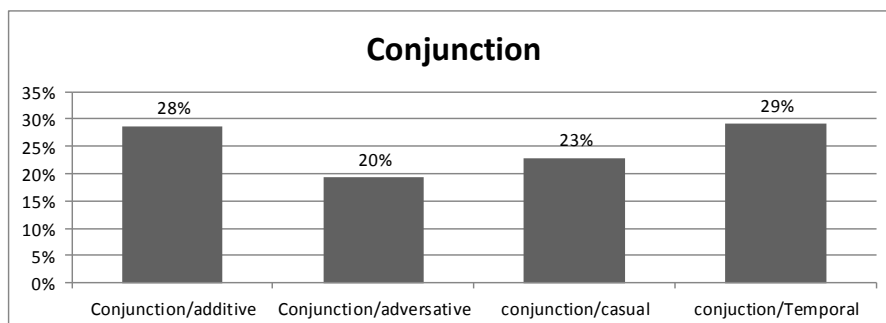
Ellipsis and Substitutions. **Analysis revealed that substitution was not used by participants and only in two occasions ellipsis was applied by students. The findings could reflect their lack of mastery over these two forms of cohesive ties. Take this example as a rare use of ellipsis:**

(9) Nowadays, I think most people are looking to immigrate. **Some** because of the bad economic conditions in Iran, and **some** exactly the opposite due to good financial conditions.

In example (9), the participant ellipted the word *people* in the second sentence using *some* instead of *some people*.

Lexical Cohesion. Lexical cohesion was the most frequent cohesive tie used in the students' writings. In fact, most of the sentences were tied only via lexical cohesion. Between the different instances of lexical cohesion, repetition in reiteration lexical group was the most frequent group, covering 70% of lexical cohesive ties. Synonyms and superordinates were the second and third frequent groups among instances of reiteration, consisting 22% and 2% of the lexical ties, respectively. No example of hyponymy was evident. Finally, collocation covered 7% of the lexical cohesive ties.

(10) Repetition:

Children usually come up with the ideas that their **parents** are going to separate or they will be left alone. Or they start to compare themselves and their **parents** with their friends and their friends' **parents**.

(11) Superordinate:

There are some reasons that make **dogs** best things on the earth. A lot of families all over the world have **pets**, both those have children and those who do not.

Example (11) contains a superordinate lexical tie since animals such as *dogs* go under the category *pet*.

(12) Synonym:

Touch and movement are two healthy ways to quickly manage stress. **Stroking** a dog can lower blood pleasure and help you quickly feel calmer and less stressed.

In Example (12), *Stroking* is used as a synonym for *touch and movement*.

(13) Collocation:

By managing our waste properly, we are providing the future generation with a **clean environment** and a very strong economy. So, the governments must create new strategies to **reduce waste** and should also create awareness among people on the benefits of using **eco-friendly products.**

In example (13), *clean environment* and *eco-friendly products* and *waste* collocate with each other since based on our background knowledge, we know for having a clean environment, we have to reduce wastes and use eco-friendly products; therefore, we expect to see them in sentences that follow since they commonly appear together. This expectation creates cohesion. Table 4 summarizes the frequency of the distribution of lexical ties in sample essays.

Table 4

Lexical Cohesions Distributions

	Number of ties	Percentage
lexical/collocation	55	7%
lexical/repetition	575	70%
lexical/superordinate	15	2%
lexical/general word	0	0%
lexical/synonym	177	22%
Total	822	100%

As shown in Figure 4, the use of lexical ties is not evenly distributed in the sample essays. While instances of repetition are highly frequent, collocation and subordinate ties rarely happen in these essays. The second most frequent lexical tie is the use of synonyms which account for 22 percent of the lexical ties.

Figure 4

Frequency Percentage of Lexical Cohesions
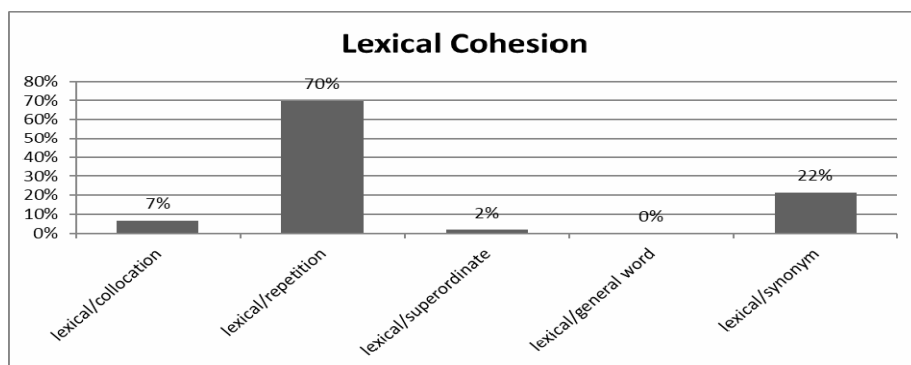
Conclusion and Implications

In this study, based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) we studied texture in sample expository essays written by undergraduate students of English Language and Literature studying at SUT. We explored the frequency and function of cohesive devices used by participants in their writings and found that lexical cohesion ties were the most frequent ties covering 67% of ties. The majority of lexical cohesion used by students was repetition, which is the simplest form of creating a tie. Synonyms accounted for 22% of the lexical cohesion used, and other instances of lexical cohesion comprised 11% of the lexical cohesion as a whole. These results reveal that although students used plenty of lexical cohesive ties in their writings, still they stuck to the simplest and most common forms such as repetition and synonyms. All in all, the results clearly show a limited use of lexical ties.

As for the grammatical ties, conjunctions and references are the most frequently used ties, accounting for 18% and 15% of the cohesive ties, respectively. A normal distribution of the four types of conjunctions was evident, ranging from 29% for additive and 28% for temporal conjunctions to 23% for casual conjunctions and 20% for adversative conjunctions, all contributing to the conclusion that participants

seem to have a rather fair knowledge of using different forms of conjunctions to tie the sentences together in order to create texture in the text.

The third frequent cohesive tie used was reference which comprised a quarter of the ties. Three main types of reference were analyzed in the samples including personal (pronominal), demonstrative, and comparative. Personal references were the most frequent types of reference used comprising 74% of the whole references used. Demonstrative references allocated 25% and comparatives included only 1% of the references. It seems that students tend to stick to the simplest forms of reference such as *it*, *they*, *that*, etc. And comparative reference also appeared to be the most complex form of reference for them. The least frequent cohesive tie used in students' writing was ellipsis with only two instances of use. It appears that ellipsis is the most complex form of the cohesive ties for students.

To summarize, the use of cohesive ties and patterns as evident in the sample assays show learners' (1) lack of mastery over grammatical ties, and (2) limited and challenging use of lexical ties. In other words, the sample expository assays lacked texture as specified by Halliday and Hassan (1976). And this lack of texture in essays is clearly related to the nature of language education, which takes the sentence as the unit of analysis. Although in theory there has been a shift away from grammatical competence towards communicative competence (e.g., Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972), in practice however, both methods and materials disproportionately focus on grammatical competence and ignore other aspects such as sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.

Comparing the results of our study with previous studies, we realized that the findings of our research's findings are in parallel with the results of the works conducted by Ahmed (2019), Ahmadi and Parhizgar (2017), Masadeh (2019), and Bahaziq (2016), who found that students lack proficiency in writing coherent and cohesive texts. Satria and Handayani (2018) also found that students have difficulty using grammatical cohesive devices. However, it is worthy of note that the results of our study show that conjunctions seemed to be the least troublesome area of cohesive ties whereas conjunctions are the most problematic part for students in their study. Likewise, the findings of the research conducted by Altikriti and Obaidat (2017) revealed that reference was the most frequent grammatical cohesive tie

whereas our findings showed that conjunctions were the most frequent grammatical cohesive tie used by participants.

Being both educators and practitioners, the authors of this study are quite cognizant of the wide gulf between theory and practice. While in theory everybody agrees that language education should aim at developing learners' communicative competence, in practice the vast majority of commercial textbooks available in the market follow tradition rather than research findings, and based on Tomlinson's (2010) study, a great majority of commercial textbooks currently available in the market are dead and deaf to principles of second language acquisition and development. Moreover, although language teaching has come of age and many language teachers are certified, they see themselves at the consumer end of materials development. One of the major pitfalls of textbooks is that they are grammar-based and they rarely contain tasks, activities, and exercises that aim at helping learners move beyond longer stretches of language and act at a discourse level. In short, students' lack of mastery as depicted by the analysis of their expository essays clearly reveals that methods and materials rarely reflect how language works at a discourse level. To help solve this educational ill, in EFL contexts in general and in Iranian context in particular, it is essential that:

- Materials developers and syllabus designers add discourse-based tasks and exercises that complement the already available and dominant grammar-based tasks and exercises and by doing this help students develop their discourse competence which is a significant and unalienable part of communicative competence;

- Language teachers develop discourse-based materials and present them through effective techniques that aim at raising learners' awareness of how language works at a discourse level and provide them with opportunities to use language at a discourse level and in this process learn how sentences are put together systematically to form coherent and cohesive texts;

- Both materials developers and language teachers leave room for the systematic introduction, practice and use of discourse markers and not take the operation of language at a discourse level for granted.

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The Effect of Group Type and Mediation Type in Group Dynamic Assessment on the Improvement of Iranian Homogeneous and Heterogeneous EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension

Research Article
pp. 103-124

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Abstract

Based on Vygotsky's concept of Zone of Proximal Development, dynamic assessment (DA) has at its core the integration of assessment and instruction through mediation. DA is practiced either individually or collectively. In group-dynamic assessment (G-DA), as Poehner (2009) introduced, learners are simultaneously exposed to mediation. The problem which has been ignored in G-DA is the homogeneity and heterogeneity of EFL leaners while being mediated. This study tried to investigate the effect of group-dynamic assessment on homogeneous and heterogeneous EFL learners' ability in listening comprehension. It also intended to find out if expert-novice and peer-to-peer mediation types in G-DA differed in their effects on homogeneous and heterogeneous EFL learners' command of listening comprehension. To this end, eighty intermediate EFL learners were chosen to be the

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participants. According to their language proficiency, they were assigned to two groups of forty homogeneous and forty heterogeneous learners. Then, each group was divided into two experimental groups. The participants in all groups attended three listening sessions. For the mediation, the participants were assisted through novice-expert and peer-to-peer mediation types. To find out the main and interaction effect of group type and mediation type in G-DA, the post-test scores were analysed through running a two-way ANOVA. The results indicated that both group type and mediation type had significant main and interaction effect on learners' listening comprehension. A post hoc test was also utilized to compare the mean differences between the groups.

Keywords: group-dynamic assessment, homogeneous, heterogeneous, mediation type, zone of proximal development

Introduction

All teaching and instructional activities are almost directed toward meeting one need. They provide the learners with a situation, and also with strategies which smooth the path of language learning and development. Assessment, as an activity in language learning process, should also serve the purpose of helping learners to learn something new besides assessing their performance. Assessment in traditional terms, as McNamara (2004) argues, is an activity through which the assessor collects information based on which he can determine the learners' current level of knowledge or ability. In traditional terms, assessment acts as a means to provide the examinees with a record of their past achievements and thus it is called "static assessment" by some researchers (Feuerstein et al., 1998). The primary focus of attention in traditional assessments is on grading learners' past performance.

To ensure the effect of assessment on learners' future performance, a need was felt to think of other frameworks and approaches in assessment so as to devise an alternative method which could serve as a procedure to modify such performance. To meet such a purpose, the integration of assessment and instruction was needed.

One form of alternative assessment through which assessment and instruction are integrated is ''Dynamic Assessment'' (DA). Lidz (1991) argues that DA does not focus on what learners can accomplish alone. It, on the contrary, emphasizes learners' assistance that turns out to be successful in facilitating improved learning performance through the integration of assessment and instruction. DA is an approach which, as Vygotsky (1978), and Lantolf and Poehner

(2008) claim, determines where the learner is at, and then tries to improve development by offering him specific mediation. This mediation can be provided through some *scaffolding* strategies. Wood et al. (1976) see scaffolding as the process of assisting learners through interaction in consecutive steps of a problem. Scaffolding can take place either between a teacher and students or between students and students whereby less knowledable learners are provided with required assistance by more knowledgeable learners in class. This assistance is offered in accordance with the way the more knowledgeable learners are tutored by the teacher. The former can be termed as *expert-novice* (teacher-student) scaffolding and the latter as *peer-to-peer* (student-student) one.

DA is applied either to the individuals one by one or to a group of learners. Poehner (2009) proposed Group Dynamic Assessment (G-DA) as an approach to DA claiming that a major difficulty with putting DA into practice in L2 classes is that one-to-one interactions do not happen conveniently due to the number of students in L2 classes. He further explains that in G-DA, a number of learners are simply placed together to form groups and then they are assigned tasks to perform. The ability of the learners is not taken into account in assigning them to different groups.

With this in mind, the present study made an attempt to pursue Poehner's claim by placing individuals in groups of homogeneous and heterogeneous EFL learners. The researchers wanted to find out the impact of group type when G-DA is applied on EFL learners with almost the same and different ZPDs. The current research had its second focus on the effect of mediation types in G-DA. In other words, it tried to see how expert-novice type of mediation and peer-to-peer one differed in their effect on homogeneous and heterogeneous EFL learners' improvement of listening comprehension.

Review of the Related Literature

Dynamic Assessment

According to Lussier and Swanson (2005), "dynamic assessment is a procedure that attempts to modify performance via examiner's assistance in an effort to understand and promote learning potential" (p. 66). As Naeni and Duvall state:

> *DA, grounded in Vygotsky's notion of the ZPD, focuses on what a*

learner is able to do with the assistance of a more knowledgeable
another and the type and amount of mediation needed for a
learner to be able to do a task in DA indicates the learner's
learning potential. (Naeni & Duvall, 2012, p. 26)

It is the more knowledgeable other who provides the guidance and instruction during the learning period. The more knowledable one establishes learner's ZPD and provides appropriate mediation. It is the process of mediation which makes DA different from other approaches to assessment. According to Williams and Burden (1997) "mediation refers to the part played by other significant people in the learner's lives, who enhance their learning by selecting and shaping the learning experience presented to them" (p.40). As Haywood and Lidz (2007) argue, the assessor finds ways to help the learner move to the next level of development. In DA, as they explain, the examiner establishes an active relationship with a learner and what happens between them is more than just giving instructions.

From the theoretical point of view, Vygotsky's writings about the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) planted the seeds of dynamic assessment. As Vygotsky states:

Zone of proximal development is the distance between the actual
developmental level as determined by independent problem
solving and the level of potential development determined through
problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with
more capable peers. (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86)

Rogoff and Wertsch (1984) in their explanation of ZPD, describe ZPD as Vygotsky's most famous concept. They argue that ZPD is the level of knowledge which is just beyond that with which the learner is currently capable of doing. They believe that the learner can easily move into the next level of knowledge if he cooperates with another person and this person can be either an adult or a peer who is more knowledgeable.

ZPD can provide teachers with ways to help learners when they face any problem in their learning stages. Bornstein and Bruner (1989) have used the term 'laddering' to refer to this process. They believe that students should work on tasks which are rather difficult and demanding for them in which they need some assistance to succeed. DA is therefore an approach through which the intended

assistance and mediation which is rather planned can better be realized.

Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) propose *cake* and *sandwich* formats as two models of DA. In cake method, mediation is offered throughout the administration of the assessment, whereas in sandwich format the mediation is given before the assessment. There is a training phase before the assessment in sandwich model. This training happens after the pre-test when the leaners' problems have been diagnosed by the teacher and

DA can be practiced either individually or collectively. Whether it is group-based or one-to-one, it follows, as Poehner (2009) explains, the same general rule of providing learners with assistance. Poehner (2009) differentiated between two procedures for G-DA: *concurrent* and *cumulative* G-DA. In concurrent G-DA, the teacher interacts with the whole class as a group. To make sure, the teacher may offer assistance in response to an individual, but the interaction shifts quickly between primary (teacher and a learner) and secondary (other learners) interactants. In approach to cumulative G- DA, the interactions which the teacher carries out are of one-on-one type. Here, the learners need to take turns in interacting with the teacher as primary interactants.

Dynamic Assessment and Peer-to-Peer Mediation

Originally, Vygotsky's concept of ZPD basically dealt with the interaction between a learner as a 'novice' and a teacher as an 'expert'. But currently, sociocultural theorists such as Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) have turned their attention and given a new direction to the interactions in ZPD in which pair and group work among peers are also taken into account. This new direction was earlier emphasized by Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995) who argued that individuals can cooperate and collaboratively establish a ZPD in which each learner both assists and is assisted. In other words, interaction occurs between peers. Donato (1994) also emphasized that learners have the ability to offer guided help to their peers in class when they are involved in interactive tasks. Kaufman and Burden (2004) observed that studies on DA have traditionally taken into account only expert–novice relations and paid no attention to peer-to- peer interactions. But, some studies reveal the fact that learners can also act as effective providers of mediation. For example, Swain and her colleagues' research (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2000; Swain 2001) into L2

development emphasizes the significant role of interaction between peers.

Scaffolding Strategies

In an instructional setting, as Knestrick (2013) explains, the term "scaffolding" refers to the assistance or guidance that a teacher provides when the student is learning a new concept and this intended assistance or guidance can be offered through some scaffolding strategies.

One helpful scaffolding strategy is what the cognitive psychologist David Ausubel (1978) calls *advanced organizers.* The teacher can present new information or concepts to learners through advanced organizers They are some kind of simplified introductions to a lesson that acquaint the learners with the subject matter. *Frontloading vocabulary* is another strategy through which, as Alber (2011) explains, the learners are introduced to a list of a new vocabulary items and expressions that are included in a passage. The third Strategy is what Prabhu (1992) calls *Opinion- gap activity*. This activity requires that students give their personal ideas and attitudes so as to complete a task in L2 classes. For example, the students are invited to talk about a social problem, such as high rate of unemployment and offer some solutions through class discussion.

Studies on Dynamic Assessment

Different researchers have turned their attention to the impact of DA on L2 development. Among them, the following are assumed to be the pioneers: Lantolf (2000), Lantolf &Poehner (2011), Lantolf & Thorne (2006), Poehner (2007), Poehner (2008), Poehner (2009), Poehner & Lantolf (2010), Ableeva (2010), Kozulin &Garb (2001). Some other studies have also been done in the field of DA.

Ableeva (2010) demonstrated that traditional assessments are not able to reveal the hidden sources of poor performance in learners. She found that DA is able to diagnose the learners' needs and problems and then allows for suitable and constructive intervention to assist them in solving the problems. The results of her study showed that, through interactions in the zone of proximal development, DA permits to establish not only the actual level of learners' listening ability but also to diagnose/assess the potential level of their listening development.

Alavi et al. (2012) studied the practicality of G-DA in finding out the strategies of mediation that are offered by a teacher during his G-DA interactions

with L2 learners in listening. Moreover, their study intended to discover the effects of group dynamic assessment-based instruction on the co-construction of knowledge among L2 listeners. This study led to the development of some mediational strategies which consisted of different forms of implicit and explicit feedback.

In his study, Hidri (2014) investigated the development and evaluation of a dynamic assessment of listening comprehension in EFL contexts. Qualitative data analysis in his study proved that although the new approach provided better understanding of the learners' both cognitive and meta-cognitive processes than did the traditional assessment, raters were skeptical about the value of and processes involved in DA mainly because they were not familiar with it.

In their study, Mehri and Amirian (2015) tried to focus on the impact of G-DA on the development of control over the past tense. Moreover, the interactions in their study suggest that the learners changed their role from the mere receivers into the active providers of mediation or assistance to other members of the group. But the study did have no intention to focus on the effect of group type or mediation type.

Wang (2015) studied the effect of DA on the listening skills of EFL learners who were at Lower-intermediate level of language proficiency. He explored the integration of assessment and instruction in listening comprehension and concluded that this integration can better be realized through DA. DA, he also concluded, can improve students' listening study at both macro- and micro-levels.

Tabatabaee et al. (2018) conducted a study to make a comparison between the effects of interventionist DA, cumulative G-DA, and static assessments on the grammaticality of the EFL learners' narrative writing. The results indicated that cumulative G-DA was more effective in helping the EFL learners to write grammatical narrative paragraphs.

Shabani (2018) conducted a group dynamic assessment on writing during twelve weeks of instruction. In his study, the experimental group underwent G-DA instruction for 12 weeks and received prompts, hints and scaffolding during all stages. In his study, Shabani has had his major attention on the general effect of G-DA on learners' writing skill. He has taken his attention away from the role of peers' interaction and suggests other researcher to focus on the significance of mediation provided by the peers.

The above brief overview of a few studies carried out on DA reveals its effectiveness in helping the learners to achieve higher levels of learning and development. However, a gap still remains and a need is still felt. Researchers have not taken account of homogeneity and heterogeneity of learners in G-DA. When G-DA is practiced in EFL classes, the question which seems necessary to be answered is whether EFL learners with the same or different language proficiency should attend the same or different classes. Another challenge to the implementation of G-DA in EFL classes is the mediation types through which assistance is offered. To the best of our knowledge, researchers have widely worked on G-DA. However, they have paid almost no or little attention to the type of mediation which can best suit the group type in G-DA.

With these gaps in mind, the current research intended to find out the main and interaction effect of group type and mediation type in G-DA on homogeneous and heterogamous EFL learners' command of listening comprehension. The following three questions were accordingly posed as the research questions of the study:

1. What is the significant main effect of group type in G-DA on Iranian EFL learners' ability in

   listening comprehension?

2. What is the significant main effect of mediation type in G-DA on Iranian EFL learners'

   listening comprehension ability?

3. Is there a significant interaction effect of Group type and mediation type in G-DA on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension?

Method

Participants

Eighty intermediate female Iranian EFL learners taking English Conversation Course in Pardis Institute of Foreign Languages in Marand, Iran were chosen through purposive sampling from intact class groups to be the participants of this study. The participants, ranging from 17 to 19 in age, were then divided into two groups of forty homogeneous (Group1) and forty heterogeneous EFL learners (group 2). The criterion for homogeneity and heterogeneity of the participants was

their language proficiency which was determined through the participants' educational background and achievements in the institute. Their final term scores obtained during four past semesters of EFL learning were calculated. Learners with a mean score of over 85 out of 100 were assigned to homogeneous group and those with scattered mean scores (over 85 and lower 85) were assigned to heterogeneous group.

Homogeneous participants of the study were then assigned to two groups of twenty EFL learners to form two experimental groups (Group 1A & 1B) since the two groups were supposed to be mediated differently. To put it in simpler terms, the first twenty EFL learners of the study were treated through novice-expert mediation type and the second twenty EFL leaners in the second experimental group were treated through peer-to-peer mediation type.

Quite like the homogeneous participants, heterogeneous participants of the study were also included in two experimental groups (Group 2A & 2B) with twenty learners in each. The reason again was to treat the learners differently through novice-expert mediation type and peer-to-peer one. The purpose was to see if mediation types differed in their effect on EFL learners with different language proficiency. In expert- novice mediation type the teacher interacted with the leaners since he was considered to be the more knowledgeable one in the class and in peer-to-peer mediation learners interacted with each other in groups of four to help one another.

Instrumentation

To decide upon the homogeneity and heterogeneity of the participants, their achievements in terms of their scores during four past semesters in the institute were analyzed and they were assigned to different groups accordingly. Participants in all four groups attended three listening sessions and received pretest, mediation and posttest. In both pretest and posttest, they were supposed to respond to some comprehension questions. The questions included traditional multiple choice tests, true/ false statements, and communicative stimulus- response tasks, in which the test-takers were required to respond in written form to a set of questions based on the presented listening extract. Three Scaffolding strategies of *advanced organizers, frontloading vocabulary, and opinion gap activity* were used by both teacher

(expert-novice) and peers (peer-to-peer). Strategies were the same for both mediations types since the researchers intended to alleviate their possible effects on learners' achievement. The extensive listening tasks had been chosen from the American English File book 4 which stands at the upper-intermediate level.

Procedure

This quasi-experimental study followed Sternberg and Grigorenko's Sandwich Model of DA (2002) and was almost compatible with Poehner's (2009) concurrent and cumulative approaches to G-DA. It was *concurrent* when the teacher applied *advanced organizers* and *vocabulary frontloading* strategies, since the teacher interacted with the entire group. It was *cumulative* when the teacher conducted one-on-one interactions in *opinion gap* activities.

Eighty intermediate EFL learners, who were assigned to four groups, as explained above, were asked to sit in three successive listening sessions. Each group had to meet three sessions separately. The first two sessions were actually kind of tutoring sessions for the knowledgeable learners to learn how to provide their peers with mediation and ZPD-sensitive assistance. The scores obtained from the third session were analyzed. The class management in each session was run with the fixed order of pretest- mediation-posttest.

The research began with the first homogeneous experimental group (Group 1A). The participants in this group were asked to listen to a monologue for five minutes. This pretest phase was run with no mediation or assistance of any kind. To examine the participants' independent listening comprehension ability, they were immediately given six multiple choice comprehension questions, four true/false questions and five communicative stimulus- response questions to answer. The answer sheets were collected for later correction. After a short interval, the participants in experimental group one were invited to listen to another monologue but at the same upper-intermediate level. Right after they listened, they were provided with some mediation through the pre-planned strategies. The assistance or mediation which the participants in experimental group one were exposed to, was of expert-novice type. To this end, the teacher made use of three scaffolding strategies. First, using *advanced organizers* he tried to familiarize the participants with the content of the listening material. Second, through *vocabulary frontloading*

scaffolding strategy, the teacher tried to acquaint the participants with some key vocabulary items embedded in the monologue. And finally, through *opinion gap activity* the participants were instructed to have a class discussion about the content of the monologue. The teacher was also a participant in the discussion. For the posttest phase of the study, right after the participants passed through the mediation phase, they were given exactly the same three types of questions as they had been given in the pretest of the study. The answer sheets were collected for later correction and analysis.

Participants in the second homogeneous group (Group 1B) went through exactly the same procedure; pretest- mediation-posttest, with the only difference that for the mediation phase, the teacher took a rather passive role since the type of mediation in this group was of peer-to-peer type. Instead of the teacher, learners were guided to help each other in accordance with the way they had been tutored. For the scaffolding, the teacher became a coordinator and organized the learners into groups of four learners. He then guided them to make use the same three strategies as in the first experimental group as much as they could to provide each other with required assistance. Here, the teacher was just a coordinator rather than a participant in the discussion. These strategies were supposed to provide the participants with a relative clarification of the listening material. The participants in this group were exposed to the same monologue and also the same questions and then the papers were collected for later correction and analysis.

Participants in heterogeneous groups (Group 2A & 2B) went through exactly the same procedure. The first group was assisted through expert -novice mediation and the second group was helped through peer-to-peer mediation. These two groups differed in peer-to-peer mediation in a sense that more knowledgeable peers were supposed to help less knowledgeable ones in class.

Results

Homogeneous and heterogeneous EFL learners seemed to respond differently when G-DA was practiced through different expert-novice and peer-to-peer types of mediation. Nevertheless, to have statistical justification, a two-way ANOVA was run on the participants' posttest scores to find out the main effect of group type and mediation type and also their interaction effect in G-DA on the

improvement of EFL learners' ability in listening comprehension. The participants' final posttest scores were entered into SPSS for quantitative analysis. First, the descriptive statistics of the participants' post-test scores are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics: Results of Posttest for all Independent Variables

Group-type	Meditation-type	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Homo.	expert-novice	16.60	1.667	20
	peer-to-peer	15.50	2.013	20
	Total	16.05	1.907	40
Hetero.	expert-novice	16.70	1.455	20
	peer-to-peer	13.50	1.504	20
	Total	15.10	2.182	40
Total	expert-novice	16.65	1.545	40
	peer-to-peer	14.50	2.025	40
	Total	15.57	2.091	80

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of all independent variables in terms of participants' mean scores and their standard deviations. This table provides information on the mean scores of all four groups. The mean score of the homogeneous participants mediated through expert-novice- strategies was higher than that of those mediated through peer-to-peer strategies. For the heterogeneous participants mediated through expert-novice strategies, the mean score was much higher than that of those mediated through peer-to-peer strategies. In total, a noticeable difference is seen between the mean scores of homogeneous and heterogeneous participants mediated through different strategies.

A two-way ANOVA was run on a sample of 80 participants to find out if the two independent variables of group type (homogeneity and heterogeneity) and mediation type (expert-novice and peer-to-peer) and their interaction had statistically significant effect on the dependent variable of listening comprehension while conducting group –dynamic assessment.

Table 2

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	132.550[a]	3	44.183	15.765	.005	.384
Intercept	19406.450	1	19406.450	6924.367	.002	.989
Group-type	18.050	1	18.050	6.440	.013	.078
Meditation-type	92.450	1	92.450	32.987	.001	.303
Group-type * meditation-type	22.050	1	22.050	7.868	.006	.094
Error	213.000	76	2.803			
Total	19752.000	80				
Corrected Total	345.550	79				

Table 2 shows both main effect and interaction effect of independent variables on dependent variable. According to the findings, we clearly understand that both group type and mediation type as our two independent variables had statistically significant main effect on listening comprehension as our dependent variable since the p value for group type was p=.013 and for the mediation type the value was p=.001. On the other hand, an interaction between mediation type and group type as independent variables could be demonstrated with the p=.006. Since statistically significant interaction was demonstrated between the two independent variables, we need to report the main effects. This involved determining the mean difference. To determine the mean differences between the groups, a Tukey post hot was conducted for multiple comparisons:

Table 3

Tukey HSD

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: listening comprehension						
(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
homo-expert-novice	homo-peer-peer	1.10000	.52940	.170	-.2906-	2.4906
	hetero-expert-novice	-.10000-	.52940	.998	-1.4906-	1.2906
	hetero-homo-peer-peer	3.10000*	.52940	.000	1.7094	4.4906
homo-peer-peer	homo-expert-novice	-1.10000-	.52940	.170	-2.4906-	.2906
	hetero-expert-novice	-1.20000-	.52940	.115	-2.5906-	.1906
	hetero-homo-peer-peer	2.00000*	.52940	.002	.6094	3.3906
hetero-expert-novice	homo-expert-novice	.10000	.52940	.998	-1.2906-	1.4906
	homo-peer-peer	1.20000	.52940	.115	-.1906-	2.5906
	hetero-homo-peer-peer	3.20000*	.52940	.000	1.8094	4.5906
hetero-homo-peer-peer	homo-expert-novice	-3.10000-*	.52940	.000	-4.4906-	-1.7094-
	homo-peer-peer	-2.00000-*	.52940	.002	-3.3906-	-.6094-
	hetero-expert-novice	-3.20000-*	.52940	.000	-4.5906-	-1.8094-

According to what table 3 indicates, there exists no significant difference between the means of homogeneous EFL learners who were mediated either by novice-expert mediation type or peer-to-peer one. But this is not true for heterogeneous EFL learners. The mean difference between the scores of those mediated through expert-novice-novice mediation type and peer-to-peer one is statically significant.

Discussion

Group dynamic assessment, introduced by Poehner (2009), was a new

direction taken to ease some inherent inconveniences in individual dynamic assessment. Elaborating on this new direction, Poehner argues that G-DA considers group as a social system. It is not just a context in which individual performance occurs. For this system to work more effectively and efficiently, establishing a group ZPD seems to be a must. It seems to be a determining factor to consider the homogeneity and heterogeneity of group members and then choose an appropriate mediation type when G-DA is practiced in EFL classes.

In line with all the studies which were touched upon in earlier sections, this research also attempted to deal with the effect of G-DA on the improvement of a language skill. However, our study claims to extend and in some cases modify the results of the previous studies. It tried to fill a void left behind by some G-DA researchers and practitioners. This study, for instance, modifies the findings of Slavin (1993) and Tutty and Klein (2008). They favor heterogeneous grouping which, they believe, benefits lower ability learners since these leaners can get assistance from other members. The current study, however, indicates that EFL learners with lower abilities in heterogeneous groups get better assistance from their teachers rather than their peers, since they do not find their peers reliable sources for help. This study also extends the results of Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995), who argue that although individuals are not qualified enough and cannot act as an expert, they offer and are offered some help in interactions. The current study, based on its findings, extends the idea by saying that learners can better benefit each other when they are tutored and know how to provide ZPD sensitive assistance. Tutoring, as the results show, had positively affected the higher ability EFL leaners in homogeneous groups. This idea is also supported by Donato (1994) who believes that learners have the ability to provide their peers with guided assistance during collaborative interaction.

Data analysis in the present study proves the fact that all our research questions were positively answered. Group type and mediation type have both main and interaction effect on EFL learners' command of listening comprehension when G-DA is practiced. It can simply be claimed that EFL learners with lower abilities in heterogeneous groups need a more capable and knowledgeable person such as a teacher to support and assist them. According to Kaur (2010), teaching students with mixed abilities is a big and challenging responsibility for the teachers who should

know how to deal and tackle such students so that all of them get, gain, grasp and acquire the knowledge according to their requirements. Knowledgeable peers, despite being tutored, cannot simply provide the lower ability EFL learners with the same ZPD sensitive mediation or assistance as a teacher does. It can also be supported by Feuerstein's mediation theory (cited in Williams & Burden, 2000) which asserts that teachers as mediator can better select and organize stimuli and also shape them and finally present them in the most constructive and suitable way so as to improve learning. But this is not true for the higher ability homogeneous learners. The results show that expert-novice and peer-to-peer types of mediation do not differ in their effect on homogeneous EFL learner's listening comprehension ability. This can be attributed to the fact that homogeneous EFL learners with almost the same language proficiency can easily interact with one another and give the same assistance as an expert provides.

This claim can be justified by the observations which were made by the researchers in class while the learners were being assisted. In mediation phase of the study, EFL learners responded differently to the researchers' mediation. The interaction among homogeneous EFL learners was seen to be quite constructive. More knowledgeable learners were observed to be leading and controlling the interactions in opinion gap activity in a helpful manner. They were also seen to be approvingly capable of vocabulary clarification when they used frontloading vocabulary strategy. So, as the results indicate, more knowledgeable peers were successful in providing each other with required help. The results can be justified by referring to Wang's Adaptive Learning Environments Model (1983) which argues that when learners act as a mediator, they identify their own attitudes towards language learning, and their strength and weaknesses both cognitively and socially. They take responsibility for helping each other in carrying out learning tasks.

Quite on the contrary, the heterogeneous learners did not have that much ability to have helpful interaction with their peers in providing them with topic and vocabulary clarification. They were also seen to be reluctant to conduct an opinion gap activity in class. They waited for their teacher to act as a coordinator and a mediator. That is the reason why expert-novice type of mediation proved to more useful with the lower ability EFL learners in heterogeneous groups than peer-to-peer one.

Like other studies, the current study also faced some expected and unexpected problems. Applying different strategies in one session was expected to be demanding and time-consuming for the teacher. Learners also seemed to be quite tired and bored with the prolonged instruction and assessment. In real classes, teachers are recommended to apply only one or two of the strategies so as not to bore the learners more. Teacher also had to closely monitor the learners in pair-works since learners were sometimes noticed not to have been taking the tasks seriously. In some cases, some homogeneous leaners were also seen not to be relying much on their peers' assistance. They often resorted to the teacher for conformation.

This study proposes some avenues for further research in G-DA field. Other researchers are kindly invited to replicate this study using different EFL learners at different levels of language ability in other contexts, and on other language skills. They can also include age factor and find the interaction effect of mediation types and age.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the interactive effect of group type and mediation type in group dynamic assessment. We tried to find out if homogeneous and heterogeneous groups of EFL learners would respond the same or differently to expert-novice and peer-to-peer types of mediation when G-AD is applied in listening comprehension tasks. The results indicated that homogeneous EFL learners could equally enjoy assistance provided through expert- novice or peer-to-peer type of mediation. So the type of mediation does make any difference for homogeneous learners. But in the case of heterogamous EFL learners, only expert-novice type of mediation leads to better results. In accordance with the findings of the study, it can be concluded that successful application of G-DA requires that group type and mediation type as two key variables be taken into account when G-DA is practiced to provide the learners with assistance and mediation since they can interactively affect the EFL learners' improvement.

According to the findings of the current study, the researchers believe that if appropriate type of mediation is offered in accordance with the homogeneity and heterogeneity of the EFL learners, learners can better out-perform their current level

of language proficiency. The findings can also have some theoretical and practical implications for EFL teachers if they aspire to have more interactive and cooperative classes in which the teacher acts not only as the disseminator but the mediator of knowledge at the same time. Theoretically, teachers are now cognizant of the interactive relationship between homogeneity and heterogeneity of EFL learners on the one hand and the mediation types on the other. So in practice, they can take this point into account when they are applying G-DA in their classes. They can choose the mediation type according to the homogeneity and heterogeneity of EFL learners.

This study may also provide language teachers, both at schools and in language institutes, with a framework for the better application of scaffolding strategies as mediation tools in EFL classes. Teachers can also apply G-DA as a teaching tool through which instruction is given during assessment. In other words, the classroom assessment of learners can be administered using G-DA through which the two objectives of instruction and assessment can be met.

Based on the observations of the learners' behavior during the research in classes, it can also be concluded that adopting G-DA in EFL classes can certainly lead to active involvement of learners in the process of learning. When instruction takes place during or before assessment, learners necessarily focus their full attention on the material. It also increases learners' motivation and reduces their anxiety as it was eye-witnessed by the researchers in practical classes. Learners are motivated and their anxiety fades away since the challenging tasks that are higher than their current level of ability are made easier through teacher's or peers' assistance.

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The Effect of Manipulating Narrative Task Demands on EFL Learners' Attention Orientation

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Abstract

The present research investigated the impact of task demands manipulation on what learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) exactly focus on while producing speech. In the same vein, task performance conditions with varying degrees of complexity were operationally defined along the variables of structure and immediacy (±Here/Now). The study involved sixty Iranian EFL learners who were asked to carry out a narrative task under four conditions: narrating an unstructured picture-based story using the present tense with contextual support; performing a structured picture story in the present tense with contextual support; narrating an unstructured picture story in the past tense without contextual support; narrating a structured picture story in the past tense without contextual support. Following their task performance, participants attended a round of retrospective interviews where they verbalized the causes for their dysfluency as indicated by pauses. Results pointed to differential effects of task complexity on learners' attention allocation. Specifically, it was shown that performing the more difficult unstructured narrative makes for more pauses stemming from attention to conceptualization. Besides, using past tense to recount the stories without looking at the pictures resulted in more pauses due to attention to form. More importantly, it was found out that recounting a structured narrative in the past tense without contextual support, substantially enhanced attention to form which was evident in the significantly greater number of pauses owing to focus on lexical, syntactic, and phonological encodings. The implications of the outcomes are discussed in relation to relevant theoretical and practical issues.

Keywords: task, attention, form, immediacy, structure

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Introduction

Second language acquisition (SLA) acknowledges the importance of attention to form since before subsequent processing, language learners need to first consciously "notice" form in the input they receive. In other words, for learners to convert the input they receive into intake, they must focus on specific aspects of it (Schmidt, 1995). One of the overriding concerns educators face in task-based teaching is directing learners' attention to form in the meaning-based context of performing a task (Dao, Iwashita, & Gatbonton, 2017). In order to address this valid concern, researchers have attempted to modify task demands and thereby differentially draw language learners' attention towards different aspects of the language they produce (Fukuta& Yamashita, 2015; Vasylets, Gilabert, & Manchon, 2017). From among the variables documented to influence task complexity, research outcomes have indicated that increasing task demands by requiring learners to carry out the task of retelling a picture story in the past tense without looking at the pictures (i.e., performing in There/Then) induces them to direct their attention to the form which results in enhanced accuracy of L2 production (Gilabert, 2007; Ishikawa, 2007; Iwashita, Elder, & McNamara, 2001). There is also evidence to suggest that performing a structured task can lead to attention primarily being channeled towards formal aspects of language as shown in increased accuracy (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005; Tavakoli & Foster, 2011). These conclusions, however, are of little psycholinguistic credence as they are chiefly grounded on observable linguistic variables, i.e., complexity, accuracy, and fluency (but see Ahmadian, Abdolrezapour, & Ketabi, 2012 for a psycholinguistic investigation). Given this limitation, the present investigation was conducted to probe into the effects, simultaneously manipulating task demands along the variables of structure and immediacy, exert on how EFL learners allocate their attention while they perform a narrative task. To this aim, the researcher used Fukuta's (2016) framework to analyze the occurrence of dysfluency markers in participants' speech in order to specify their causes as defined in terms of lexical, syntactic, and phonological encodings on the one hand and conceptualization on the other.

Literature Review

Task Complexity

Generally speaking, task complexity is conceived of in terms of two dominant perspectives on the nature of human attention, namely, the limited-capacity view (Skehan, 2009), and the multiple-resource perspective (Robinson, 2011). These theoretical frameworks make different assumptions and predictions regarding the influence of manipulating task demands on different dimensions of L2 output. Of central relevance to research on task complexity is Levelt's (1989) speech production model. In brief, the model delineates the process of language production in terms of: (a) *conceptualization*, by means of which ideational content is generated through the processes of macroplanning (e.g., deciding the function an utterance will perform) and microplanning (linguistically realizing the content); (b) *formulation*, which converts the preverbal message into linguistic form; (c) *articulation*, which produces language in the form of sounds; and (d) *monitoring*, which controls the accuracy of the message.

The first perspective postulates that due to limitations in the availability of cognitive resources, language learners find it demanding to concentrate on aspects of form and meaning at the same time. Accordingly, as task demands increase, the competition among different performance areas strains learners' memory with the result that they prioritize meaning over form. This competition results in a 'trade-off' between fluency and complexity and accuracy (Skehan, 2009, 2014). Skehan (2009) maintains that tasks should be sequenced based on three task complexity criteria: (a) *code complexity* which is related to such language factors as syntactic and lexical difficulty; (b) *cognitive complexity* which is a function of cognitive familiarity (e.g. topic familiarity) and cognitive processing (i.e., the amount of cognitive load task performance involves); and (c) *communicative stress* which has to do with such performance variables as time limit, text length, and the number of participants involved in task performance. Skehan (2014) claims that it is possible to focus on formal aspects of production by reducing task demands through the above mentioned task characteristics.

On the contrary, Robinson (2011) argues for the flexibility of attentional capacity and theorizes that the multiple resource nature of attention enables language learners to simultaneously focus on both form and meaning. The implication is that

focusing on accuracy does not prevent learners from concentrating on complexity. Robinson (2001, p. 29) conceptualizes task complexity as "attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner" and assumes that increasing task demands along certain dimensions (outlined below) elicits more accurate and complex output. Based on Robinson (2001), how complex a task is depends upon resource-directing (i.e., the extent to which it is cognitively demanding) and resource-dispersing (i.e., the extent to which it is procedurally challenging) variables. Robinson reasons that making a task more complex with respect to the resource-directing variables (e.g., requiring the learners to perform in There/Then) prompts them to prioritize language forms. On the other hand, increasing task demands in terms of the resource-dispersing variables, (e.g., requiring the learners to do a task without planning opportunity) precludes them from focusing their attention on language forms (Robinson, 2007). Accordingly, whilst carrying out a complex task is expected to decrease fluency, it positively affects complexity and accuracy of learners' performance.

As was mentioned above, the major theoretical frameworks undergirding task complexity diverge on their predictions about the effects manipulating task complexity can have on language learners' cognitive processing and production. In what follows, two factors which imply different degrees of task demands and research evidence suggests influence performance, namely task structureand immediacy (±Here/Now) are elaborated.

Task Structure

Narrative task structure is the first independent variable of the present study. A narrative task typically involves asking learners to look at a set of related pictures and recount the story developing through those pictures. In general, the existence of structure in a narrative depends on whether the story it depicts involves "a clear timeline; a script; a conventional beginning, middle, and end; a problem solution structure; and an appeal to what is familiar and organized in the speaker's mind" (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005, p.246). A tightly structured task is supposed to be less cognitively demanding for learners and consequently performing this type of task enables them to channel their attentional resources towards different aspects of

their speech (Parvaresh & Ahmadian, 2016).

The influence of task structure on L2 performance was initially noticed by Skehan and Foster (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1999). Though they primarily focused on task familiarity, further analysis of their results disclosed that regardless of the familiarity of their content, tightly structured tasks generated the most fluent L2 discourse, a finding which motivated a number of subsequent studies (e.g., Ahmadian et al., 2015; Saeedi & Rahimi Kazerooni, 2014; Tavakoli & Foster, 2011; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005). All in all, the results of these investigations indicated that doing a structured narrative task generates more accurate and fluent L2 discourse. The psycholinguistic validity of the aforementioned findings was established by Ahmadian et al. (2012), who examined L2 learners' self repair behavior as the cognitive mechanism underlying speech production. They were able to show that performing the less difficult structured narrative task led the participants to effectuate more error corrections related to grammaticality of their speech.

Immediacy

Immediacy (±Here/Now) is one of the 'resource-directing' factors which, according to the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2011), contribute to the complexity of tasks. As noted before, a major prediction of the hypothesis is that increasing task complexity by means of such variables enables the learners to focus on how meaning is connected to form, thereby affecting different aspects of their production (Jackson & Suethanapornkul, 2013). As such, Robinson (2001) argues, if doing a task involves writing or speaking about objects and events dislocated with respect to time and space (i.e., There/Then), it assists language learners to retrieve the needed L2 knowledge, which in turn leads to differential effects on their output.

A number of researchers have studied the effects of increasing task complexity with respect to immediacy. The first operational definition of the ±Here/Now variable was provided by Robinson (1995) who asked the participants of his study to narrate a picture-based story under two conditions. In the Here/Now condition, the participants were required to view the pictures and retell the story using the present tense. Performing in There/Then required the learners to use past tense to narrate the picture story without simultaneously looking at them. He

observed that the There/Then condition was associated with enhanced accuracy and complexity but decreased fluency. The positive effects of performing in There/Then on accuracy and/or complexity was subsequently upheld by a number of studies (e.g., Gilabert, 2007; Ishikawa, 2007; Iwashita, Elder, & McNamara, 2001; Rahimpour, 1999; Saeedi, 2020; Skehan & Foster, 1999). With the exception of Ishikawa (2007), these studies reported negative effects on fluency.

As the above review indicates, modifying task demands along the variables of structure and immediacy leads to variant effects on language learners' complexity, accuracy, and fluency of production. Nonetheless, with the exception of Ahmadian et al. (2012), the above cited studies have documented the effects of task demands on the linguistic dimensions of performance and therefore provide little psycholinguistic evidence as to what learners actually process and focus on while doing tasks of different degrees of complexity. Accordingly, to delve into the cognitive mechanisms which generate speech, the present research attempted to find out whether and how simultaneously manipulating task demands in terms of immediacy and structure influences learners' focus of attention. This can be a worthwhile undertaking, as it provides a more psycho-linguistically plausible account of the effects task complexity causes on language processing and production (Ortega, 2005). The investigation was geared towards answering the following questions:

Does increasing task demands in terms of the variable of structure affect EFL learners' attention orientation?

Does increasing task demands in terms of the variable of immediacy affect EFL learners' attention orientation?

Methodology

Design

This research was carried out using a between groups design. The independent variable was task complexity which was operationally defined as different combinations of task structure and immediacy with four levels (groups). Therefore, each participant was asked to complete the picture-based story under one of the conditions involving varying degrees of task complexity: the structured task performed in Here/Now; the structured task performed in There/Then; the

unstructured task performed in Here/Now; the unstructured task performed in There/Then. The dependent variables were dysfluency episodes related to conceptualization, syntactic, lexical, and phonological encodings.

Participants

Sixty male EFL learners studying general English at a language school in Isfahan, Iran participated in the study. They attended the classes twice a week in the summer semester of 2019. Their age ranged from 17 to 32. Based on the results of the placement test that they had taken at the institute, the participants were placed into the intermediate classes. Despite this, the Quick Oxford Placement Test was administered to make sure they were assigned to homogeneous groups. The participants took part in the study on a voluntary basis and were notified that the results of their performance would not influence their evaluation and they would be used for research purposes only.

Instrumentation

The researcher employed the following instruments to elicit the required data:

Narrative Tasks. To collect samples of learners' speech, two narrative tasks were employed. Completing a narrative task requires the learners to view the pictures displaying a story and orally recount what they see. In the present research, two sets of pictures delineating two different stories were chosen. The stories differed with respect to their storyline structure. Based on the criteria specified by Tavakoli and Foster (2008), in the unstructured picture story no problem solution occurred and the story did not have a clear beginning or ending. In effect, it was possible to rearrange the pictures without changing the sequence of events displayed through them. The story in the unstructured narrative revolves around a boy and a girl who are riding their bikes. They have a break en route and drink something in a cafe. The cyclists also go to the beach where the boy takes a dip. In the end, they go to a hostel for a stay. The structured narrative displays some kids who are playing football. One of them kicks the ball into a hole and the kids have to fill it with water to pull their ball out of the pit.

Placement Test. As was noted above, the participants had taken a

placement test administered in the institute and based on their performance, they were placed into the intermediate level. However, to make sure of the learners' homogeneity, they were given the pen and paper version of the Quick Oxford Placement Test (QOPT). The QOPT is a reliable and time saving test developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL. It includes 60 multiple choice test items and the test takers are required to directly record their answers on the paper. Time allotment for answering the questions is 30 minutes. According to Allan (2004), the test enjoys the qualities of an efficient international test whose scoring criteria are appropriate for different levels in diverse educational settings throughout the world.

Procedure

As was pointed out above, the data were collected by means of a between-groups design. Accordingly, each participant was presented with one of the above mentioned picture series to be narrated in one of the following conditions:

Performing the Structured Task in Here/Now (ST/HN). Performance under this condition involved completing a narrative task which was made easier along both variables. In other words, each learner was allowed thirty seconds to look at a structured narrative to be completed in the present tense while simultaneously viewing the pictures, i.e., Here/Now. Completing the structured task is less demanding than the unstructured one because it is much easier for learners to unravel the story developing in the pictures (Ahmadian et al., 2012). Besides, as stated by Robinson (1995), performing a task in present tense representing the Here/Now condition is less cognitively complex than doing it in the past tense without taking advantage of contextual support, i.e., There/Then.

Performing the Structured Task in There/Then (ST/TT). This performance condition was more demanding than the previous one as task complexity was increased along the variable of immediacy. As such, those who performed under this condition were allotted thirty seconds to look at the pictures and retell the structured picture story shown in them using the past tense and without looking at them again. In other words, they could not use contextual support.

Performing the Unstructured Task in Here/Now (UST/HN). Those who performed under this condition carried out a task which was made more challenging

along the structure dimension and less difficult with respect to immediacy. Here, the participants were required to narrate the unstructured picture story in the present tense and could look at the pictures while narrating. Like the above performance conditions, the participants were given thirty seconds to view the pictures before doing the task.

Performing the Unstructured Task in There/Then (UST/TT). This condition was the most demanding as it was made more complex in terms of both variables. Those learners who completed the task under this condition were required to recount the unstructured picture story in the past tense without having the opportunity to view the pictures. Similar to the above conditions, only thirty seconds was allowed to look at the pictures in order to preclude the learners from doing pre-task planning.

Data Coding Scheme

Each participant's performance was analyzed in light of markers, which signaled lack of fluency. In general terms, fluency refers to the smoothness and ease of expression (Bui & Skehan, 2018). Of the measures used to tap fluency, dysfluency is one of the most frequently used, which is typically defined as the ratio of dysfluency markers (e.g., filled/unfilled pauses, hesitations, false-starts, verbatim repetitions, self-repairs) to discourse units (e.g., words, clauses, or sentential units) (Lambert & Kormos, 2014). In the present research, dysfluecny markers in participants' speech were closely examined as the basis for making inferences regarding learners' attention allocation. In doing so, having completed the task, each participant attended a retrospective interview carried out in Persian to pinpoint the causes of dysfluency markers in their production. The researcher built on Fukuta's (2016) method and analyzed each learner's protocol data on the basis of dysfluency markers which prompted them to retrospectively recall and express their causes. According to Fukuta (2016), by using this coding method the researchers will be able to precisely determine when and to what extent learners focus on conceptualizing, syntactic and phonological encoding, and choosing the relevant lexical items. This coding scheme has been previously validated and used to examine the effects of reasoning and dual task demands and also task repetition on learners' attention allocation while performing tasks (Fukuta & Yamashita, 2015;

Fukuta, 2016). The interviews were conducted according to the guidelines offered by Gass and Mackey (2000). Each learner was individually met and asked to listen to their recorded speech. Whenever the researcher noticed any cases of dysfluency in the form of false-starts, self-repairs, repetitions, fillers, and pauses, he asked them to explain why they had paused at that time. GoldWave version 6.52 was used to determine the length of pauses.

Following Fukuta (2016), protocol data was coded with respect to *episodes* indicative of attention to conceptualization or linguistic form. In Fukuta's (2016) coding scheme, conceptualizing relates to the speaker's wish to communicate the message he intends to convey. The form-related episodes were divided into (a) syntactic encodings pertaining to word order, sentence structure, and morpho-syntactic processing, (b) lexical choices corresponding to lexis or lexicalized phrases, and (c) phonological encodings, related to the phonological features of speech. Below, each of these episodes is elucidated using the data obtained from the interviews conducted after participants' task performance. The translated versions of some participants' retrospective comments (RCs) are as follows:

Conceptualizing:

Example: The picture shows some…. **students** who play.

Participant's RC: At first I wanted to say boys; however, I noticed that they are playing in front of a school building. I thought that they must be students.

Syntactic encoding:

Example: I see some kids who… **are playing** football in a garden.

Participant's RC: At that time, I did not exactly know whether I should say "are playing" or "play". I thought that present progressive is the right verb form to use.

Phonological encoding:

Example: The boy and girl go to a…. **café** to drink something.

Participant's RC: Here, I was not sure how I should pronounce the word café, /kæ'fei/ or /kafi/?

Lexical choice:

Example: After that, they go to…. **the beach** and go swimming.

Participant's RC: I was uncertain whether it was better to say "beach" or "seaside".

To make sure that the interview data were reliably coded, an experienced colleague coded about ten percent of the corpus. The estimated interrater reliability

coefficient was 0.88 which indicated coding of the data was done reliably.

Data Analysis

The SPSS software was used to quantitatively analyze the coded protocol data. In doing so, descriptive statistics related to the number of episodes concerning conceptualizing, syntactic encoding, phonological encoding, and lexical choice were calculated. Next, the means of different episodes were compared across groups through a series of one-way between groups ANOVAs. In order to determine the exact locations of significant mean differences, Scheffe post-hoc test was also run.

Results

As stated earlier, the two research questions of the study addressed the effects of increasing task demands in terms of the variables of structure and immediacy on EFL learners' attention orientation as shown by the number of dysfluency markers related to syntactic, lexical, phonological endings, and conceptualization. In the present section, the findings obtained from the four conditions explained earlier are presented. Table 1 displays the means and standard deviations pertaining to participants' performances under the above mentioned performance conditions.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variables: Lexical Encoding, Syntactic Encoding, Phonological Encoding, and Conceptualization

Dependent variable	Mean and SD*			
	ST/HN	UST/HN	ST/TT	UST/TT
Lexical encoding	5.73 (3.34)	2.33 (2.71)	9 (2.03)	5.6 (3.52)
Syntactic encoding	2.86 (1.92)	.86 (1.35)	4.73(1.86)	2.8 (1.65)
Phonological encoding	.733(.45)	.13 (.35)	1.33 (.61)	.8 (.56)
Conceptualization	3.06 (2.46)	5.86 (2.44)	.72 (1.03)	3.6(2.29)

*Note. The values in the parentheses are standard deviations.

In order to determine the statistical significance of mean differences across the groups, one-way between groups ANOVAs were run. The results are tabulated in Table 2.

Table 2

Results of One-way between-groups ANOVAs on the Effects of Task Complexity on Learners'
Attention Orientation as Measured by the Occurrence of Dysfluency Markers

Dependent variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Lexical encoding	Between Groups	333.467	3	111.156	12.655	.000
	Within Groups	491.867	56	8.783		
	Total	825.333	59			
Syntactic encoding	Between Groups	112.183	3	37.394	12.707	.000
	Within Groups	164.800	56	2.943		
	Total	276.983	59			
Phonological encoding	Between Groups	10.850	3	3.617	14.065	.000
	Within Groups	14.400	56	.257		
	Total	25.250	59			
Conceptualization	Between Groups	199.783	3	66.594	14.500	.000
	Within Groups	257.200	56	4.593		
	Total	456.983	59			

As displayed in the above table, manipulating task complexity along the variables of structure and immediacy significantly affects the number of dysfluency episodes related to lexical encoding, $F(3, 56) = 12.65$, $p= .000$. Concerning syntactic encoding, the statistical analyses show that group mean differences caused by different degrees of task demands were of significance, $F(3, 56) = 12.7$, $p = .000$. Similarly, the values related to phonological encoding suggested statistically significant mean differences, $F(3, 56) = 14.06$, $p = .000$. Finally, the results for group mean differences related to conceptualization also reached statistical significance, $F(3, 56) = 14.5$, $p = .000$.

Thus, based on the results of one-way ANOVAs reported above, it can be deduced that modifying task demands through different combinations of structure and immediacy has caused differential effects on learners' shift of attention as indicated by the number of dysfluency markers related to lexical encoding, syntactic encoding, phonological encoding, and conceptualization.

In order to answer the research questions, Scheffe test was run after ANOVAs. The first research question dealt with the effects of making a task more demanding with respect to the variable of structure on EFL learners' attention orientation. To control for the effects of immediacy, the means of ST/HN and ST/TT groups were compared with those of the UST/HN and UST/TT groups, respectively. As shown in Table 1 above, in general, performing the more demanding unstructured narrative led to fewer episodes related to form, i.e., lexical, syntactic, and phonological encodings, and more instances of dysfluency markers related to conceptualization. The statistical significances of these differences were established by means of the Scheffe test results reported below.

Table 3

Post-hoc Scheffe Test Results on the Effects of Task Structure on Learners' Attention Orientation

	Cross-group comparisons			
	ST/HN Vs. UST/HN		ST/TT Vs. UST/TT	
Dependent variable	Mean difference	Sig.	Mean difference	Sig.
Lexical encoding	3.4	.027*	3.4	.027*
Syntactic encoding	2	.024*	1.93	.031*
Phonological encoding	.6	.021*	.53	.050*
Conceptualization	-2.8	.009*	-2.86	.007*

* Mean difference is significant at the .05 level

As set out in tables 1 and 3, mean difference for episodes related to lexical encoding between the ST/HN (M = 5.73, SD = 3.34) and UST/HN (M = 2.33, SD = 2.71) groups was significant, *p* = .027, suggesting that the former group produced

more instances of episodes related to lexical encoding. Regarding syntactic encoding, the participants in the ST/HN group (M = 2.86, SD = 1.92) produced more instances of dysfluecny markers than their counterparts in the UST/HN group (M= .86, SD= 1.35), p = .024. Similarly, the mean difference between the ST/HN (M = .733, SD = .45) and the UST/HN (M = .13, SD = .35) groups was of significance with regard to episodes related to phonological encodings, p = .021. Lastly, concerning conceptualization, a comparison between the ST/HN (M = 3.06, SD = 2.46) and UST/HN (M = 5.86, SD = 2.44) groups revealed that the latter group produced more instances of dysfluecny markers due to effort at conceptualization, p = .009.

Comparing the mean difference between the ST/TT (M = 9, SD = 2.03) and UST/TT (M = 5.6, SD = 3.52) groups showed a statistically significant mean difference in terms of episodes related to lexical encoding, p = .027, showing that the former group produced more instances of this type of episode. Likewise, the mean differences between the ST/TT (M = 4.73, SD = 1.86) and UST/TT (M = 2.8, SD =1.65) groups was significant in terms of episodes related to syntactic encoding, p = .031, pointing to the higher mean of the former group. As for episodes related to phonological encoding, the mean for the ST/TT group (M = 1.33, SD = .61) was significantly higher than the UST/TT group (M = .8, SD = .56), p = .05. With episodes related to conceptualization, the results showed that the mean for the UST/TT group (M = 3.6, SD = 2.29) was significantly higher than the ST/TT group (M = .72, SD = 1.03), p = .007. These outcomes confirm that increasing task demands in terms of structure causes learners to mainly heed message conveyance by focusing on conceptualization.

The second research question addressed the impact of increasing task complexity in terms of immediacy on what EFL learners focus on. In order to control for the effects of task structure, the performance of the ST/HN group was compared with the ST/TT group. The results of those who performed under the UST/HN condition were also compared with the UST/TT group.

Table 4

Post-hoc Scheffe Test Results on the Effects of Immediacy on Learners' Attention Orientation

Dependent variable	Cross-group comparisons			
	ST/HN Vs. ST/TT		UST/HN Vs. UST/TT	
	Mean difference	Sig.	Mean difference	Sig.
Lexical encoding	-3.26	.036*	-3.26	.036*
Syntactic encoding	-1.86	.040*	-1.93	.031*
Phonological encoding	-.6	.021*	-.66	.008*
Conceptualization	2.33	.040*	2.26	.048*

* Mean difference is significant at the .05 level

As displayed in tables 1 and 4, mean difference for episodes related to lexical encoding between ST/HN (M = 5.73, SD = 3.34) and ST/TT (M = 9, SD = 2.03) was significant, *p* = .036, suggesting that the former group generated fewer instances of episodes related to lexical encoding. Regarding syntactic encoding, the participants in the ST/HN group (M = 2.86, SD = 1.92) produced fewer instances of dysfluecny markers than the learners in the ST/TT group (M = 4.73, SD = 1.86), *p* = .04. Similarly, the mean difference between the ST/HN (M = .733, SD = .45) and the ST/TT group (M = 1.33, SD = .61) was of significance with regard to episodes related to phonological encodings, *p* = .021. As for conceptualization, a comparison between the ST/HN (M = 3.06, SD = 2.46) and ST/TT (M = .72, SD = 1.03) groups revealed that the former group produced more instances of dysfluecny markers due to effort at conceptualization, *p* = .04.

Comparing the mean difference between the UST/HN (M = 2.33, SD = 2.71) and UST/TT (M =5.6, SD = 3.52) groups showed a statistically significant difference in terms of episodes related to lexical encoding, *p* = .036, indicating that the former group produced fewer instances of this type of episode. Likewise, the mean difference between the UST/HN (M =.86, SD =1.35) and UST/TT (M = 2.8, SD =1.65) group was significant in terms of episodes related to syntactic encoding, *p* = .031, pointing to the higher mean of the latter group. As for episodes related to phonological encoding, the mean for the UST/HN group (M = .13, SD = .35) was

significantly lower than the UST/TT group (M = .8, SD = .56), *p* = .008. With episodes related to conceptualization, the results of analyses confirmed that the mean for the UST/HN group (M = 5.86, SD = 2.44) was significantly higher than the UST/TT group (M =3.6, SD = 2.29), *p* = .048.

Hence, concerning the second research question, there are grounds to deduce that increasing task complexity in terms of immediacy leads to more instances of episodes related to lexical, syntactic, and phonological encodings and fewer cases of pauses due to conceptualization.

An interesting finding regarding the combined effects of task structure and immediacy was disclosed after a careful comparison of the means across the four conditions reported in Table 1 above. As can be seen in the table, the performance of learners who completed the task under the ST/TT condition featured the highest number of dysfluency markers due to syntactic, lexical, and phonological encodings. These participants also did not direct their focal attention towards message conveyance as their speech showed the lowest number of episodes associated with conceptualization.

Table 5

Post-hoc Scheffe Test Results on the Combined Effects of Structure and Immediacy on Learners' Attention Orientation.

Dependent variable	Cross- group comparisons					
	ST/TT Vs. ST/HN		ST/TT Vs. UST/HN		ST/TT Vs. UST/TT	
	Mean difference	Sig.	Mean difference	Sig.	Mean difference	Sig.
Lexical encoding	3.26	.036*	6.66	.000*	3.4	.027*
Syntactic encoding	1.86	.040*	3.86	.000*	1.93	.031*
Phonological encoding	.6	.021*	1.2	.000*	.53	.050*
Conceptualization	-2.33	.040*	-5.13	.000*	-2.86	.007*

* Mean difference is significant at the .05 level

As displayed in tables 1 and 5, the mean difference for the occurrence of episodes related to lexical encoding between the ST/TT (M = 9, SD = 2.03) and the ST/HN(M = 5.73, SD = 3.34) groups was significant, p = .036, suggesting that the former group yielded more episodes due to lexical encoding. Regarding syntactic encoding, the participants in the ST/TT group (M = 4.73, SD = 1.86) produced more instances of dysfluecny markers than their counterparts in the ST/HN group (M = 2.86, SD = 1.92), p =.04. Similarly, the mean difference between the ST/TT (M = 1.33, SD = 61) and the ST/HN group (M = .733, SD = .45) was of significance with regard to episodes related to phonological encodings, p = .021. Finally, concerning conceptualization, a comparison between the ST/TT (M = .72, SD = 1.03) and the ST/HN (M = 3.06, SD = 2.46) groups revealed that the former group generated fewer instances of dysfluecny markers caused by conceptualization, p =.04.

Comparing the mean difference between the ST/TT (M = 9, SD = 2.03) and UST/HN (M = 2.33, SD = 2.71) groups showed a statistically significant mean difference in terms of episodes related to lexical encoding, p = .000 , showing that the former group produced more instances of this type of episode. In the same vein, the mean differences between the ST/TT (M = 4.73, SD = 1.86) and the UST/HN group (M = .86, SD = 1.35) was significant with respect to the episodes related to syntactic encoding, p = .000, pointing to the higher mean of the former group. As for episodes related to phonological encoding, the mean for the ST/TT group (M = 1.33, SD = .61) was significantly higher than the UST/HN group (M = .13, SD = .35), p = .000. On the other hand, the results for episodes related to conceptualization showed that the mean of the ST/TT group (M = .72, SD = 1.03) was significantly lower than the UST/HN group (M = 5.86, SD = 2.44), p = .000.

The mean difference for episodes related to lexical encoding between the ST/TT (M = 9, SD = 2.03) and UST/TT group (M = 5.6, SD =3.52) was significant, p =.027, suggesting that the former produced more instances. Regarding syntactic encoding, the participants in the ST/TT group (M = 4.73, SD = 1.86) also yielded more dysfluecny markers than those who were in the UST/TT group (M = 2.8, SD = 1.65), p = .031. Likewise, the mean difference between the ST/TT (M = 1.33, SD = .61) and the UST/TT group (M = .8, SD = .56) was of significance with regard to episodes associated with phonological encodings, p = .05. Finally, concerning episodes connected with conceptualization, the comparison between the ST/TT (M =

.72, SD = 1.03) and the UST/TT (M = 3.6, SD = 2.29) groups revealed that the latter group produced more dysfluecny markers caused by conceptualizing their message, *p* =.007.

Altogether, the above results indicate that reducing task demands in terms of structure and simultaneously increasing it with respect to immediacy results in a maximum focus on form to the detriment of focus on meaning. This significant piece of evidence which, in point of fact, constitutes the major contribution of the present research will be expounded below.

Discussion

In this investigation, the researcher explored how simultaneously manipulating task demands in terms of structure and immediacy affects EFL learners' focus of attention. Generally, the results lent further support to the findings of an earlier investigation (i.e., Fukuta & Yamashita, 2015) that manipulating task demands along different dimensions causes differential effects on language learners' focus on aspects of form and meaning. Below, the outcomes are explained in relation to previous research evidence and theoretical issues.

The first research question related to the impact of increasing task demands in terms of structure on EFL learners' attention allocation. As reported above, the results indicated that doing the more challenging unstructured narrative task leads to more pauses due to conceptualization and fewer episodes related to form in learners' speech. This finding accords with the results of previous studies (i.e., Ahmadian et al., 2015; Saeedi & Rahimi Kazerooni, 2014; Tavakoli & Foster, 2011; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005) who documented the negative effects of lack of structure on learners' focus on form as measured in terms of accuracy of speech. This observation also is in line with Ahmadian et al. (2012) who reported beneficial effects for task structure on focus on form as measured in terms of learners effectuating more form-related self-corrections. Viewed from a cognitive perspective, the enhanced focus on formal aspects of language could be explained on the grounds that recounting a structured story substantially eases the cognitive processing load on learners as this type of story does not require them to focus much of their attentional resources on figuring out the theme or recognizing how the events shown in the pictures are sequenced (Tavakoli, 2009). On the basis of Levelt's (1989) model of speech production, it

might be reasoned that a structured storyline reduces the cognitive pressure on conceptualization thereby releasing attentional capacity which enables the learners to build on their explicit L2 knowledge and pay closer attention to formulating and monitoring their speech. In Skehan's (1998) terms, it may also be logical to argue that the existence of a narrative macrostructure reduces 'cognitive complexity' of the task and consequently facilitates learners' access to their 'rule-based' system of L2 which, contrary to 'exemplar-based' system, involves more cognitive effort to use. As stated by Skehan (1998), whereas the former makes for more accurate L2 production, the latter enhances fluency. Overall, the findings regarding task structure psycho-linguistically uphold the conviction that increasing task complexity along the 'cognitive complexity' dimension causes the learners to focus on conveying message as reflected in the number of episodes related to conceptualization.

The second research question addressed the impact of increasing narrative task demands along the variable of immediacy on EFL learners' attention orientation. As presented in the previous section, the descriptive statistics displayed that performing the narrative task in There/Then made for more dysfluency markers due to lexical, syntactic, and phonological encodings and fewer pauses owing to conceptualization effort. The results of post-hoc Scheffe analysis established the significance of the observed mean differences in both the ST/TT and UST/TT groups as compared with the ST/HN and UST/HN groups, respectively. The increased focus on form caused by past tense use and lack of contextual support accords with the findings of earlier research showing gains in accuracy as evident in terms of speech accuracy which is, in effect, the linguistic correlate of cognitive processing and monitoring the language (Gilabert, 2007; Ishikawa, 2007; Iwashita, McNamara, & Elder, 2001; Rahimpour , 1997; Saeedi, 2020). Theoretically, this observation is consistent with the assumption that increasing the conceptual and cognitive demands of tasks results in increased accuracy of L2 production (Robinson, 2007, 2011). Hence, there is psycholinguistic evidence showing that increasing task demands with respect to tense and contextual support provides a context for the learners to shift their attention towards form as indicated by the occurrence of more pauses due to monitoring and encoding language forms.

As was noted earlier, one particularly significant piece of evidence observed among the reported findings was that compared with other performance

conditions, the speech produced under the STR/TT condition was characterized by the highest number of form-related episodes and the lowest number of conceptualization episodes pertaining to message conveyance. This interesting outcome suggests that making a task more complex with respect to immediacy yields the highest level of focus on form if it is, simultaneously, made easier by featuring information that is structured and, as a corollary, less 'cognitively complex' (Skehan, 1998). One more noteworthy discovery vis-a-vis the STR/TT condition is that speech generated under this condition was characterized by the lowest mean for conceptualization episodes, an observation which seems to be more in keeping with the trade-off hypothesis (Skehan, 2007; Skehan & Foster, 2001) based on which focusing focal attention on lexical, syntactic, and phonological encoding is tantamount to a substantial decrease in focus on conceptualization. Put differently, controlled processing which assists learners to carefully formulate and articulate their speech negatively affects the conceptualization stage.

Conclusion and Implications

This research was an attempt to throw more light on the effects of manipulating narrative task demands along the variables of immediacy and structure on EFL learners' attention orientation. The outcomes suggested strong effects of task structure on focus on form, which was evident in increased number of dysfluency episodes related to syntactic, phonological, and lexical encodings. The results for immediacy also delineated that lack of contextual support along with past tense use enhances focus on form. More importantly, it was observed that narrating a structured picture story in There/Then leads to maximum focus of attention on formal aspects of language as measured with reference to syntactic, lexical and phonological encodings. From a theoretical perspective, the findings enhance the psycholinguistic basis of task complexity as a robust benchmark for grading and sequencing tasks. Pedagogically, the findings suggest that by effectively manipulating design and implementation features of tasks, language instructors may guide learners' conscious attention to language forms and 'noticing' which is, in point of fact, a precondition for learning (Schmidt, 2001, cited in Frear & Bitchener, 2015). Successfully guiding learners' attention to form in the context of meaningful language use address one of the major concerns in relation to task-based L2

instruction that is, focusing on negotiating meaning to the detriment of attention to formal aspects of language.

The study has some limitations which should be acknowledged. Firstly, since this research had a cross-sectional nature, its results do not provide strong evidence as to the longitudinal effects of attention shift on second language acquisition process. Secondly, the findings are generalizable to intermediate learners in an Iranian EFL context. Therefore, to enhance the external validity of the results reported here, further research is needed to replicate this study with learners of different L1 backgrounds at diverse proficiency levels. Finally, future studies may involve different task types including information gap and argumentation tasks.

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Paper
Abstracts
in Persian

سیاه به عنوان قهرمانی نجات‌بخش
در *نام من قرمز است*

الهام محمدی آچاچلوئی [۱]

چکیده

این مقاله، دیدگاه اسطوره‌شناختی جوزف کمپل را برای بحث دربارهٔ شخصیت سیاه به عنوان نجات‌بخش در رمـان *نام من قرمز است* اثر اورهان پاموک (۲۰۰۲) به کار می‌برد. این امر با بحث از سیاه به عنوان عاشقی انجام پذیرفته که تعامل گفت‌وگویی‌اش با جهان خارج به وی کمک می‌کند در جامعه نمونه چندفرهنگی عثمانی قرن ۱۶ کـه از زوال تدریجی تحت فشار راهکارهای تک‌صدایی ارتباطی رنج می‌برد نظم و صلح را دوباره برقرار کند. این راهکارها سنت نقاشی غربی و شرقی، و دیدگاهی ضد-نقاشی مذهبی را شامل مـی‌شـوند کـه دو مـورد دیگـر را بـه عنوان کفرآمیز رد می‌کند. این پژوهش نظرهای غالب منتقدین *نام من قرمز است* را به عنوان یک تمثیل سیاسی بدبینانه که از ناپدید شدن هویت فرهنگی سنتی ترکیه ابراز تأسف می‌کند، به چالش می‌کشد و استدلال می‌کنـد کـه *نـام من قرمز است* از طریق جزئیات عملکرد سیاه در خودشناسی و انطباق‌پـذیری، موضـعی خـوش‌بینانـه نسـبت بـه شکل‌گیری فرهنگی ایجاد می‌کند. این مقاله با برجسته کردن مفهوم مبارزه مرگ-و-زندگی، سیاه را به عنوان یک زندگی‌بخش معرفی می‌کند که موفقیتش با پیوند مجدد از طریق ازدواج مشخص می‌شود.

کلیدواژه‌ها: جوزف کمپل، اورهان پاموک، نجات‌دهنده، گفت‌وگویی، تک‌گویی

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اهداف تعاملی در بخش نتیجه‌گیری مقالات مروری نظری انگلیسی

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چکیده

مقالات حوزه بررسی ژانر کمک بسزایی به فهم ما از ساختار بلاغی مقالات علمی کرده‌اند. مقاله حاضر بـه بررسی ساختار بلاغی بخش نتیجه‌گیری در مقالات مروری نظری انگلیسی در زمینـه‌هـای زبان‌شناسـی و زبان‌شناسی کاربردی پرداخته‌است. رویکرد استفاده‌شده در این مطالعه، تجزیه و تحلیل ژانـر مبتنـی بـر گـام اسـت. پیکـره‌ای متشکل از ۵۰۰ مقاله مروری نظری انگلیسی مورد بررسی قرار گرفت. گام‌ها و زیرگام‌های مورد استفاده برای نیـل به اهداف تعاملی در بخش نتیجه‌گیری مقالات مروری نظری بررسی شد. نتایج نشان داد که اولاً، نتیجـه‌گیـری در مقالات مروری نظری انگلیسی از نظر اهداف ارتباطی اولیه با نتیجه‌گیری در مقالات پژوهشی متفاوت است. دومـاً، نتیجه‌گیری مقالات مروری نظری شامل پنج مجموعـه گـام اسـت، از جملـه۱) حـوزه، ۲) هـدف، ۳) سـاختار، ۴) نتیجه‌گیری و ۵) پیشنهاد. سوماً، نتیجه‌گیری در مقالات مروری نظری در دو گام آخر الگوی چرخـه‌ای دارد، زیـرا در این بخش نویسنده یافته‌های اصلی تحقیقات قبلی را گزارش می‌کند، آن‌ها را تفسیر می‌کند، آن‌ها را به فعالیت آموزشی ربط می‌دهد و تحقیقات بیشتر را بر اساس آن‌چه ضروری است پیشنهاد مـی‌کنـد. نکتـه آخـر اینکـه، بـر خلاف نتیجه‌گیری در مقالات پژوهشی، نتیجه‌گیری در مقالات مروری نظری حاوی گام «پیشنهاد» به عنوان یـک ویژگی اصلی ساختار بلاغی آن‌ها است. در پایان، پیامدهای این یافته‌ها برای نظریه‌پردازی و آموزش این سـبک از مقاله بحث می‌شود.

کلیدواژه‌ها: نتیجه‌گیری، مقالات مروری نظری انگلیسی، گام، زیرگام، هدف تعاملی

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کدگردانی‌هایی که به کار می‌آیند: کارکردهای متصور کدگردانی اساتید دانشگاه در کلاس‌های محتوایی و زبانی دوره کارشناسی رشته انگلیسی در مقابل کلاس‌های زبان

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چکیده

نظرات متناقضی در مورد جایگاه زبان اول و کدگردانی (به عنوان یک پدیده رایج) در کلاس‌های زبان وجـود دارد. علیرغم انبوهی از مطالعات در زمینه کدگردانی در کلاس، در زمینه مقایسه شیوه‌های زبان‌گردانـی اسـاتید دانشگاه در محیط‌های مختلف به ویژه در کلاس‌های کارشناسی رشته آموزش زبان در ایران پژوهش‌هـای انـدکی وجود دارد. هدف از ایـن مطالعـه بررسـی و مقایسـه عملکردهـای واقعـی و دلایـل و کارکردهـای کـدگردانی در کلاس‌های مهارت‌های زبانی و کلاس‌های موضوعی در سطح دانشگاه بـود. بـرای ایـن کـار، دو گـروه از مدرسان درس‌های محتوای اصلی و درس‌های زبان انگلیسی مورد مشاهده قرار گرفته و کـلاس‌هـای آنها ضـبط شـد، و از طریق روش یادآوری تحریک شده مصاحبه شدند. کارکردهای پیشنهادی آنهـا بـه صـورت کیفـی مـورد تجزیـه و تحلیل قرار گرفت و در سه کارکرد گسترده آموزشی (دسترسی به برنامه درسی، مدیریت کلاس و روابط بین فردی و عملکردهای فرعی آنها) دسته‌بندی و سپس شمارش و مقایـسه کمـی شـد. یافتـه‌هـا نـشان داد کـه کـدگردانی به‌عنوان یک استراتژی هدفمند تلقی می‌شود که بطور قابل توجهی در کلاس‌های محتوایی رواج بیشتری دارد. مـا در پایان به بحث در مورد پیامدهای نتایج برای مدرسان دانشگاه، معلمان زبان و سایر ذینفعـان در پرتـو عملکـرد هدفمند و کدگردانی موجه به عنوان یک استراتژی ارتباطی، آموزشی می‌پردازیم که می‌توانـد به معلمان در کاهش مشکلات شناختی و عاطفی دانش‌آموزان کمک کند و درک و یادگیری آنها را بهبود ببخشد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: کدگردانی در کلاس؛ کلاس‌های موضوعی؛ کـلاس‌هـای (مهـارت‌هـای) زبان؛ کارکردهـای متـصور؛ کارشناسی؛ مدرسان دانشگاه

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متنیت در مقاله‌های تفسیری فراگیران زبان انگلیسی: رویکردی اکتشافی

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چکیده

گرچه مفاهیم مختلف دستوری و درستی آن‌ها در مقاله‌های تفسیری فراگیران زبان انگلیسی به شکل گـستردهای بررسی شده‌اند، اما متنیت که از طریق منبع‌های زبانی مرتبط با انسجام ادراک می‌شود، تا اندازه‌ای ناشناخته بـاقی مانده‌است. به پیروی از مدل هالیدی و حسن (۱۹۷۶)، این پژوهش بر آن است تا فراوانی و کاربرد این منبع‌ها را با تحلیل نمونۀ تصادفیِ مقاله‌هایی که توسط دانـشجویان کارشناسـی آمـوزش زبـان انگلیسـی در دانـشگاه صـنعتی شاهرود نوشته شده‌اند، مورد بررسی قرار دهد. تحلیل‌ها نشان می‌دهـد کـه شـرکت‌کننـدگان از شـکل‌هـای رایـجِ انسجام واژگانی همچون تکرار و هم‌معنایی بیش از اندازه استفاده کرده‌اند ولی از گروه‌های انسجام دسـتوری ماننـد حذف و ارجاع‌های مقایسه‌ای به ندرت بهره گرفته‌اند. از این رو، می‌توان نتیجه گرفت که متنیت در مقاله‌های مورد تحلیل آن چنان که باید مورد توجه قرار نگرفته است. یافته‌های این پژوهش کاربردهای روشنی را بـرای طراحـان مواد درسی، معلم‌های زبان و زبان‌آموزانی که مشغول یادگیری نگارش زبان دوم هستند به همراه دارد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: متنیت، ابزارهای انسجامی، نوشتار دانشگاهی، تحلیل گفتمان

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تاثیر نوع گروه و نوع مداخله در ارزیابی پویای گروهی بر بهبود درک شنیداری فراگیران زبان انگلیسی همگن و ناهمگن ایرانی

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مهناز سعیدی³

چکیده

ارزیابی پویا که مبتنی بر مفهوم حوزه تقریبی رشد ویگوتسکی است، یکپارچگی ارزیابی و آموزش از طریق مداخله را در مرکز توجه خود دارد. ارزیابی پویا یا به صورت فردی و یا به صورت جمعی اجرا می‌شود. در ارزیابی پویا-گروهی که توسط پوهنر (۲۰۰۹) معرفی شد، زبان‌آموزان به شکل همزمان در معرض مداخله قرار می‌گیرند. مسأله‌ای که به طور گسترده در ارزیابی گروهی نادیده گرفته شده، همگنی و ناهمگنی فراگیران زبان انگلیسی در حینِ مداخله است. این پژوهش، کوشید تا تأثیر ارزیابی پویا-گروهی بر توانایی درک شنیداری فراگیران زبان انگلیسی همگن و ناهمگن را مورد بررسی قرار دهد. همچنین این پژوهش بر آن است تا دریابد آیا دو نوع مداخلۀ کارشناس-تازه‌کار و همتا-به-همتا در ارزیابی پویا-گروهی می‌تواند تأثیر متفاوتی بر کنترل درک شنیداری فراگیران زبان انگلیسی همگن و ناهمگن داشته باشد. به همین منظور، ۸۰ فراگیر زبان انگلیسی سطح متوسط به عنوان شرکت‌کننده انتخاب شدند. آن‌ها، بر مبنای مهارت زبانی‌شان در دو گروه ۴۰ نفری زبان‌آموزان همگن و ناهمگن قرار گرفتند. سپس، هر گروه به دو گروه آزمایش تقسیم شدند. شرکت‌کننده‌ها در همۀ گروه‌ها، در سه جلسه شنیداری شرکت کردند. برای مداخله، به شرکت‌کننده‌ها از طریق انواع مداخلۀ کارشناس- تازه‌کار و همتا-به-همتا کمک شد. برای یافتن تأثیر اصلی و تعاملی نوع گروه و مداخله در ارزیابی پویای گروهی، نمره‌های پس‌آزمون از طریق تحلیل واریانس دوطرفه مورد تجزیه و تحلیل قرار گرفتند. نتایج نشان داد که هم نوع گروه و هم نوع مداخله، تأثیر اصلی و تعاملی بر درک شنیداری زبان‌آموزان دارند. همچنین، از یک آزمون تعقیبی برای مقایسه تفاوت میانگین بین گروه‌ها، هم بهره گرفته شد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: ارزیابی پویا-گروهی، همگن، ناهمگن، نوع مداخله، حوزه تقریبی رشد

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تأثیر تغییر بار تکلیف روایی بر تمرکز توجه فراگیران زبان انگلیسی

مسعود سعیدی ۱

چکیده

پژوهش حاضر به بررسی تأثیر تغییر درخواست‌های تکلیف بر آن‌چه فراگیران زبان انگلیسی دقیقاً در حـین تولیـد گفتار بر آن متمرکز می‌شوند، می‌پردازد. به این منظور، شرایط انجام تکلیف با درجات پیچیدگی متفاوت همراه بـا متغیرهای ساختار و نزدیکی زمانی-مکانی (±این‌جا/اکنون) از جنبۀ کاربردی تعریف شدند. پژوهش مشتمل بر ۶۰ فراگیر زبان انگلیسی ایرانی بود که از آن‌ها درخواست شد تا یک تکلیف روایی را تحت چهار حالت انجام دهنـد: الف) روایت یک داستان ساختارنیافته تصویر-بنیاد با استفاده از زمان حـال بـا پشـتیبانی بـافتی؛ ب) اجـرای یـک داستان تصویری ساختاریافته در زمان حال با پشتیبانی بافتی؛ ج) روایت یـک داسـتان تـصویری سـاختاریافته در زمان گذشته بدون پشتیبانی بافتی؛ د) روایت یک داستان تصویری ساختاریافته در زمان گذشته بـدون پشـتیبانی بافتی. شرکت‌کنندگان پس از انجام تکلیفشان، در یک دوره مصاحبه‌های مرورنگر شرکت کردند کـه علـل نـاروانی خود را به وسیلۀ مکث‌هایی که نشان داده بودند، بیان کردند. یافته‌ها بـه تـأثیرات افتراقـی پیچیـدگی تکلیـف بـر تخصیص توجه زبان‌آموزان اشاره کرد. به ویژه، نتایج نشان داد که اجرای روایت سـاختارنیافته دشـوارتر منجـر بـه مکث‌های بیشترِ ناشی از توجه به مفهوم‌سازی می‌شود. افزون بـر ایـن، اسـتفاده از زمـان گذشـته بـرای بـازگویی داستان‌ها بدون نگاه کردن به تصویرها منجر به مکث‌های بیشتری به سبب توجه به ساختار می‌شد. از همه مهم‌تر، مشخص شد که بازگویی یک روایت ساختاریافته در زمان گذشته بدون پشتیبانی بـافتی، بـه شـکل قابـل تـوجهی تمرکز بر ساختار را افزایش می‌دهد، که این نتیجه به طور معناداری در شمار بیشتری از مکثِ ناشی از تمرکز بـر رمزگذاری واجی، نحوی و واژگانی مشهود است. کاربردهای پیش‌آمـدهای مـرتبط بـا موضـوعات نظـری و عملـی مربوطه مورد بحث قرار گرفت.

کلیدواژه‌ها: تکلیف، توجه، فرم، نزدیکی زمانی-مکانی، ساختار

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فهرست مطالب