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Dr. Paul Robertson

Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh



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Foreword

Welcome to the special and sixth edition of the year 2012. In this special edition, we have included articles from EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies. The bi-monthly Iranian EFL Journal has attracted many readers not only from the Middle East but also from different parts of the world and in this way; the number of our reviewers has also increased. More than eighty reviewers are cooperating with the journal and evaluate the articles. The journal has had strong growth over the last few years with a monthly readership now exceeding 2500 readers. For a journal examining the topics of EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies, the growth and readership has been pleasing. Statistically, readers are coming from almost 80 countries. In this issue we present thirty five articles for your reading. In the first article, [Seyed Hossein Abdollahi and Abdorreza Tahriri](#) present the relationship between learning styles and vocabulary recall of EFL learners. In the second article of the issue, text structure awareness and comprehension in EFL & ESL reading classes is done by [Azam Namjoo and Amir Marzban](#). In the third article of the issue, [Shiva Sadighi](#) presents an account of English lexical collocations errors through L1 transfer. In the next article, the impact of educational games on vocabulary and grammar learning of elementary Iranian EFL learners is studied by [Najmeh Mottaghi Pisheh and Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri](#). In the fifth article of the issue, [Arman Toni and Mansoor Fahim](#) Present a study on the constructive effects of critical thinking on EFL learners' grammatical accuracy. The next article which is about grammaticalization, studying (ra) object marker in Persian is presented by [Ahmad Farahmand and Asghar Hatami](#). In the seventh article of the issue [Masoud Mahmoodzadeh](#) presents a critical inquiry into the current state of neurolinguistic research neglect in second language pedagogy. In the eight article of the issue evaluating the effectiveness of various types of error feedback on students L2 writing quality is done by [Mohammad Khatib and Housman Bijani](#). In the next article, investigating teacher vs. student-centered ELT classes in private institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan is done by [Hafez Shatery, Maryam Azargoon and Elaheh Zaferanieh](#). In the tenth article of the issue [Sara Badakhshan](#) presents the relationship between emotional intelligence and listening comprehension of Iranian



intermediate EFL learners. In the next article of the issue, the impact of the contexts on language learning strategy use and on academic achievement in EFL settings is studied by [Azizollah Viyani](#), [Zarina Mustafa](#), [Seyyed Hossein Kashef](#) and [Ayoob Damavand](#). In the twelfth article of the issue, consciousness-raising and noticing: a study of EFL learners' grammar test performance is presented by [Mehri Jalali](#). In the next article, [Soroor Ashtarian](#) presents patterns of ICT use by Iranian EFL teachers at home/school. In the fourteenth article of the issue, a survey on the impact of L1 grammar negative transfer on L2 writing skill in Iranian EFL students in Rudsar city is done by [Asghar Bastami Bandpay](#). In the fifteenth article of the issue, [Fatemeh Ebrahimi-Bazzaz](#), [Arshad Abd Samad](#), [Ismi Arif bin Ismail](#) and [Nooreen Noordin](#) present measuring collocational competence of Iranian learners by using C-Test. In the next article, the impact of trilingualism on spatial reasoning is studied by [Saeed Khojaste Nam](#), [Khalil Tazik](#) and [Hossein Baniasad](#). In the seventeenth article of the issue, [Mehdi Sarkhosh](#), [Aliakbar Khomeijani Farahani](#) and [Maryam Soleimani](#) have studied different types of corrective feedback and the improvement of the accuracy in the use of English past simple tense. The next article which is about the effect of cooperative student-generated questions on their achievements is studied by [Mohsen Nazari](#). In the next article of the issue [Sedigheh Skourdi](#), [Ayoob Damavand](#), [Azizollah Viyani](#) and [Seyyed Hossein Kashef](#) present a study on the relationship between linguistic intelligence and vocabulary knowledge among Iranian EFL learners. In the twentieth article of the issue, a contrastive analysis of exam papers and term projects considering the differences of the two contexts is done by [Reza Dehghan Harati](#), [Ahmadreza Ebrahimi](#) and [Sohrab Assa](#). In the next article, the impact of task complexity and reading proficiency level on learners' pedagogic task performance is done by [Seyyed Mohammad Alavi](#) and [Reza Bagheri Nevisi](#). In the next article of the issue [Hojat Jodai](#) presents error analysis in a new context: a comparative study of errors in general linguistics and CALL. In the twenty third article of the issue, a pioneer in Off-Off Broadway drama is presented by [Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh](#). In the next article, [Maryam Soltan Beyad](#) and [Farshid Nowrouzi Roshnavand](#) present Africanism in Langston Hughes' *The Weary Blues* a case of double consciousness. In the next article of the issue Conrad's darkness: a cultural study is presented by



Moslem Zolfagharkhani. In the next article of the issue, Nasrin Nezamdoost and Fazel Asadi Amjad present traces of hyperreality in Tom Stoppard's *The Real Thing*. In the next article, different kinds of conflict in the tales of mystic poems of Attar Neyshaburi's *The Conference of the Birds* based on Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) is presented by Somayeh Khosravi Khorashad, Azadeh Abbasikangevari, Farhad Nazerzade Kermani. In the twenty eighth article of the issue, Najmeh Nouri has studied signifying narratives: revolting voices in Alice Walker's and Maya Angelou's narratives. The next article which has the title of is reading mistreated in a translation class? is presented by Behzad Ghonsooly, Maryam Golkar Hamze'ee, Mohammad Reza Hashemi, Samira Abaszadeh and Mehdi Mirlohi. In the next article of the issue Hoda Davtalab, Hossein Shams Hosseini and Mandana Yousefi present contrastive rhetoric in translation: a case study of metadiscourse in Falk's *Linguistics and Language* and its translations into Persian. In the thirty first article of the issue, teaching translation a suggested model to remedy the difficulties is studied by Mansoureh Sajjadi. In the next article, domesticating and foreignizing literary works and their relations to expertise in translation is done by Reza Yalsharzeh and Akbar Ansari. In the next article of the issue Zohre Hadi and Rahele Eyvallah presents translation criticism on Google translation of proper names in tourism texts. In the next article of the issue, a contrastive analysis of personification and hyperbole in translations of *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* is done by Naeema Farahbakhsh and Ali Asghar Rostami Abusaeidi. In the last article of the issue, the study of problems and strategies used in Persian-English public signs translation is presented by Rahele Eyvallah and Goodarz Alibakhshi.

We hope you enjoy this edition and look forward to your readership



Title

The Relationship between Learning Styles and Vocabulary Recall of EFL Learners

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Biodata

Seyed Hossein Abdollahi received his M.A. in TEFL from Payame Noor University of Rasht. The present paper is based on his M.A. thesis. He is currently an English instructor at English language institutes in Rasht, Iran.

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Abstract

The present study was an investigation of the relationship between visual/auditory learning styles and vocabulary recall of EFL learners with a consideration of gender as a moderator variable; in other words, the present study intended to determine which group of language learners could recall vocabulary items more successfully. The participants of the study were 40 Iranian EFL learners studying in two language institutes at elementary level (14 or 35% males and 26 or 65% females). Out of a total of 48 participants who completed the learning style questionnaire, two groups of 20 Iranian EFL learners were selected in order to investigate the relationship between their learning styles (visual or auditory) and vocabulary recall. Four different

instruments were used to collect the data: 1) Oxford placement test (2007) to determine EFL learners' proficiency level, 2) learning style questionnaire (Chislet & Chapman, 2005) to determine the participants' learning styles, 3) two sets of 10 vocabulary items (visual & auditory words) to teach to the participating EFL learners, and 4) two tests of vocabulary recall (visual & auditory) to test the participants' recall ability. The finding of t-test revealed that there was a significant difference between visual and auditory scores of the participants, and visual learning style was found to be more influential and successful in EFL vocabulary recall. In addition, correlational analyses indicated that the learning styles of the participants were not related to their gender.

Keywords: Learning style, Vocabulary recall, EFL

1. Introduction

As a plethora of affective, cognitive, and social factors influence it, foreign language learning is viewed as a complicated and multifaceted process. One of these significant factors is learning style preferences. According to Reid (1995), *learning styles* are "natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (cited in Tuan & Long, 2010, p. 43). Brown (2000) also defined learning styles as the manner in which individuals perceive and process information in learning situations. He argued that learning style preference is one aspect of learning style which refers to the choice of one learning situation or condition over another. Celcia-Murcia (2001) defined learning styles as the general approaches that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject.

There are different learning styles such as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, etc.; however, visual and auditory learning styles are the most common types among language learners. According to Brown (2000), visual learners prefer reading and studying charts, drawings, and graphic information, while auditory learners prefer listening to lectures and audiotapes. These two are the learning styles under investigation in the present study. Visual learners are mostly involved in teachers' body language and facial expression, and they prefer pictures and visual aids for learning something; on the contrary, auditory learners learn best through lectures, discussions, and listening to the teacher's speech.

Vocabulary is one of the most important components in learning a language because of its great influence on successful communication. Most language learners complain about

unfamiliar words when reading a text for the first time. Therefore, miscommunication might be partly traced to lack of lexical knowledge. For example, Fu (2009) stated that vocabulary difficulties could lead to comprehension problems. Since language learning style for vocabulary recall is one of the most important factors determining how the learners recall a foreign language vocabulary item better, it can help language teachers choose more effective type of instruction consistent with learners' particular learning style preferences.

The present study is an investigation of the relationship between visual/auditory learning styles and vocabulary recall of male and female EFL learners.

2. Review of the Related Literature

The review is organized in three major sections: 1) Research on learning styles, 2) Research on vocabulary recall, and 3) Research on the relationship between learning styles and vocabulary recall.

2.1 Research on Learning Styles

Oxford (2003) overviewed language learning styles as key variables affecting language learning. She defined *language learning styles* as the general approaches to learning a language which can influence the students' ability to learn in a particular instructional framework. She also stated that "learning styles are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent). Learning styles generally operate on a continuum or on a multiple, interesting continua" (p. 3). For example, a person might be equally visual and auditory, but with lesser kinesthetic and tactile involvement. She argued that visual students like to read and obtain from visual stimulations, while auditory students enjoy and profit from lecturers' conversations and oral directions. She also recommended that L2 teachers would do better to employ a broad instructional approach based on different stylistic preferences to meet the needs of all students in the class.

Aqel and Mahmoud (2006) conducted a study in which they sought to identify the learning styles of An-Najah National University students in their learning of English as a foreign language. They also investigated the effects of variables such as gender, major, average, place of living, computer use, and academic level on choosing the learning styles. Their study resulted in no significant differences in the learning styles of different gender and users or nonusers of computer. The findings also showed the advantage of using audio-visual aids in English learning. They finally recommended a flexible, varied, encouraging, safe, and enjoyable classroom environment based on varying learning styles although this may lead to

no single teaching method or educational material, which works well for all students in the classroom.

In a study, Putintseva (2006) argued about the importance of learning styles in EFL classrooms and stated that teachers should be aware of individual learning styles and learner diversity. She stated, based on Gardner's (1985) concept of multiple intelligence, there are different types of learning styles. These learning styles are: 1) *visual learners* who prefer to see teacher's body language and facial expression to understand a lesson, and they think in pictures and learn best from visual aids; 2) *auditory learners* who learn best through lectures, discussions, and listening to what others say, and they often benefit from reading aloud and using a tape recorder; 3) *tactile/kinesthetic learners* who learn best by actively exploring the physical world, and they find it hard to sit still for long periods. It was concluded that a variety of approaches to learning styles should be taken into consideration to select the most appropriate one.

Riazi and Mansoorian (2008) investigated the preferred learning styles of Iranian male and female EFL students at some institutes in different cities. They collected their data by using the translated version of Reid's Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (1987). Findings of their study indicated that the auditory learning style, the visual learning style, the tactile learning style, and the kinesthetic learning style were the major styles among language learners. Their study also showed more interest toward tactile and kinesthetic learning styles among males rather than females. They recommended that students should be encouraged to work in groups and should be introduced to different learning styles to ease their way of learning a foreign language. In addition, teachers should supply and use various materials including audio and video in different situations, and they should encourage the students to discover their own learning preferences to facilitate their learning.

Bidabadi and Yamat (2010) investigated learning style preferences among Iranian EFL freshman university students and their implications on the teaching and learning. The results of their study revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female students' learning style preferences. They chose and modified four types of learning styles among Iranian EFL students including: 1) *Communicative learners* who liked to learn through watching or listening to native speakers and conversations; 2) *Concrete learners* who liked to learn through games, films, talking in pairs, and using English outside of the classroom; 3) *Auditory-oriented learners* who preferred teacher's explanations, reading textbooks, and studying grammar; 4) *Analytical learners* who liked studying grammatical rules, studying by themselves, and solving the problems. Findings of this study showed that

the majority of Iranian EFL freshman university students considered themselves as communicative learners. The researchers concluded that the teaching style match the students' learning style and the materials should suit their learning preferences to make learning easier for them.

2.2 Research on L2 Vocabulary Recall

Nation (1995) argued that vocabulary instruction is an essential part of a language course; therefore, vocabulary growth in language acquisition deserves to be planned for, controlled, and monitored. He suggested that guessing meaning from context, learning vocabulary in context, and studying word parts and mnemonic devices are the most beneficial types of vocabulary instruction that develop the language learners' skill and raise their consciousness in language learning.

Dobinson (2006) investigated the reasons why learners recall certain items of vocabulary from language lessons. The learners were asked to report what vocabulary they could recall immediately after a lesson and what they thought they had recalled. He also studied the connections between classroom interaction and vocabulary recall. The findings of this study revealed that although learners can learn what teachers teach, opportunities for learning vocabulary can present themselves at any time regardless of the teacher's agenda and no amount of planning can ensure that all learners recall the same new words. Also, the role of classroom interaction in aiding vocabulary recall was acknowledged by the learners in this study. It was concluded that input and interaction were just as important for initial vocabulary learning, and the learners could recall certain words when they were corroborated by the video footage.

Thi-Mai (2007) conducted a study in which she investigated the impact of two meaningful activities, namely, guessing new words through context and using dictionary through students' learning and retention of English vocabulary. She studied the connection between sound and spelling, and meaningful practice with students to make contribution to students' retention of vocabulary. She also argued that vocabulary is an important language element that links four language skills together and makes communication possible; therefore, vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition and of interest in second language research. It was concluded that ignoring the connection between sound and spelling resulted in ineffective recall of the words, and having meaningful practices such as sentence completion and matching exercises could work as pre-communicative preparation to put new words in the students' long-term memory. In addition, recalling the words in provided sentences contributed to students' retention.

2.3 Research on the Relationship between Learning Styles and Vocabulary Recall

Kassaian (2007) investigated the effects of two types of learning styles (auditory and visual) on the retention of unfamiliar words. The retention of vocabulary items was measured by the tests of recall and recognition immediately after each training session, and after one week. The results indicated that the subjects with visual learning style retained vocabulary items better than the subjects with auditory learning style. In addition, there was no significant difference between retention of the items in recognition and recall tests; and, memory loss was greater for visually learned items compared to aurally learned items after one week. She concluded that if there were harmony between the students' learning styles and the instructional methodology used in the classroom, then the students would significantly perform better.

In a study by Fu (2009), the state of English vocabulary learning styles and teaching styles at a primary school in China was investigated. She argued that many students feel frustrated with English vocabulary learning, and vocabulary teaching is an indispensable part of the English curriculum. She also stated that all learners have their individual learning styles, and they learn differently because of their biological and psychological differences. The results showed that most students were visual learners; however, auditory input played a dominant role in traditional teaching. The findings revealed a mismatch between the learning and teaching styles in this study because the teachers favored auditory style, while the learners were mostly visual. She finally concluded that individual differences of students need to be considered and the instructional system should correspond to the varying abilities of the student to improve learning outcomes.

Zarei and Khazaie (2011) conducted a study in which they investigated how Iranian EFL learners learn L2 vocabulary through multimodal representations. The learners were evaluated on their recognition and recall of vocabulary items by using visual and verbal short-term memory test. The results indicated that the groups treated with vocabulary items with pictorial or written annotations performed significantly better on the tests. The findings also revealed that the learners with their special learning styles were most likely to enjoy the related represented modality, i.e. verbal learners and visual learners showed a better performance through the verbal modality and visual modality respectively.

This study aimed at investigating the role of visual and auditory learning styles in EFL vocabulary recall. As such, there are three major research questions to be answered in this study:

1. Is there any relationship between different learning styles (visual & auditory) and EFL learners' vocabulary recall?
2. What are the EFL learners' preferred learning styles?
3. Is there any relationship between EFL learners' gender and their learning styles (visual & auditory)?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 40 Iranian EFL learners studying in two language institutes at elementary level (14 or 35% males and 26 or 65% females). They were also at the age range of 11-16 years with the mean age of 13.5. Out of a total of 48 participants who completed the learning style questionnaire, two groups of 20 Iranian EFL learners were selected to investigate the relationship between their learning styles (visual or auditory) and vocabulary recall. These two groups were selected based on the proficiency level controlled in the present study (elementary level), and they participated in all phases of the study.

3.2 Instruments

Four different instruments were used in the present study. Oxford Placement Test (2007) was administered as the pre-test to determine the proficiency level of participants. As it was noted, elementary EFL learners were under investigation in the present study; therefore, this placement test would ensure the right level to study. The test consists of 50 grammar and vocabulary multiple choice questions with interpretation sheet in order to determine EFL learners' proficiency level. The results showed that 45 EFL learners out of 62 who took the test were at the elementary level.

In order to check the participants' learning styles, an adapted and translated version of VAK learning style questionnaire (Chislet & Chapman, 2005; cited in Kassaian, 2007) was used. Regarding its construct validity, correlation of the VAK questionnaire with the Index of Learning Styles Questionnaire (Soloman & Felder, 2008) obtained $r = .52$, $p = .006$, $n = 44$; and with the Learning Style Survey (Honey & Mumford, 2000), $r = .54$, $p = .003$, $n = 63$. The participants completed 30 statements in this survey, and according to their answers the participants were marked as visual or auditory language learners. The kinesthetic section of the VAK questionnaire was omitted because it was irrelevant to the present study as the kinesthetic ability was not considered as a variable. The questionnaire was translated into Persian by the present researcher. The validity of translation was ensured through back-

translation procedure by two experienced English teachers, and they verified the adapted and translated version of VAK questionnaire as being valid. In addition, its reliability was ensured through test-retest by an $r = 0.79$ ($p < .001$).

A list of 20 vocabulary items was taught to the participants of both groups (visual and auditory learners) in the classroom. The vocabulary items which were divided into two groups of 10 vocabulary items (visual & auditory words) were taught to the students in two different situations: *visual style* and *aural style*. These words were selected from English concrete vocabulary items to investigate which teaching situation can be more successful in recalling the words later. The words were randomly selected from among the words of the Internet Picture Dictionary (Retrieved from <http://www.pdictionary.com>).

Two tests of recall were used immediately after two different teaching situations to examine the number of words that students could remember with their meanings; in other words, a visual recall test was used after visual instruction, and an aural recall test was used after aural instruction. The tests assigned a score to visual and auditory learners for recalling words in visual and aural teaching styles; therefore, each group would have two sets of scores for two different teaching situations. The tests were reviewed by two experienced university instructors to make sure they are valid. The tests also had internal reliability, achieving an alpha coefficient of .75 with all items producing significant scale correlations. The internal consistency of the tests was estimated by Cronbach's alpha coefficient at $r = .75$, $p = .001$, $n = 40$. In addition, the reliability of these tests was ensured through test-retest by an $r = .81$ ($p < .001$).

3.3 Procedure

First, the learning styles questionnaire was distributed among participating EFL learners at their classroom hour during the summer term of the year 2011. Then, they were asked to select the choice which best fitted their individual characteristics in the survey. After determining their learning style preferences, the language learners were asked to take Oxford placement test which was administered in order to identify their proficiency level. After determining the participants' learning style and ensuring their proficiency level, the instructional phase of the study began. In the instructional phase, the vocabulary items and their meanings were presented to the participants in two different situations. All participants were exposed to 10 words with their meanings visually and to 10 words with their meanings orally. For visual words, each of them with their picture and meaning were shown to EFL learners on the board, while auditory words and their meaning were read to EFL learners three times. Finally, the participants were tested immediately after each type of instruction to

determine the number of words they could recall with their meanings. After visual instruction, a paper test with 10 pictures was given to the students in which they were asked to write down the correct words and their associated meanings. After oral instruction, all students were asked about 10 vocabulary items and their meanings orally; in other words, the examiner would read the words, and the students were required to recall their meanings.

To analyze the data, descriptive statistics was run to specify the dominant learning styles (visual or auditory) of male and female participants. Through running t-test, the role of different types of instruction was investigated; meanwhile, the possible differences between the performance of two groups in visual and aural instruction were compared through t-test to find out which learning style is more dominant and which group is more successful in EFL vocabulary recall. Furthermore, the relationship between gender and learning styles was calculated through Phi and Cramer's V statistical analysis; a level of .01 was used as the criterion of significance.

4. Results

4.1 Learning Styles of all the Participants

The results of learning style questionnaire indicated that males were mostly visual language learners, while females were mostly auditory; however, this difference was not statistically significant. Table 1 summarizes the learning style of all male and female participants who completed the learning style questionnaire.

Table 1. Learning Styles of All the Participants

Gender	Learning Style		Total
	Visual	Auditory	
Male	12	6	18
Female	14	16	30
Total	26	22	48

Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the two sets of score for all the participants in the study.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics

	Visual score	Auditory score
Valid	40	40
Mean	7.80	4.97
Mode	10	6
Std. Deviation	2.174	2.577

4.2 The Relationship between Learning Styles and Vocabulary Recall

To investigate the relationship between EFL learners' learning styles and their vocabulary recall, t-test was run. Table 3 presents the results of t-test for all the participants of the study.

Table 3. Overall T-test

Pair 1	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	99% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
V score - A score	2.825	2.845	.45	1.915	3.735	6.279	39	.000

The total correlation between visual and auditory scores for all the participants of the study was found to be .292. This correlation coefficient is not significant at the level of .01. It shows that visual and auditory scores of all the participants in the study are not correlated. But, the t-test compared the means of the two sets of score for them, and observed T was found to be 6.279. This difference between visual and auditory scores is significant at the level of .01. It shows that visual learning style is more influential and successful in EFL vocabulary recall.

4.3. Learning Styles across Genders

To determine the degree of relationship between the participants' gender and their learning styles, Phi and Cramer's V were used. Tables 4 and 5 summarize the statistical analyses about the relationship between gender and different learning styles.

Table 4. Fisher's Exact Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.758	1	.185		
Continuity Correction	.989	1	.320		
Likelihood Ratio	1.777	1	.183		
Fisher's Exact Test				.320	.160
N of Valid Cases	40				

Table 5. Symmetric Measures

Nominal by Nominal	Value	Approx. Sig.
Phi	.210	.185
Cramer's V	.210	.185
N of Valid Cases	40	

The analyses revealed that the obtained symmetric measures were not significant at the level of .01. It can be concluded that the learning styles of participants are not related to their gender. This study suggests that there is no significant relationship between EFL learners' gender and their type of learning style.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings revealed that 66% of males preferred visual learning style and 34% preferred auditory learning style. Also, 46% of females preferred visual learning style and 54% preferred auditory learning style. In this study, males mostly preferred visual learning style and females mostly preferred auditory learning style.

With respect to the relationship between different learning styles and EFL learners' vocabulary recall, this study showed better vocabulary recall in visual learning style than auditory learning style. Therefore, it can be concluded that visual learning style is more influential and successful in EFL vocabulary recall. This finding is in line with the findings of the studies carried out by Kassaian (2007) and Zarei and Kazaie (2011). Their studies showed better results in favor of visual learning style for EFL vocabulary recall. This study also showed better vocabulary recall in visual learning style than auditory learning style. Therefore, there is a strong relationship between learning styles and EFL vocabulary recall based on the findings of the present study.

In addition, correlational analysis revealed that the obtained symmetric measures were not significant at the level of .01. It can be concluded that gender does not play a significant role in determining the learning styles of EFL learners. Therefore, the findings indicated that there was no difference between male and female EFL learners in terms of their learning style preferences. This finding is in line with the findings of the studies conducted by Aqel and Mahmoud (2006), and Bidabadi and Yamat (2010) who found no significant difference between learning styles of males and females.

In this quasi-experimental research, the generalization of the findings is restricted by some limitations. For future research, the suggestion is to include an equal number of males and females and to consider long-time retention as well.

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APPENDIX A

VAK Learning Styles Self-Assessment Questionnaire

Circle or tick the answer that most represents how you generally behave.

1. When I operate new equipment I generally:
 - a) read the instructions first
 - b) listen to an explanation from someone who has used it before
 - c) go ahead and have a go, I can figure it out as I use it
2. When I need directions for travelling I usually:
 - a) look at a map
 - b) ask for spoken directions
 - c) follow my nose and maybe use a compass
3. When I cook a new dish, I like to:
 - a) follow a written recipe
 - b) call a friend for an explanation
 - c) follow my instincts, testing as I cook
4. If I am teaching someone something new, I tend to:
 - a) write instructions down for them
 - b) give them a verbal explanation
 - c) demonstrate first and then let them have a go
5. I tend to say:
 - a) watch how I do it
 - b) listen to me explain
 - c) you have a go
6. During my free time I most enjoy:
 - a) going to museums and galleries
 - b) listening to music and talking to my friends
 - c) playing sport or doing DIY
7. When I go shopping for clothes, I tend to:
 - a) imagine what they would look like on
 - b) discuss them with the shop staff
 - c) try them on and test them out
8. When I am choosing a holiday I usually:
 - a) read lots of brochures
 - b) listen to recommendations from friends
 - c) imagine what it would be like to be there
9. If I was buying a new car, I would:
 - a) read reviews in newspapers and magazines
 - b) discuss what I need with my friends
 - c) test-drive lots of different types
10. When I am learning a new skill, I am most comfortable:
 - a) watching what the teacher is doing
 - b) talking through with the teacher exactly what I'm supposed to do
 - c) giving it a try myself and work it out as I go
11. If I am choosing food off a menu, I tend to:
 - a) imagine what the food will look like
 - b) talk through the options in my head or with my partner
 - c) imagine what the food will taste like
12. When I listen to a band, I can't help:
 - a) watching the band members and other people in the audience
 - b) listening to the lyrics and the beats
 - c) moving in time with the music
13. When I concentrate, I most often:
 - a) focus on the words or the pictures in front of me
 - b) discuss the problem and the possible solutions in my head

- c) move around a lot, fiddle with pens and pencils and touch things
- 14. I choose household furnishings because I like:
 - a) their colours and how they look
 - b) the descriptions the sales-people give me
 - c) their textures and what it feels like to touch them
- 15. My first memory is of:
 - a) looking at something
 - b) being spoken to
 - c) doing something
- 16. When I am anxious, I:
 - a) visualise the worst-case scenarios
 - b) talk over in my head what worries me most
 - c) can't sit still, fiddle and move around constantly
- 17. I feel especially connected to other people because of:
 - a) how they look
 - b) what they say to me
 - c) how they make me feel
- 18. When I have to revise for an exam, I generally:
 - a) write lots of revision notes and diagrams
 - b) talk over my notes, alone or with other people
 - c) imagine making the movement or creating the formula
- 19. If I am explaining to someone I tend to:
 - a) show them what I mean
 - b) explain to them in different ways until they understand
 - c) encourage them to try and talk them through my idea as they do it
- 20. I really love:
 - a) watching films, photography, looking at art or people watching
 - b) listening to music, the radio or talking to friends
 - c) taking part in sporting activities, eating fine foods and wines or dancing
- 21. Most of my free time is spent:
 - a) watching television
 - b) talking to friends
 - c) doing physical activity or making things
- 22. When I first contact a new person, I usually:
 - a) arrange a face to face meeting
 - b) talk to them on the telephone
 - c) try to get together whilst doing something else, such as an activity or a meal
- 23. I first notice how people:
 - a) look and dress
 - b) sound and speak
 - c) stand and move
- 24. If I am angry, I tend to:
 - a) keep replaying in my mind what it is that has upset me
 - b) raise my voice and tell people how I feel
 - c) stamp about, slam doors and physically demonstrate my anger
- 25. I find it easiest to remember:
 - a) faces
 - b) names
 - c) things I have done
- 26. I think that you can tell if someone is lying if:
 - a) they avoid looking at you
 - b) their voices changes
 - c) they give me funny vibes
- 27. When I meet an old friend:
 - a) I say "it's great to see you!"
 - b) I say "it's great to hear from you!"
 - c) I give them a hug or a handshake
- 28. I remember things best by:
 - a) writing notes or keeping printed details
 - b) saying them aloud or repeating words and key points in my head

- c) doing and practising the activity or imagining it being done
29. If I have to complain about faulty goods, I am most comfortable:
- a) writing a letter
- b) complaining over the phone
- c) taking the item back to the store or posting it to head office
30. I tend to say:
- a) I see what you mean
- b) I hear what you are saying
- c) I know how you feel

Now add up how many A's, B's and C's you selected.

C's =

B's =

A's =

If you chose mostly A's you have a **VISUAL** learning style.

If you chose mostly B's you have an **AUDITORY** learning style.

If you chose mostly C's you have a **KINAESTHETIC** learning style.

V. Chislett & A. Chapman (2005)

APPENDIX B

پرسشنامه: چیسلت و چپمن، 2005

جنسیت: پسر دختر سن: ترم:

- در هر یک از سوالهای زیر گزینه مورد نظر را بر اساس نظر شخصی خودتان انتخاب کنید.
- 1) هنگام کار با وسایل جدید معمولاً: الف- ابتدا دستورالعمل آنها را می خوانم. ب- به توضیحات فردی که قبلاً از آنها استفاده کرده گوش می کنم.
 - 2) هرگاه در سفر نیاز به راهنمایی داشته معمولاً: الف- به نقشه نگاه می کنم. ب- از دیگران می پرسم.
 - 3) وقتی می خواهم غذای جدیدی بپزم بیشتر اوقات: الف- از کتاب آشپزی استفاده می کنم. ب- از دوستم کمک می خواهم.
 - 4) وقتی می خواهم به کسی چیز جدیدی یاد بدهم، سعی می کنم: الف- توضیحاتی برای او بنویسم. ب- یک توضیح شفاهی به او بدهم.
 - 5) بیشتر دوست دارم که بگویم: الف- نگاه کنید که چگونه آن را انجام می دهم. ب- به توضیحاتم گوش کنید.
 - 6) فعالیتهای مورد علاقه ام در اوقات فراغت عبارتند از: الف- رفتن به موزه ها و نمایشگاه ها. ب- گوش دادن به موسیقی و صحبت با دوستان.
 - 7) هنگامی که برای خرید لباس می روم: الف- خودم را با آن لباسها تصور کنم. ب- در مورد آنها با فروشنده صحبت کنم.
 - 8) برای رفتن به تعطیلات معمولاً: الف- تعداد زیادی آگهی تبلیغاتی می بینم. ب- به توصیه های دوستانم گوش می کنم.
 - 9) هنگام خرید ماشین جدید معمولاً: الف- تبلیغات روزنامه ها و مجلات را می خوانم. ب- در مورد نیازهایم با دوستانم مشورت می کنم.
 - 10) هنگام یادگیری مهارتی جدید، بیشتر راحتم که: الف- ببینم معلم چگونه آن را انجام می دهد. ب- از معلم بپرسم که چگونه باید آن را انجام دهم.
 - 11) زمان انتخاب غذا از روی منو، بیشتر اوقات: الف- مزه هر غذا را در ذهنم تصور می کنم. ب- انتخابها را مورد بررسی قرار می دهم یا از دوستم کمک می خواهم.
 - 12) وقتی به یک ارکستر گوش می کنم، نمی توانم: الف- همزمان اعضای ارکستر و مردم عادی را تماشا کنم. ب- همزمان به ترانه و آهنگ موسیقی گوش کنم.
 - 13) وقتی تمرکز می کنم، بیشتر اوقات: الف- به کلمات یا اشکال توجه می کنم. ب- مسایل و راه حل ها را مورد بررسی قرار می دهم.
 - 14) لوازم منزل را با توجه به عوامل زیر انتخاب می کنم: الف- رنگشان و اینکه چگونه به نظر می رسند. ب- توضیحاتی که فروشنده به من می دهد.
 - 15) اولین خاطره زندگی ام: الف- نگاه کردن به چیزها بود. ب- صحبت کردن با کسی بود.
 - 16) وقتی نگرانم، معمولاً: الف- بدترین حالت ممکن را تصور می کنم. ب- به این توجه می کنم که چه چیزی مرا بیشتر نگران می کند.
 - 17) احساس صمیمیت من با دیگران به خاطر: الف- تیپ و قیافه آنهاست. ب- طرز صحبتشان است.
 - 18) وقتی برای امتحانات آماده می شوم، معمولاً: الف- نکات مهم و نمودارها را مطالعه می کنم. ب- با دوستانم تبادل اطلاعات می کنم.
 - 19) هنگام توضیح چیزی به کسی: الف- نشان می دهم که منظورم چیست. ب- از راههای مختلفی توضیح می دهم تا بفهمد.





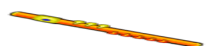





- 20) فعالیت های مورد علاقه من:
الف- تماشای فیلم، عکاسی، دیدن آثار هنری و تماشای مردم است.
ب- گوش دادن به موسیقی، رادیو و یا صحبت با دوستان است.
21) بیشتر اوقات فراغتم صرف:
الف- تماشای تلویزیون می شود.
ب- صحبت با دوستان می شود.
22) در اولین برخورد با کسی، معمولاً:
الف- ترتیب یک ملاقات حضوری را می دهم. ب- تلفنی با او صحبت می کنم.
23) اولین چیزی که درمورد دیگران به آن توجه می کنم:
الف- تیپ و لباسشان است.
ب- صدا و طرز صحبتشان است.
24) هنگام عصبانیت:
الف- در ذهنم مرور می کنم که چه چیزی مرا ناراحت کرده است.
ب- صدایم را بلند کنم تا به دیگران بفهمانم که چه حسی دارم.
25) برایم آسانتر است که به خاطر بیاورم:
الف- چهره ها را.
ب- نامها را.
26) فکرمی کنم بتوان گفت کسی دروغ می گوید اگر:
الف- به تو نگاه نکند.
ب- صدایش عوض شود.
27) وقتی یک دوست قدیمی را می بینم:
الف- می گویم: "بسیار از دیدنت خوشحالم." ب- می گویم: "بسیار از شنیدن صدایت خوشحالم."
28) من چیزها را بهتر به خاطر می آورم با:
الف- یادداشت کردن یا نگهداشتن نوشتاری جزییات.
ب- بلند گفتن آنها ویا تکرار کلمات و نکات کلیدی در ذهنم.
29) برای شکایت درباره رفتارهای غلط، بیشتر دوست دارم که:
الف- نامه ای بنویسم.
ب- تلفنی شکایت کنم.
30) بیشتر اوقات می گویم:
الف- منظورت را می فهمم.
ب- می شنوم چه می گویی.

موفق باشید

APPENDIX C

Visual Words

Look at the pictures and their names written above them. Try to learn these words with the help of their pictures.

Airplane  flying vehicle	Butterfly  insect with colorful wings
Carrot  orange plant	Dustpan  cleaning tool
Flute  musical wind instrument	Glove  hands' cover
Hammer  tool to beat	Knife  tool to cut
Medal  prize of winners	Submarine  ship under water

APPENDIX D

Visual Vocabulary Recall Test

Look at the pictures given and try to write their names and their meanings.

Name:.....  Meaning:.....	Name:.....  Meaning:	Name:.....  Meaning:.....
Name:.....  Meaning:.....	Name:  Meaning:.....	Name:.....  Meaning:
Name:.....  Meaning:	Name:.....  Meaning:	Name:  Meaning:
	Name:.....  Meaning:	

Good Luck

APPENDIX E
Auditory Words

Listen to the words and their meanings read by the teacher. Try to recall their meanings later.

Ant a small insect	Boat ship
Coat protective cover	Elephant a large animal with a long nose
Fork an eating Instrument	Garlic a plant used in cooking
Ladder a tool to climb	Pants Underwear
Rocket Missile	Saw a tool for cutting

APPENDIX F
Auditory Vocabulary Recall Test

Listen to the words read by the teacher and try to recall their meanings.

Ant <input type="checkbox"/>	Boat <input type="checkbox"/>
Coat <input type="checkbox"/>	Elephant <input type="checkbox"/>
Fork <input type="checkbox"/>	Garlic <input type="checkbox"/>
Ladder <input type="checkbox"/>	Pants <input type="checkbox"/>
Rocket <input type="checkbox"/>	Saw <input type="checkbox"/>

Title

Text Structure Awareness and Comprehension in EFL & ESL Reading Classes

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Abstract

The authors review a set of previously published articles in regard to reading comprehension. Accordingly a comparison is made in EFL and ESL reading classes. Having reviewed the related literature, the current problem in reading comprehension is stated and consequently, the findings of this study contribute to a new insight into reading comprehension. Finally a summary of findings is made.

Keywords: Reading Comprehension, Text Structure, Expository Text

1. Introduction

Developing a reading ability in children starts years before they enter the school system. It improves through the educational years in school and universities with the help of their teacher (Farrell, 2009). However, when it comes to learning how to read in a second or foreign language, Farrell believes that this experience would not be the same. There would be some major differences between learning how to read in the first and the second or foreign language. Grabe & Stoller (2002) have elaborated on linguistic, individual and socio cultural differences, which differentiate reading ability in the first language (L1) from second (L2) or foreign (FL) language. Regarding linguistic differences, Farrell (2009) mentioned the

differences that exist in the amount of lexical, grammatical and discourse knowledge would be influenced by the differences, which exist at the initial stages of learning how to read, in the first and second languages. He believed that in the initial stage of learning how to read, the readers in the first language are performing substantially different from their peers in the second or a foreign language. For example, Grabe & Stoller (2002) mentioned that at the age of six, most first language readers are ready to read because they have already learned (tacitly) grammatical structure of their own language and they have vast knowledge of vocabulary stored in their minds (almost 7.000 words). However, second or foreign language readers lack that word bank. Farrell (2009) made a comparison between first and second language readers at the initial stages of reading; he observed that second language learners lack that vast knowledge of vocabulary to draw from, when trying to read.

In addition to the vocabulary size and grammar knowledge that exist among L1 and L2 or FL readers, Farrel (2009) has also stated another difference. He argues that because L2 and FL readers don't have a tacit knowledge of the second language grammar. They need some additional instruction in building a foundation of structural knowledge and text organization for more effective reading comprehension. According to him, students who have knowledge of text structure can recall more information from the text. He also believes that this awareness will help them with their reading fluency, comprehension and efficiency. Farrel (2009) has also introduced a general approach for increasing reading comprehension. Explicitly teaching of text structure based on Farrell's study is a general approach in accessing reading comprehension for L2 or FL readers.

Text structure is an important criterion in reading comprehension (McGee, 1982; Fitzgerald, 1984a, 1984; Taylor, 1992b; Lattimere, 2003). Meyer et al (1998) Believe that text structure exhibits which ideas of the author are most important and which are subordinated. She also stated that authors are using different types of text structure to convey their messages to the readers easier.

The texts, which are presented by the authors, are in two different kinds of prose, Narrative prose and Expository prose. Bakken (2002) argues that narrative prose is very familiar to children because they have learned using this kind of prose. For example, they are mentioning to the fairy tales and stories that because they are familiar for children, it is easier for them to comprehend. Another reason for better comprehension of this kind of text based on Bakken (2002) is that children know what they are expected while reading so they will focus their attention on remembering what they have read. Cook (1983) is talking about the difficulty of expository text. Cook argues that because expository texts present facts, Theories

an, dates and the information, is largely unfamiliar to the readers, they seem harder than narrative texts and more over this unfamiliarity impedes their comprehension. Obviously the necessity of being familiar with expository texts will be increased when we come to know that most of academic texts are expository.

Reviewing the common issues in EFL and ESL reading comprehension classes, the present study aims to study the effects of text structure instruction on the reading comprehension ability in EFL or ESL reading classes. This study is meant to state the existing problem in reading comprehension classes, to present basic text structures and to suggest theoretical framework and discussion of teaching text structure in reading classes.

2. Review of the related literature

Many studies have been done to elaborate the relation between reading comprehension and the use of reading strategy in ESL or EFL reading classes. Kung (2007) conducted a study on the relation between reading comprehension and the usage of reading strategy among Taiwan's EFL college students. He found that the higher-grade students possessed more abundant knowledge in reading strategy information and they were able to apply suitable strategy for different types of texts to comprehend better. However, in her study, she surveyed some students who did not have the same English knowledge background. It might have affected the results of her study.

Another study on reading strategy was done by Santoro et al (2008). Their study focused on different types of reading strategies for fostering comprehension. Their findings showed that read-aloud reading strategy, with direct teaching on comprehension and readers' participation in reading discussions about a text, could increase comprehension. Moreover, they suggested that if the teachers are interested to make the read-aloud sessions more effective, they should make the students recognize the differences between narrative and expository text structure. They concluded that students' capability to differentiate different types of structure in expository texts helped them to discuss about the text in reading activity and it was helpful in increasing comprehension.

Nelson's (2003) findings also supported the effectiveness of reading strategy for comprehension of expository texts. The meta-cognitive strategy was the strategy that she presented in her experimental study. Her reading strategy contained reading aloud, text connections, visualization and questioning. Her findings supported the assumption of possibility of teaching meta-cognitive strategy in reading classes. She observed students in experimental

groups practicing meta-cognitive strategy application to expository texts. She concluded that this strategy was helpful for all readers with different reading ability. She also mentioned that after meta-cognitive strategy instruction even non-proficient students' reading comprehension significantly improved.

Many studies have been done on recognition of text structure as a helpful strategy on fostering learners' reading comprehension. In fact the researches on teaching text structure have shown that not only familiarity with text structures is helpful for increasing comprehension, but it also is very helpful in the learners' recall from the expository text. The reason for increasing the readers' recalling ability based on Ogle & Blachowicz (2002) is that recognition of an organizational pattern facilitates memory for textbook information because it enables the reader to form a mental representation of the information and to see the logical relationships suggested by the authors.

William et al. (2007) also obtained similar results on effectiveness of reading strategy among at-risk second graders. They reported positive results of teaching text structure to at-risk second graders. The findings of Wilkins (2007) also indicated that students who had learned how to identify and summarize the text, exhibited gains in the ability to write the important ideas of expository texts and even they even exhibited gains in over all reading comprehension. The present study also considers students summarizing of expository texts as an aid in fostering comprehension.

Applying text structure strategy in reading proved to be the area of interest of reading researchers for many decades. In fact the review of literature in reading has revealed the fact that many researches have considered awareness of text structure as a key factor in fostering comprehension. For instance, Presley and McCormick (1995) also advocated the idea of text structure strategy in increasing reading comprehension of elementary students. They claimed that in text structure strategy, students are learning how to analyze the texts, and it is very helpful in finding the main ideas of the texts. They argued that teaching the students how to analyze the passages is beneficial in enhancing their comprehension. In fact, the present study is to consider students' 'Analyzing' ability in distinguishing the main idea from details as an aid in increasing their comprehension.

As the review of the literature on reading strategy stated, there are many strategies that hold promise as strategies that can be taught by direct teaching to increase comprehension of the readers. Text structure based strategy according to the report of literature review is one of them. The current study is using text structure strategy in reading classes in order to evaluate its' effectiveness on students' comprehension of expository texts.

3. Statement of the problem

Although educators and psychologists have been guiding research on different aspects of reading skill (e.g. Alderson Urquhart, 1983; Johnston. 1983; Thorn dike, 1971), There are still controversies about what the reading instruction should be. Some researchers believe that college students' purpose of reading is learning from their textbooks (Self, 1997). Hence the college books are often in expository materials and moreover, based on Williams (2004), expository texts seem to be more difficult than narrative texts as a result we can observe students lack of understanding while they encounter these texts. One reason can be mentioned about the difficulty of expository texts based on Stein Trabasso (1981) that the relation between events that are demonstrated in expository text is not the same as sequence of familiar events that readers can see in many narratives, since in expository texts abstract logical relations are depicted.

Based on the review of the literature, one reason of students' failure in the academic area is for their inability to recognize the structure of expository texts and consequently their lack of comprehension in their readings. It is obvious that there will be a need for giving them awareness in that area. In fact many studies have been done in this area showing the relationship between text structure and students' reading comprehension. For example Dickson et al. (1998) mentioned about 17 studies, which closely evaluated the relation between text organization and comprehension.

The teaching of reading approach that accompany textbook and offer strategy instruction ideas, only focus on explaining the content and vocabulary and assessing knowledge through some comprehension question is inadequate for the students to truly understand what they read about in expository texts (Kragler et al. 2005). They mentioned to the traditional reading instruction as inadequate instruction for understanding expository texts in the area of teaching reading in colleges there is still traditional approach, which is prevalent in classes. Maxwell (1997, cited by Nimmo 2008) believes that "most collage instructors do not have the development reading degree, but instead they have a background in elementary or secondary reading instruction. One reason of this problem according to (Maxwell, 1997, Stahl, 1992) is that "There are only a few graduate programs that certify instructors in developing reading"

A case study was done by two Iranian researchers, Ladan JavdanFaghat and Zaidah Zainal in 2010. According to their study, in Iran English is taught both in guidance and high schools. In guidance schools, English is taught for two years as a subject to introduce the

basic English concepts to students, such as basic vocabularies and grammar and in high schools English is taught for four years, thereby it mainly introduces the learners the concept of language knowledge, accompanying grammar, vocabulary, language functions and phonetics. Generally the English Program in high schools is exam-oriented and it is devised to prepare the students for University Entrance Exam where the questions are mainly based on grammar, vocabulary and language knowledge in multiple-choice format. As a result, the focus of teaching is mainly on grammar which is taught in the form of pattern-drills (Audio-Lingual Method), vocabularies which are taught in context, short reading texts with new vocabularies followed by numerous product-oriented comprehension questions, language functions without any introductory part of the concept and situation of the dialogue, and finally phonetics. Based on their investigation, they discovered that knowledge of text organization affects comprehension mainly in identifying and recalling of the most important information in a text. The study by Zare-ee (2008) reveals learning can be enhanced if students use met- cognitive processes, that is, if they are aware of, monitoring and controlling their own learning.

Further, Flavell (1979) defines meta-cognitive strategies as assisting with monitoring and evaluating. Nimmo (2008) also believes that meta-cognition takes place when the readers are looking for main ideas in text during rereading. Cognitive ability is one of the areas of thinking that Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) mentioned about it in their taxonomy of thinking. Their taxonomy composed of six levels that are Remembering; understanding; Applying; Analyzing; Evaluating and Creating; out of these six levels, The top three levels represent learners' higher order Thinking skills. There for the two Iranian researchers, Ladan JavdanFaghat and Zaidaha Zainal (2010) stressed that the system of education in Iran had not produced the desired objectives of reading classes which emphasis on the high- cognitive domains. Based on what has been reviewed EFL and ESL reading classes demand the necessity of text structure that is beyond the vocabulary and grammar knowledge back.

4. Theoretical framework

For many students, expository text means difficult, unexciting text book to be read, so they just memorize the texts to pass their tests (Calkins, 2001). Teacher's duty is to find the method or instructions to promote meaning for readers (Krangler; Marting & Walker, 2005). Applying reading strategy helps college freshmen to comprehend the academic books better (Kung, 2007).

According to Meyer (2001) Hierarchical text structure refers to the elements of text provide coherence by emphasizing ideas central to the author's main thesis and deemphasizing peripheral ideas. Utilizing the structure in text, based on Meyer (2007) is a very important way to make a coherent mental representation for encoding and retrieving information from text. In other words being aware of different structure of the texts helps the reader to extract information easier from the text. Meyer (2001) also believes that readers who apply the structure strategy tend to remember more information from the reading passages rather than readers who don't use structure strategy. Moreover she indicates that readers who use structure strategy tend to remember more who so not use the strategy.

The present study applies Meyer's text structure strategy as an aid in enhancing reading comprehension. Her idea over the effect of teaching text structure on fostering comprehension in reading classes is reviewed.

5. Expository text structure

Expository texts are texts that are used by the authors to inform, to explain, to describe, to present information or to persuade. "Expository texts explain concept for academic content such as science (A. Gaddy et al, 2008)". Expository texts often rely on scientific discourse, characterized by (a) complex sentences containing multiple embedded clause; (b) verbs that have been turned into nouns representing large disciplinary concepts; and (c) Latin and Greek derived vocabularies. When students are taught to identify text, structures, through use of such supports as graphic organizers, writing frames, text pattern signals, or text previewing, their comprehension increases. Ornstein (1994, p. 82) has defined the structure of the text as, "the main ideas of the text, how information is organized, as well as the verbal and textual cues (or pedagogical aids) that help organize and bring unity of text"

There is a number of listing for types of text structure and almost different authors used various terminology. Meyer & Feedle (1984) have organized five basic expository text structures. (Descriptive, Sequential, Causation, Problem /Solution and Comparison). The basic pattern of five expository text structure based on Mayer & Freedle (1984) is shown in the table 1. Based on Ciardiello (2002), students have particular difficulty identifying the organization pattern of cause / effect. MC Cromick (2003) has suggested, "Cause / Effect structure is difficult because of the complex comprehension skills involved in the interpretation of cause and effects."

Table 1: Five Basic Expository Text Structure:

Description	Elements are grouped by association with one element of association subordinate to another (topic)
Sequence	Elements are grouped in temporal order
Causation	Elements are grouped before and after time and are causally or quasi- causally related
Problem / solution	Elements are organized in the same fashion as cause/ effect with the addition of overlapping elements between problem and solution, and one element of the solution's basis of similarities and an antecedent to the problem.
Comparison	Element are organized on the basis of similarities and differences between two topics

(Source: Meyer & Freedle, 1984)

Dymock (2005) argues that "many students are unaware that exposition follows on organized pattern. These students require direct instruction in how to go about comprehending expository text structures". She also believes that children who have a good understanding of the structure of expository text have fewer problems with comprehension. So it is clear that students, who are not aware of these patterns, will not be able to use the comprehension strategy. Many researchers have found text structure strategy as an effective method in teaching. Meyer and Wijekumar (2007) argue that structure strategy is a technique the focuses on looking for coherence among text ideas.

6. Discussion and conclusion

The literature review highlighted some approaches to the teaching of reading comprehension. In spite of the fact that reading needs some skills which are necessary, text recognition, grammar knowledge and etc, some researchers believe that reading is a complex process involving network of cognitive actions that work together to construct meaning. Thus giving awareness on how to use their cognitive abilities is to help them to improve their reading ability.

Although most of the researchers believe that the students need a vast knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, to have better reading comprehension and summarizing capability. This study tried to review the articles to emphasize that even without focusing on the meaning of unknown vocabularies in the passages or having any explicit instruction in grammar, students can have a better comprehension in reading classes.

This study strived to scrutinize the effects of text structure awareness on students reading comprehension. The review in the books and articles revealed the necessity of teaching text structure in reading classes. There are many researches that have been done on the effect of text structure instruction on students' reading comprehension and some of them are asserted in the Review of the Literature. Most of them agreed to the consensus on the positive effect of text structure awareness on student' comprehension of expository texts.

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Title

An Account of English Lexical Collocations Errors through L1 Transfer

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Abstract

In light of the fact that L2 collocational errors are often caused by the transfer of well-established L1, L2, or/and L3 linguistic systems, this paper examines some of the outstanding collocational differences between Persian and English to see if the same problem can account for the errors committed by our EFL learners in the area of English lexical collocations. To reach such a goal, thirty EFL learners studying in the Bahar Private Institute were randomly selected and were given a lexical collocation test. The instrument used contained Persian statements which were given to the students to choose the corresponding English lexical collocation. The result of the data analysis indicated that our EFL learners confront considerable problems in areas that are absent in their mother tongue. They tried to choose the items that were closer to their native language. This problem can be intensified when our language learners are trilingual or more. In order to compensate for the difficulties encountered by our EFL/ESL learners, we as teachers should integrate collocation teaching in our classroom activities so that they will become conscious of the differences in the collocational system of the two or more languages they are acquiring.

Keywords: Lexical collocation, Transfer, Interference, EFL/ESL, Error Analysis

1. Introduction

Halliday (1985) talked about “cohesion” and “coherence” which have a great role in hanging the elements of a text together. In addition, he stated that in lexical cohesion the relations between vocabulary items in texts are of two kinds: collocation which is the focus of this

study defined as co-occurrence of words, and reiteration. Collocation is considered as a dimension of textual structure which gives cohesion to the body of a text. Lewis (1993) defines collocation as a subcategory of multi-word items, which is made up of individual words that habitually co-occur. He believes collocations are different from “institutionalized expressions” which indicate what a language user does rather than what a language user expresses.

In recent years, many applied linguists have emphasized the standardized multi-word expressions (such as collocations). According to Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986), collocations fall into two categories: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. A grammatical collocation consists of open class words (noun, adjective, or verb) and a preposition or particular structural pattern such as an infinitive or a clause. On the other hand, a lexical collocation does not contain infinitives or clauses. It typically consists of open class words (noun, adjective, verb, or adverb). A few studies have been focused on the contrastive study of Persian and English lexical collocations. Therefore, the focus of this study is on the contrastive study of Persian and English lexical collocations and through comparison between the two languages, this study also points out several problematic areas encountered by Iranian EFL learners of English. The objective of this study is to examine if there are any differences between the performance of the students on the correct choices and the transfer ones on the lexical collocation test. To achieve this purpose, fifteen Persian sentences including lexical collocations were given to the students. They were asked to choose the corresponding English translation of the sentence. The results of this study can be useful for teachers in deciding which path to take in order to increase the students’ knowledge of lexical collocations and consequently preventing the negative transfer of Persian collocations to English.

Following the above objectives of the study, the research questions under investigation are posed as given below:

1. Does transfer affect the performance of Iranian EFL students in lexical collocation tests?
2. Do lexical collocations create any difficulty for Iranian EFL learners?

Based on the above research questions, the following null hypotheses are proposed:

1. Transfer does not affect the performance of Iranian EFL learners.
2. Lexical collocations do not create any difficulties for EFL learners.

2. Literature Review

2. 1. Lexical Collocation

2.1.1. Definition and Types of Lexical Collocation

Collocation is the combinations of words that co-occur more often than expected by chance in a text and that are more restricted than free combinations (*very cold*) and less restricted than idioms (*get the cold shoulder*). They are common in English including nontechnical but especially technical genres, and they can be of any length usually containing two to six words, interrupted or uninterrupted by other words. Different types of collocation depend on the number of words involved and the way they are combined and the degree of rigidity or flexibility (cf. Smadja, 1993; Sinclair, 1991; Choueika, 1988).

Haug (2001) adopted Howarth's (1998) categorization model of lexical collocations. In this model, the collocational continuum contains four categories of collocation: free combinations, restricted collocations, figurative idioms, and pure idioms. A free combination derives its meaning from composing the literal meaning of individual elements, and its constituents are freely substitutable. A typical example provided by Howarth is *blow a trumpet*. Restricted collocations are limited in the selection of compositional elements and usually has one component that is used in a specialized context, e.g., *blow a fuse*. Regarding idioms that are semantically unclear, Howarth further divides them into figurative and pure idioms. While a figurative idiom has a metaphorical meaning as a whole that can somehow be derived from its literal interpretation, a pure idiom has a unitary meaning that is totally unpredictable from the meaning of its components. The example Howarth gives for the two types are *blow your own trumpet* and *blow the gaff*, respectively.

2.2. Contrastive Analysis

Foreign language teachers even from several years ago were obsessed with the practical question that what the sources of learners' errors in their written productions were. They wrote contrastive observations about students' native language and the language they were learning as early as the schools of the ancient world (Kelley, 1969). Then the idea of the influence of native language on the second language acquisition was inspired by Jespersen (1912), Palmer (1917) and especially Fries (1945) who talked about the behaviorist approach toward the analysis of linguistic competence as a series of habits. Errors were considered as being the result of the transfer of first language habits which can be both useful and harmful (Lado, 1957).

Contrastive Analysis emerged and was founded on the assumption that second/foreign language learners will tend to transfer to their second/foreign language utterances the formal

features of first language (James, 1981). Accordingly, learners, he states, are greatly influenced by their first language. If first and second languages match, learning will be facilitated, and if they differ, learning will be impeded. In the first case, there is positive transfer and in the second, negative transfer.

The problem starts with the notion of “transfer” itself. It has created vexing problems and turned to be a controversial notion. It means different things to different people. For Lado (1957) and Fries (1945) transfer is the imposition of native language information on a second language utterance or sentence, but for Kellerman (1986) and Odlin (1989) it refers to cross-linguistic influence. Schachter (1983-1992) has considered all prior linguistic knowledge including the imperfect knowledge a learner may have of the second language as transfer and even she claims that transfer is not a process at all, but rather a constraint on the acquisitions process. Odlin (1989) after discussing the problematic nature of transfer, has brought some observations about what transfer is not and concluded that “Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (P.27). And then he stresses that it is only a working definition. And even recently, Pavlenko and Scott (2002) as cited in Ahmadvand, M. (n.d.) argued that transfer is not unidirectional but bidirectional and simultaneous that is shown by paradigmatic and syntagmatic categories. All this indicates that how much the notion is complex without any consensus.

According to their own assumption and in order to eradicate errors, contrastive analysts compared first language and second language to find similarities and differences and consequently predicted learner difficulty. In other words, the process of CA involves providing insights into similarities and differences between languages; explaining and predicting problems in second/foreign language learning and finally developing course materials for language teaching (Mirhassani, 2003). CA was successful in phonetics but because of its problems it is not practiced much, but it is still alive.

Despite its shortcomings, EA is still alive and in recent studies there is no mention of any methodological problems involved in EA (Ellis, 1994). It has made a great contribution to second language acquisition research. And some (e.g. Mirhassani, 2003) even believe that CA is beneficial in teaching despite all its shortcomings.

In line with the above lines of research, the researcher in this study has focused on the differences and areas of difficulty in terms of Persian and English lexical collocations.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

To carry out the research, thirty intermediate students studying in the Bahar private institute were selected. All the participants were female, monolingual and native speakers of Persian language. Participants were between the ages of nineteen to thirty-five. To ensure homogeneity of the two groups, the participants whose scores on the reduced TOEFL test fell between -1 SD and +1 SD were chosen from among the learners as the selected participants whose test results would be analyzed.

3.2. Instrument

In order to gather the data, two instruments were employed in this study. The first one was a reduced TOEFL test constructed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS, 1998) which was administered to all the participants to screen the subjects for the study so that their results on the tests could be analyzed. The reduced TOEFL test included 15 structure items, 15 items related to written expressions, and 30 reading comprehension items. The rationale behind administering a reduced form of the TOEFL test was to reduce the possibility of the participants' losing their patience as a result of staying too long in the test session, and hence, the probability of obtaining unreliable results is reduced.

The second instrument was a recognition test of English lexical collocations comprising 15 items was administered to the participants. The test consisted of different types of English lexical collocations which were assumed to cause problems for Iranian EFL learners. Some examples of them are as follows:

1. Adjective + Noun(4 items)
2. Verb + Noun (4 items)
3. Adverb + Adjective (1 item)
4. Noun1 + of + Noun2 (1 item)
5. Verb + Preposition (1item)
6. Figurative idioms (5 items)

Some of the composing items of the test were based on the examples taken from LotfipourSaedi (2004). Each item was constructed in a way that in addition to the correct choice, there was another alternative that seemed to be the proper answer based on the effect of the testees' mother tongue, Persian. The context of each item provided the testees with enough information to choose the proper answer. Test-retest method was used to check the reliability of the test. The two sets of grades gathered over a three-week interval were

correlated. Pearson correlation was significant at 0.05 level and it was 0.78. The validity of this test was determined by asking some professors' view in the field.

3.3. Data Collection Procedures

Testing took place during the Winter of 2009. To make the subjects familiar with the test-taking procedure, the instruction was orally given both in English and Persian by the instructor of the course. Data collection for this research involved a lexical collocation test. The participants were asked to choose among the options given to them. As the main aim of this study was to investigate the role of L1 transfer and L2 lexical collocation knowledge, the items were so constructed that the testees might confront two of the given alternatives (the correct choice and the one that seemed to be correct in Persian) to choose from.

3.4. Data Analysis

The participants' lexical collocation knowledge or correct answers to the lexical collocations test and the L1 transfer scores were also listed. An independent sample t-test has been run to examine if there is any significant difference between the correct choices and the ones which were affected by the students' native language.

4. Results and discussion

The present study was carried out to find out the possible role of L1 transfer in L2 lexical collocations used by intermediate students studying in the Bahar private institute. After the 15-item test of lexical collocations was given to 30 intermediate students, the results were collected and examined carefully. They were listed and categorized as shown in the following table:

Table 4.1.

The number of answers by 30 subjects to each test item's choices

ITEMS	choice a	Choice b	Choice c
1	1(correct)	12	17(transfer)
2	9	3(correct)	18(transfer)
3	9(transfer)	15	6(correct)
4	16(transfer)	8(correct)	6
5	5	17(transfer)	8 (correct)
6	5(correct)	17(transfer)	8
7	18(transfer)	10(correct)	2
8	12(transfer)	5	13(correct)
9	8(transfer)	16(correct)	6

10	10(correct)	17(transfer)	3
11	12	10(transfer)	8(correct)
12	9(transfer)	14	7(correct)
13	14(correct)	12(transfer)	4
14	12	14(correct)	4(transfer)
15	8	7(transfer)	15(correct)

As can be seen from the above table, students answered some questions wrongly because of their L1 transfer (items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12). On the other hand, some students could answer the other items correctly without the negative transfer of their first language. In cases where students answered the items wrongly, they translate the Persian statements into English using their L1 vocabularies or structures. Among fifteen items, items 1, 2, and 6 were the most difficult ones for the students. Only 1, 3, and 5 students could answer the items correctly. Out of 450 possible answers, % 30.66 were correct, % 42.44 were the result of transfer, and %26.88 covered the rest of the errors.

The mean scores for correct and transfer choices were calculated as shown in the following table:

Table 4. 2.

Descriptive statistics for correct and transferred choices

Group Statistics

VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Transfer	15	12.7000	4.82257	1.24518
correct	15	9.2000	4.50714	1.16374

As it is shown in the above table, the mean score for those who answered the items by the application of L1 transfer was 12.7 which is higher than the group with the mean of 9.2 who answered the items correctly.

An independent sample t-test has been run to examine if there is any significant difference between the correct choices and the ones which were affected by the students' native language as shown in the following table:

Table 4.3.

Independent Sample t-test: comparing the differences between the correct choices and the transfer ones

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
VAR00001	Equal variances assumed	.480	.494	2.464	28	.020	3.50000	1.70434	.70883	7.69117
	Equal variances not assumed			2.464	27.873	.020	3.50000	1.70434	.70811	7.69189

As it is shown in the above table, ($t= 2.4$, $p=0.02$), it can be concluded that the difference between the correct choices and the transfer ones was significant, i.e. subjects tended to choose the items that were closer to their native language. In other words, the first research hypothesis was rejected, therefore, we can say transfer affects students' performance on the lexical collocation test.

Since the differences between the means of correct and transfer choices were significant, we can conclude that lexical collocation resulting from the influence of the mother tongue could lead to difficulties. The results of the test of this study show that our EFL students are heavily under the influence of the collocations of their L1 which do not correspond to the L2 collocations. In this way, most often Iranian EFL learners interpret the English collocations in a wrong way resulting in the misinterpretation of the text under the study. Therefore, the second null hypothesis was also rejected i.e. lexical collocations can create difficulties for Iranian EFL learners. If EFL learners are exposed early enough to large numbers of collocations, vocabulary usage may not become fixed or fossilized in their second language learning. This is the reason that most of the students (around 56 percent) did not have much difficulty answering the item number 15.

Language in use is so flexible and idiosyncratic that not all educated native speakers of English agree with certain judgments of collocability, let alone the metaphorical, imaginative, and creative uses of language which result in the constant formation of new lexical collocations (Rudzka. B., Channell, J., Putseys, Y., and Ostin, P. 1981b, 6). Text books usually emphasize lexical collocations with high frequency of co-occurrence rather

than on those with figurative uses. Therefore, students did not face much difficulty choosing high frequent lexical collocations. Items 2, 3, 14 are some examples in case. Students have had enough exposure to these collocations and could answer them correctly.

5. Conclusion

The common belief that words should be learned in context emphasizes the importance of collocations in second language acquisition. It is true that the use of lexical collocations is somewhat subjective and little empirical evidence of collocational frequencies in English is available (Cowie, 1981). It is native speakers' experience of frequent expressions that are repeated in given circumstances that contributes to lexical collocations (Bolinger and Sears, 1981). Since lexical collocations cannot be heuristically acquired, the help of user-friendly collocational dictionaries is important to non-native writers and speakers of English. In addition, from the fact that most Iranian students have low level competence in collocations, we can conclude that even if some linguistic predicaments about lexical collocations should be further tackled, they must be included in the syllabus of second language learning because having a good command of lexical collocations is one way to make passive vocabulary active. They should be arranged in the order in which he/she will best learn and internalize them in order to use them accurately and fluently in his/her production and perception of speech in real life situations.

Last but not least, the implication of the present study is that our EFL teachers themselves should be aware of this fact that committing mistakes/errors on the part of the EFL learners is a normal part of the learning process. However; the teachers' task will become more crucial in making their students conscious of the areas in which they face problems in the correct use of lexical collocations and give them ample authentic practice to overcome these difficulties. The results of such studies and this one would help teachers and materials designers and developers be aware of such instances when they are including collocations in their texts. Text books should emphasize lexical collocations with high frequency of co-occurrence rather than on those with figurative uses. Likewise, teachers should be conscious of those instances of collocations which could create problems for Iranian EFL learners and bring those cases into the attention of their students. In this way, they may help learners to overcome those predicted problems.

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Appendix

Choose the item that suits the Persian statement.

1. پدربزرگم 90 سال عمر کرد. عمرش مثل عمر نوح بود.
My grandfather lived for 90 years. He was as old as ...

- a) the hills
- b) the sky
- c) Noah

2. هیچ کس چای سنگین دوست ندارد.

Nobody likes ...

- a) Strong tea
- b) Heavy tea
- c) Dark tea

3. آن مرد بلند برادر من است.

That ... man is my brother.

- a) Long
- b) High
- c) Tall

4. باران شدید میتواند سیل ایجاد کند.

... rain can cause flood.

- a) Fast
- b) Heavy
- c) Sever

5. او آهنگ زیبایی ساخت.

He ...

- a) built a beautiful song
- b) Made a beautiful music
- c) Composed a beautiful music

6. او در تصادف به شدت زخمی شد.

He was ... injured in the accident.

- a) seriously
- b) very
- c) hardly

7. دانش آموزان امتحان دادن را دوست ندارند.

Students do not like ...

- a) Giving exams
- b) Taking exams
- c) Doing exams

8. کله اش کار میکند.

- a) His mind works.
- b) His brain works.
- c) He is intelligent.

9. دلم برایش خیلی تنگ شده است.

- a) My heart is very tight for him/her.
- b) I miss him/her very much.
- c) My heart is very small for him/her.

10. موهایش به سیاهی شب است.

His hair is as black as ...

- a) Coal
- b) The night
- c) A crow

11. مریم یک دسته گل برای تولدش هدیه گرفت.
Maryam received ... as her birthday gift.

- a) flowers
- b) one group of flowers
- c) a bunch of flowers

12. حسن میخواهد خود کشتی کند.
Hassan wants to ... suicide.

- a) do
- b) undertake
- c) commit

13. امتحانمان مثل آب خوردن آسان بود.
Our exam was as easy as ...

- a) ABC
- b) Drinking water
- c) Washing your hands

14. با ماشین سفر رفتن خطرناک است.
It is dangerous to go by car.

- a) to a trip
- b) on a trip
- c) trip

15. علی مسئولیت آن بچه را به عهده گرفت.
Ali ... the responsibility of that child.

- a) got
- b) accept
- c) took

Title

The Impact of Educational Games on Vocabulary and Grammar Learning of Elementary Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract

The present study attempted to investigate the role of using educational games in vocabulary and grammar learning of elementary EFL learners. Fifty-eight female learners who were selected through a Cambridge standardized test (YLE test) divided in two control and experimental groups. A grammar and vocabulary teacher-made pre-test was administered to both groups to measure their level of vocabulary and grammar knowledge. The teacher as well as the method of teaching was the same, but the experimental group was exposed to educational games, namely *Make a Sentence*, *Unscramble Sentences on the Board*, *Hangman* and *Word Hunt* as a treatment at the end of each session for reinforcing vocabulary and grammar. The researcher used educational games in sixteen sessions, allocating each game four 20-minute sessions. At the last session a grammar and vocabulary post-test similar to pre-test was administered to both groups to determine their achievement in vocabulary and grammar. The scores obtained from two groups were compared through the independent samples *t*-test. The statistical results showed that the significance level of

both features (.000) was below the p-value ($p < .05$). So, the results confirmed the positive effect of educational games on vocabulary and grammar learning.

Keywords: Educational games, EFL, Grammar learning, Vocabulary learning, YLE

1. Introduction

Vocabulary has always been one of the most important issues which is related to teachers and learners of foreign languages. Krashen (1982) (Cited in Lewis 1993) has commented that learners do not carry grammar books in their pockets, but they carry dictionaries. Likewise, while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed, Krashen(1982) (Cited in Wilkins 1972). Many aspects of foreign word teaching and learning have been investigated and discussed with increased interest during the past three decades. While some studies have concentrated on word types, meanings and forms (e.g. Laufer 1990, Laufer 2006; de Groot 2000; van Hell and Mahn 1997; Nissen and Henriksen 2006) some have focused on vocabulary learning and/or teaching strategies, methods, testing and assessment (e.g. Meara 1997; Meara and Fitzpatrick 2000; Hulstijn and Laufer 2001; McCarthy 1990; Nation 2001; Schmitt 2000)and with the recent improvements in educational technologies, others have shed light on how computers or various kinds of software could aid FL learning (e.g. Groot 2000; de Freitas and Griffiths 2008; Ranalli 2008; Yip and Kwan 2006; Grace 2000).

However, some studies have concentrated specifically on word acquisition through games. Yip and Kwan (2006) showed that students preferred learning that is supported by educational games rather than traditional activity based lessons. According to their study, students who were provided with games became more successful in learning new words compared to those who learned the same vocabulary through activity-based lessons. Therefore, teachers or parties that complain about the insufficiency of the current methodology and strategies necessitated by language teaching programs might be willing to set up or try new techniques where games could play a major role. As Allen (1983, p. 10) points out, the use of word games to teach vocabulary does not mean or suggest pleasant ways of passing the class time. The entertainment of students is not a teacher's responsibility, rather teachers are responsible for creating a constructive classroom atmosphere, which encourages vocabulary expansion, and a well-chosen game can help the students acquire words correctly and feel that certain words are important and necessary because without those words, the objective of the game cannot be achieved.

According to Saricoban and Metin (2000), teaching English grammar can be hard for most of the teachers. Also, the students may have some difficulties for learning grammar. There has been a movement away from the traditional methods of teaching English grammar through writing, rewriting and worksheets to using a more active approach through games. Researchers have also begun to look at how and why these new methods work. There are four sound reasons to teach grammar with games:

1. Games and problem-solving activities, which are task-based and have a purpose beyond the production of correct speech, are the examples of the most preferable communicative activities. Grammar games help children not only gain knowledge but be able to apply and use that learning (Saricoban and Metin2000).

2. Additionally, games have the advantage of allowing the students to practice and internalize grammar extensively. They can do this because students are often more motivated to play games than they are to do desk work. In addition, during the game, the students are focused on the activity and learn the language subconsciously (Saricoban and Metin, 2000).

3. While games are motivating for the students, probably the best reason, according to Saricoban and Metin(2000), to use games is that the use of such activities both increases the cooperation and competition in the classroom. One can use games to add excitement through competition and games create bonding among students and teacher.

4. Ersoz(2000) also explains more reasons why games do work for teaching grammar. Learning a language requires a constant effort and that can be tedious, but he outlines two good reasons why games should be included in the classroom:

*Games that are amusing and challenging are highly motivating.

*Games allow meaningful use of the language in context.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Games have long been recognized as central to processes of learning and development (Cook, 2000; Lantolf& Thorne, 2006;Rogoff, 1990). The role of games in language learning has also received a lot of attention nowadays. (Belz& Reinhardt, 2004; Broner&Tarone, 2001; Cekaite& Aronson, 2005; Sullivan, 2000). Empirical studies on computer games and game-playing have considered affective, social, and cognitive, factors that may enhance the development of skills and competences required in game-play and similar complex activities. Studies focusing on social aspects of game-playing, on the other hand, have begun to show how players use games and create meanings in the process of engaging in playing. For

example, Schott and Kambouri (2006) show that during game play in groups, the participants adopt different roles, with experts guiding and supporting novices in managing the game, so that group play could be described as having a scaffolding function. Routarinne (2009) suggests that collaborative play creates opportunities for enjoying the game and learning through the procedure of playing and negotiating about choices during the activity.

Game playing is a popular way to engage learners in language learning (Schultz & Fisher, 1988). Prensky (2001, p. 106) listed twelve elements as to why games engage people. To name a few, games motivate players (to achieve goals), gratify the ego (when winning), are fun (through enjoyment and pleasure) and spark the players' creativity (to solve the game). The use of interactive games has impacted on the mode of teaching (Foreman, et al. 2004). Krasilovsky (1996, p. 20) claimed that young learners tend to 'favor "edutainment" applications- academics-oriented games'. Wood (2001) investigated the use of learning games as a learning tool and concluded that game-like formats could be more effective at capturing learners' attention than traditional media such as textbooks.

Many experienced textbook and methodology manuals writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational value. Lee (1979, p. 2) states that most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms. He also says that games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language teaching program. A similar opinion is expressed by Richard-Amato (1988, p. 147), who believes games to be fun but warns against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching.

There are many advantages of using games. According to Richard-Amato (1988, p. 147) games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely. They are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give to shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings (Hansen, et al. 1994, p. 118). They also enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language which are not always possible during a typical lesson. Furthermore according to Richard-Amato (1988, p. 147), games add diversion to the regular classroom activities, break the ice and introduce new ideas. In the easy, relaxed atmosphere which is created by using games, students remember things faster and better (Wierus and Wierus 1994, Cited in Uberman 1998). Silvers (1982:29) says many teachers are enthusiastic about using games as "a teaching device," yet they often perceive games as mere time-fillers, "a break from the monotony of drilling" or frivolous activities. He also claims that many teachers often overlook the fact that in a relaxed atmosphere, real learning takes place, and students use the language they have been exposed to and have practiced earlier.

Further support comes from Zdybiewska 1994, Cited in Uberman 1998), who believes games to be a good way of practicing language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language in real life in the future.

Purushotma (2005) has suggested that games can be so highly motivating that they can even cause addictive behavior. These advantages of games can help teachers create a willing, ready to learn, active and energetic atmosphere in their classes. The fact that people feel better, get less tired, and are highly motivated when they do things they enjoy, such as playing games, is the main inspirational idea of this work (Bakar, et al. 2008; Sakhuseyinoglu 2007; Bayirtepe and Tuzun 2007; Tuzun 2006). According to Richard-Amato (1988), even though games are often associated with fun, we should not lose sight of their pedagogical values, particularly in second language teaching. Games are effective because they provide motivation, lower students' stress, and give them the opportunity for real communication.

The main reason why games are considered effective learning aids is that they spur motivation and students get very absorbed in the competitive aspects of the games; moreover, they try harder at games than in other courses (Avedon & Brian 1971).

Another reason why games are often used in language classes is that they lower students' stress in the classroom. In conventional classrooms, there is a lot of stress put on students trying to master the target language. Schultz and Fisher (1988) said that stress is a major hindrance in language learning process. Learning language in traditional way is by its nature time consuming and stress provoking and raise the stress level to a point at which it interferes with student attention and efficiency and undermines motivation. One method has been developed to make students forget that they are in class; they relax students by engaging them in stress-reducing task like games. Since students know that they are playing games and want to communicate efficiently they do not worry about making mistakes and do not try to correct themselves in every single sentence. When students are free from worry and stress, they can improve their fluency and natural speaking styles. Then, students learn without realizing that they are learning (Schultz & fisher, 1988).

Another advantage is increasing students' proficiency. Playing games in the classroom can enormously increase students' ability in using language because students have a chance to use language with a purpose in the situations provided. Hadfield (1990) confirms that games provide as much concentrated practice as a traditional drill and more importantly, they provide an opportunity for real communication, albeit within artificially defined limits, and thus constitute a bridge between classroom and the real world. Like in a traditional

classroom, students have an opportunity to drill and practice using grammatical rules and other functions.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

64 female elementary EFL students participated in this research. They were in the 9-12 age range. The subjects were selected based on the convenience sample among elementary students of NeyrizNavid Institute. A convenience sampling procedure consists of those persons available for the study. Because of administrative limitations in randomly selecting and assigning individuals to experimental and control group the researcher used two classes available for this research. The proficiency level of participants was measured through their performance on starter level of YLE test. After getting the result of the proficiency test, the homogeneity of subjects was determined. In order to extract the outliers, the researcher included only 58 subjects whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean in the proficiency test although they were taking part in treatment procedure.

3.2 Instrumentation

To make sure that the present study enjoys the needed appropriateness, the researcher applied three instruments:

3.2.1 YLE Test

This Cambridge standardized test was used to determine the homogeneity of the subjects. This test has three levels: 1. Starters (elementary level), 2. Movers (intermediate level), and 3. Flyers (advanced level). The researcher selected starters level that was good for the level of students of this research. Question types in the reading and writing test include selecting and ticking, writing words and phrases in gaps and answering open-ended questions. The reading and writing test is 20 minutes. Question types in the listening test include drawing lines, selecting, matching and coloring, in response to short dialogues. The listening test is 20 minutes. In the speaking test; learners perform activities in response to prompts and give information about themselves. It lasts from 5 to 10 minutes. One point was assigned for each correct response. Because this test is a standard one, it is assumed that enjoys high level in validity and reliability, but the researcher checked the reliability and validity again. The reliability of the test was calculated through the use of Cronbach's alpha following the test performance. It was 0.9 which shows the internal consistency of the test. The content and face validity of test was confirmed by two advisor and consulting advisor.

3.2.2 Pre-test

The researcher constructed a grammar and vocabulary pre-test to measure the level of grammar and vocabulary knowledge of experimental and control groups. Each test included 40 items, allocating each test 40 minutes. One point was assigned for each correct response. Vocabularies and grammars that were selected for this test lay within the scope of the Navid Institute student's book for elementary level. The reliability of each test was calculated through the use of Cronbach's alpha following the test performance. The result for vocabulary test was .7 and for grammar test was .8. The content and face validity of each test were confirmed by two advisor and consulting advisor.

3.2.3 Post-test

A grammar and vocabulary post-test for the final measurement and evaluation were conducted. The researcher utilized a similar test (similar in content as well as form) of pre-test to determine the achievement of grammar and vocabulary of experimental and control groups.

3.3 Materials of the Study

During the 16 sessions instruction, the researcher presented and practiced same words and structures through the curriculum book, Connect, Book 1, (Richards, et al. 2005) to the subjects in both groups but, the experimental group was exposed to treatment (educational games) during each session

3.3.1 Selected games by the researcher

The researcher used four educational games as a treatment for experimental group. The selection of the following educational games is according to student's proficiency level, age, focus of games on vocabulary and grammar and ease of administration.

3.3.1.1 Word Hunt

This is good for practicing vocabulary. Each student can work independently. All they need to do is to circle as many as possible words that are hidden in the squares, either horizontally, vertically or diagonally. Students have to find out words like names of everyday things, fruit, animals, festivals, etc. They may check the answers in class with the teacher or with neighbors. It is a good idea to let children make a hunt board for their neighbors. Then, they exchange their grids. The player who finds all the hidden words first wins the hunt.

3.3.1.2 Hangman

This game is good for practicing vocabulary. The teacher thinks of a word and draws one dash for each letter of that word on the board. The learners suggest a letter which they think may be in the word. If any of these words contain a letter which is in the word the teacher is

thinking of and is in the same position, the teacher writes the letter on the board over the appropriate dash. If it's not right, the teacher draws one part of the "hangman". The game proceeds in this manner either until the learners guess the word, or until thirteen mistakes have been made, the drawing has been completed, and the learners have been "hanged". The teacher may then reveal the answer.

3.3.1.3 Unscramble Sentences on the Board

This game is good for practicing structure. The teacher writes two sentences on the strips of paper, one word per strip. Then she sticks them upside down on the board. Each time, two groups select to play this game. Each group should unscramble the sentences. Whenever a group succeeds in making all sentences, they should stick them on the board in a well form, if the teacher accepts them as a well-formed sentence, that group will win.

3.3.1.4 Make a Sentence

This game is good for practicing structure. The teacher cuts strips of paper to a standard size, sufficient for each learner to write sentences, one word per strip. Each learner writes out a sentence of her own making. Each word of the sentence should be on a separate strip of paper. All the learner's strips of paper should be put in a box and mixed together. Then each learner takes out the same number of strips as she puts in, not looking at them, but taking them out randomly. The aim of the game is for all the players to cooperate in making as many new sentences as possible by recombining their words. Whenever a group succeeds in making a sentence from the words in their possession, they should show it to the teacher. If the teacher accepts it as a well formed sentence, they'll lay it on a desk or table where everyone can see it.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following procedures are followed:

To gather data, 64 students who were studying EFL at Navid institute in Neyriz were asked to take the YLE proficiency test at the first session of class. Among 64 students chosen the researcher included only those subjects whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean in YLE test. 6 cases were excluded from the study although they were taking part in study procedure. The students enrolled in two classes in the summer semester of 2011 in Navid institute. The students were divided into control and experimental groups each comprising 32 students. Then, a grammar and vocabulary teacher-made pre-test was administered to measure the level of vocabulary and grammar knowledge of experimental and control groups. Teacher as well as the method of teaching was the same, but the experimental group was exposed to educational games, namely *Make a Sentence*,

Unscramble Sentences on the Board, Hangman and Word Hunt as a treatment at the end of each session for reinforcing vocabulary and grammar. The researcher used educational games in sixteen sessions, allocating each game four 20-minute sessions. At the last session a grammar and vocabulary post-test was administered to determine the achievement of grammar and vocabulary of experimental and control groups. Post-test was a similar test of pre-test in content as well as form.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedure

First, a Cambridge standardized test (YLE test) was administered to determine the homogeneity of the subjects. The mean and standard deviation of scores were calculated. Two groups compared through an independent samples *t*-test. The result showed that there was no significant difference between two groups (cf. Table 4.1). Then, a vocabulary and grammar teacher-made pre-test was administered to measure the level of vocabulary and grammar knowledge of two groups. For revealing and describing the impact of games on vocabulary and grammar learning, a grammar and vocabulary post-test was administered at the last session. In order to analyze data obtained from the pre-test and post-test of grammar and vocabulary of both groups, the SPSS, version 19, was used. The independent samples *t*-test was run four times (two times for pre-tests and two times for post-tests of each group in both components, separately) to show the difference between pre-tests of two groups in grammar and vocabulary and the difference between post-tests of each group in both components.

4. Results

In order to analyze data obtained from the pre-test and post-test of grammar and vocabulary of both groups, the SPSS, version 19, was used. Because the study contained one independent variable (i.e. game) and two dependent variables (i.e. vocabulary and grammar) and for each dependent variable there was a distinct test and since two groups of control and experimental were used (the experimental group received the treatment but the control one didn't) it was assumed that an independent-samples *t*-test would be appropriate to show the effectiveness of educational games on vocabulary and grammar learning. Therefore, the independent samples *t*-test was run four times (two times for pre-tests and two times for post-tests of each group in both components, separately) to show the difference between pre-tests of two groups in both grammar and vocabulary and the difference between post-tests of each group in both

components. Also, another independent samples *t*-test was run to determine the homogeneity of participants.

4.1 Samples statistics and Independent Samples *t*-test

Table 1 *Descriptive statistics of the proficiency test (YLE test) and t-test results combined*

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig
Control	32	39.41	4.937	-.340	62	.735
Experimental	32	39.81	4.624			

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of control and experimental groups in the proficiency test. The mean scores of control and experimental groups are 39.41 and 39.81, respectively. The proficiency of both groups is compared through an independent samples *t*-test. The result presented in this table shows that there was no significant difference between these two groups. The significant value (.735) was above the *p*-value $p < .05$ which was insignificant.

Figure 1 *A comparison of control and experimental groups in the proficiency test*

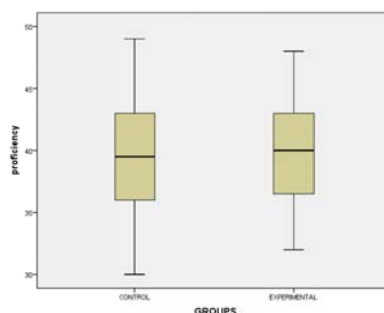


Figure 1 represents two boxplots in which the midst lines are close to each other. It indicates that there is no significant difference between the performance of control and experimental groups in the proficiency test. In fact, the closer the midst lines to each other, the more homogeneous the groups are.

Table 2 *Descriptive statistics of the grammar pre-test for control and experimental groups and t-test results combined*

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	df	Sig
Control	30	24.77	3.26	-.854	56	.397
Experimental	28	25.50	3.27			

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of control and experimental groups in the grammar pre-test. The mean scores of control and experimental groups are 24.77 and 25.50, respectively. To find whether there was a significant difference

between grammar pre-tests of two groups, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The result presented in Table 2 shows that there was not a significant difference between these two groups. The significant level (.397) was above the p-value $p < 0.05$ which was insignificant.

Figure 2 *A comparison of control and experimental groups in the grammar pre-test*

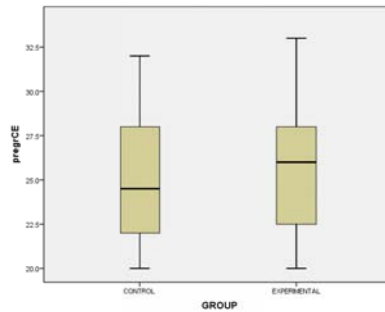


Figure 2 represents two box plots in which the midst lines are close to each other. It indicates that there is no significant difference between the performance of control and experimental groups in the grammar pre-test.

Table 3 *Descriptive statistics of the grammar post-test for control and experimental groups and t-test results combined*

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	df	Sig
Control	30	25.17	3.31	-14.356	56	.000
Experimental	28	35.54	1.97			

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of each group in the grammar post-test. The mean scores of control and experimental groups are 25.17 and 35.54, respectively. The grammar post-tests of both control and experimental groups are compared through an independent samples *t*-test. The result presented in Table 3 shows that there was a significant difference between two groups. The significant level (.000) was below the p-value $p < 0.05$.

Figure 3 *A comparison of control and experimental groups in the grammar post-test*

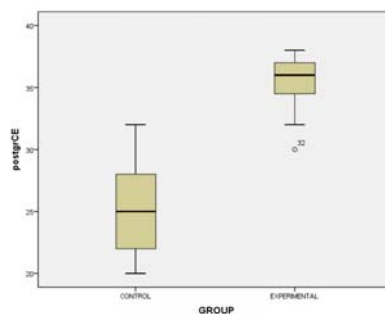


Figure 3 shows a considerable difference between the performance of experimental and control group in the grammar post-test. Comparing the midst lines of the box plots shows a considerable difference between the groups.

Table 4 *Descriptive statistics of the vocabulary pre-test for control and experimental groups and t-test results combined.*

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig
Control	30	26.23	2.31	-.091	56	.928
Experimental	28	26.29	2.07			

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of control and experimental groups in the vocabulary pre-test. The mean scores of control and experimental groups are 26.23 and 26.29, respectively. To find whether there was a significant difference between vocabulary pre-tests of two groups, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The result presented in Table 4 shows that there was not a significant difference between two groups. The significant level (.928) was above the *p*-value $p < 0.05$ which was insignificant.

Figure 4 *A comparison of control and experimental groups in the vocabulary pre-test*

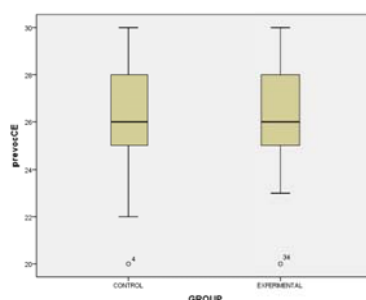


Figure 4 represents two box plots in which the midst lines are close to each other. It indicates that there is no significant difference between the performance of control and experimental groups in the vocabulary pre-test.

Table 5 *Descriptive statistics of the vocabulary post-test for control and experimental groups and t-test results combined.*

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig
Control	30	27.16	2.58	-13.379	56	.000
Experimental	28	34.60	1.44			

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of both groups in the post-test. The mean scores of control and experimental groups are 27.16 and 34.60, respectively. To find whether there was a significant difference between vocabulary post-tests of two groups, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The result presented in Table 5

shows that there was a significant difference between these two groups. The significant level (.000) was below the p-value $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5 *A comparison of control and experimental groups in the vocabulary post-test*

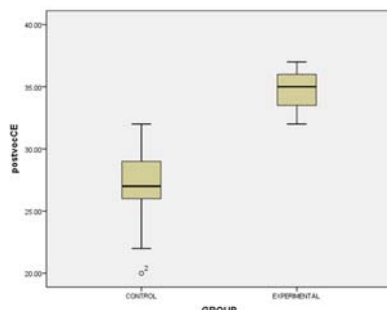


Figure 5 shows a considerable difference between the performance of experimental and control groups in the vocabulary post-test. In fact, the farther the midlines from each other, the more difference is between the groups.

5. Discussion

The effect of teaching vocabulary and grammar through educational games on the learners can be shown by resorting to mean scores of the experimental and control groups. The first null hypothesis is that educational games do not have any impact on vocabulary learning of elementary EFL learners. To see whether this hypothesis is retained or rejected we must look at the mean scores obtained from the vocabulary pre-test and post-test of two groups. We see that the participants' mean scores in pre-test and post-test of control group is 26.23 and 27.16, while the mean scores in pre-test and post-test of experimental group is 26.29 and 34.60, respectively. This shows that the difference between mean scores in pre-test and post-test of experimental group is very significant. Comparing control and experimental groups in the vocabulary post-test through the independent samples t-test shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups as the significant level (.000) is below the $p\text{-value} < .05$. Therefore, participants who learned through educational games were more successful in vocabulary learning than those who didn't learn through this technique. It can be concluded that the educational games can help learners to learn words better. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected. The beneficial effect of educational games on vocabulary is confirmed by Uberman (1998). She affirms the helpful role of educational games in vocabulary teaching after quoting and analyzing different opinions of experts. From her own teaching experiences, Uberman observed the enthusiasm of her students in learning through

games. She considers games a way to help students not only enjoy and entertain with the language they learn, but also practice it incidentally. Many experts of language teaching methodology agree that playing game is a good way to learn vocabulary, especially in CLT classes. With the use of games, the teacher can create various contexts in which students have to use the language to communicate, exchange information and express their own opinions (Wright, et al. 1984).

The second null hypothesis is that educational games do not have any impact on grammar learning of elementary EFL learners. To retain or reject this hypothesis we have to resort to the mean scores obtained from the grammar pre-test and post-test of two groups. The mean scores in pre-test and post-test of control group are 24.77 and 25.17, while the mean scores in pre-test and post-test of experimental group are 25.50 and 35.54, respectively. This shows that the difference between mean scores in pre-test and post-test of experimental group is very significant. Comparing control and experimental groups in the grammar post-test through the independent samples t-test also shows that the significant value (.000) is below the p-value < .05. We see that the mean score of the participants who learned grammar through the educational games is higher than those who didn't learn through this technique. So, it proves that teaching grammar through educational games has a beneficial effect on grammar learning. The second null hypothesis is rejected, too.

These results also supported the study conducted by Hadfield (2004); the emphasis in the games for advanced grammar is on successful communication rather than on correctness of language. Also grammar games offer a meaningful context for language use in which learners pay attention to the message and acquire language unconsciously (Sacricoban and Metin2002; Chen 2005). According to Rinvolucris (1984, p. 4), grammar games develop students' individual responsibility for what they think grammar is about.

6. Conclusion

ESL/EFL specialists have often justified the use of games with reference to the motivation that they can provide for the students. Huang (2000 p. 1) came to the conclusion that "learning through games could encourage the operation of certain psychological and intellectual factors which could facilitate communication heightened self-esteem, motivation and spontaneity, reinforcing learning, improving intonation and building confidence. Teachers can use games to help their students practice more their skills of communication. Teachers are responsible for creating a constructive classroom atmosphere, which encourages

vocabulary expansion, and “a well-chosen game can help the students acquire words correctly and feel that certain words are important and necessary because without those words, the objective of the game cannot be achieved” (Allen, 1983, p. 10).

Also grammar games offer a meaningful context for language use (Chen,2005) in which learners pay attention to the message and acquire language unconsciously (Sacricoban and Metin, 2002). According to Rinvoluceri (1984, p. 4), grammar games develop students’ individual responsibility for what they think grammar is about. Furthermore, the teacher is not the focus of learners’ attention but a supervisor of the game who, by showing interest in a game, is able to find out what the students know.

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Title

On the Constructive Effects of Critical Thinking on EFL Learners' Grammatical Accuracy

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Abstract

There has long been a rash of research efforts in the field of EFL/ESL instruction aimed at studying student critical thinking dispositions and performance. The present research intended to investigate the extent to which critical thinking ability would influence learners' grammatical accuracy. In so doing, the present study was conducted with 70 upper intermediate English learners. Based on quasi-experimental design and by implementing Thesis-Analysis-Synthesis key (TASk), one experimental group and one control group, namely high and low critical thinkers respectively, were determined. The subjects had the same level of knowledge of grammar prior to participating in the study. For ten sessions, both of the groups received grammar instruction based on *Cambridge Passages*. After the course ended, a post-test was run in order to figure out the extent of subjects' post-instruction knowledge of grammar. It was found that there was a significant difference between

the experimental and control groups in developing grammatical accuracy, so that the participants in the former group significantly developed their grammatical accuracy. Finally, the paper presents a number of practical ways to incorporate and improve critical thinking ability in the EFL/ESL instruction.

Keywords: Critical thinking, Grammar, Accuracy, EFL instruction

1. Introduction

Globally, as Thompson (2011) points out, twenty first century governments and industries are seeking to grow their economies by identifying alternate sources of energy, improved products, creating new business and technological solutions, and finding quicker and more efficient ways to communicate. Educational systems are charged to respond to these and other societal needs. Schools are re-thinking their focus and developing and implementing curricula that will produce the necessary human capital to identify viable solutions for these needs (Shah, 2010). One of the skills for problem solving, inquiry and discovery, in this regard, is critical thinking. It is the systematic approach of skillfully evaluating information to arrive at the most feasible solution to a variety of structured and ill-structured problems (Laxman, 2010; Shah, 2010; Winch 2006). There has been a rash of research efforts aimed at studying student critical thinking dispositions and performance in relation to demographics, learner differences, and curriculum and instructional strategies. However, teaching for critical thinking competence necessitates a philosophical shift in focus from learning to thinking (Chun, 2010), drill and practice to problem-based learning (Savery, 2009), subject isolation to subject integration, output to process, what is convenient to what is needed, and now to the future (Peddiwell, 1939, cited in Thompson, 2011).

In studying this very concept, i.e. critical thinking, this paper presents multiple definitions for critical thinking, critical pedagogy, as well as some contemporary critical thinking theories and what is embodied in the concept of critical thinking as they relate to EFL instruction. Next, by raising the research question and hypothesis, the paper represents its findings related to the effects of critical thinking ability on EFL learners' grammatical accuracy. Finally, since this paper is intended for readers to improve teaching competencies and learner outcomes, it concludes by presenting some suggestions regarding approaches and strategies that can be successfully used to develop critical thinking competencies.

2. Review of Related Literature

There are numerous definitions of critical thinking; however, recent attention to critical thinking has fostered consensus about critical thinking as a cognitive process involving the use of judgment and reflection to increase the probability of a desired outcome (McCarthy, 2001). First, there is general agreement about the critical thinking cognitive process involving the primary components of analysis, interpretation, evaluation, inference, justification, and self-correction (McCarthy, 2001). These components comprise what critical thinking theorists refer to as a process that guides not only belief, but also action taken (Schunk, 1995, cited in McCarthy, 2001). It entails purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based (McCarthy, 2001). Critical thinking is also referred to as the art of evaluating the judgments and the decisions made by looking closely at the process that leads to those judgments and decisions or outcomes (Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000, cited in McCarthy, 2001). It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed—the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task (Kuhn, 1999).

Although there is no one single ubiquitous definition of critical thinking, many experts agree that critical thinking involves the process of reflecting upon thought-provoking ideas and concepts. Thinking is thus a postponement of immediate action, while it affects internal control of impulse through a union of observation and memory, this union being the heart of reflection (Lindner & Harris, 1992, cited in McCarthy, 2001). Thinking involves internal control or self-regulation of one's cognitive and affective processes. Critical thinking is reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do (Splitter, 2001).

Lipman (2003) maintains that critical thinking relies on criteria, is self-correcting, sensitive to context, and provides intellectual empowerment. "Critical thinking in any area involves being able to pursue one's questions through self-directed search and interrogation of knowledge, a sense that knowledge is contestable, and being able to present evidence to support one's arguments" (Pithers & Soden, 2000, p. 239). This thinking can be applied in all disciplines by posing searching questions, directing students to conduct independent research, encouraging them to question or challenge assertions, and then present their own fact-supported positions.

Reviewing the many definitions of critical thinking, Siegel (1988) identifies two rather different conceptions of critical thinking running through the related literature: the *pure skills* and the *skills plus tendencies* conceptions of critical thinking. According to Siegel, the pure skills conception of critical thinking concentrates entirely upon a person's ability to assess correctly or evaluate certain sorts of statements. A person is a critical thinker, from this viewpoint, if he or she has the skills, abilities, or proficiencies necessary for the proper evaluation of statements. However, as Siegel (1988) notes, this conception is incomplete because it overlooks the salience of the actual utilization of these skills and abilities in a person's everyday life. Siegel argues that critical thinking needs something more than skills.

Siegel calls the second conception of critical thinking the *skills plus tendencies* conception, resting on the idea that a critical thinker has both skills or proficiencies necessary for the proper assessing of statements (and actions), and the tendency to exercise those proficiencies in their ordinary statement-assessing and action-assessing activities. Following this view, a person is a critical thinker if he or she is able and ready to think critically. As Siegel mentions this conception of critical thinking extends critical thinking beyond the skill of assessing statements and actions. There are also significant dispositions, values and traits that a critical thinker needs to develop.

The second conception of critical thinking concerns the characterization not simply of a set of cognitive skills or criteria of reasoning assessment, but more importantly of a certain sort of person. To recognize this is to recognize the depth of the concept of critical thinking and the importance of character, values and other moral dimensions of the concept.

Paul (1985) also defines critical thinking as learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Along the same line of inquiry, Brookfield (1987) believes that critical thinking encompasses two interconnected processes, namely identifying and challenging assumptions, and imagining and exploring others. Pithers and Soden (2000) agree that critical thinking involves a number of abilities such as identifying a problem and the assumptions on which it is based, focusing the problem, analyzing, understanding and making use of inferences, inductive and deductive logic, and judging the validity and reliability of assumptions and sources of data.

2.1. The Significance of Critical Thinking in EFL Instruction

Studying critical thinking skills of learners has been of significant research interest and one of the dominant research areas in educational contexts in various countries (Rezaei et al, 2011). Education psychologists such as Huitt (1998) have pronounced that critical thinking is a very important element of schooling in the twenty first century. Huitt notes that in the information

age, *thinking* plays a significant role in one's success in life. He goes on to say that the movement toward the information age has shifted attention to good thinking as a significant element of life success. These changing conditions require new outcomes, such as critical thinking, to be embarked upon as a focus of schooling. Old standards of simply being able to score well on a standardized test of basic skills, though still appropriate, cannot be the sole criterion based on which to judge the academic success or failure of students.

In a similar vein, Chaffee (1985) mentions that enhancing students' critical thinking abilities is the core of meaningful education (cited in Rezaei et al, 2011). Chaffee explains that meaningful education halts students from involving in the unreflective learning of information, and equips them with the tools necessary to understand thoroughly the world they are in.

According to Tang (2009, cited in Nkwetisama, 2011), critical thinking is one of the crucial aims of education as a whole, and is shaped by language. The inclusion of critical thinking skills into the EFL classroom can help develop students' communicative abilities and analytical thinking, and allows students to practice communicating in a variety of situations on global issues (Ishikawa et al, 2007, cited in Nkwetisama, 2011). Therefore, students learning a second/foreign language will need to learn and apply critical thinking skills within the context of the second language in order to think, evaluate and express their ideas in that language.

Given the tendency of language classrooms to promote debilitating anxiety (Horwitz et al, 1986, cited in Finch, 2001), and the generally agreed upon proposition that learning a new language demands flexibility and higher-order thinking skills (Liaw, 2007), it seems inevitable for EFL learners to be high critical thinkers possessing personal resources and effective coping strategies which can contribute to their academic achievement.

Supporting the necessity of teaching critical thinking skills in EFL contexts, Kabilan (2000, cited in Fahim & Saepoor, 2011) says the idea that language learners can be proficient by mastering the mechanisms of language was overshadowed by communicative approach in 1950s, emphasizing that learners become proficient by using the language not learning about language. Today, it is strongly believed that using language and knowing the meaning do not lead the learners to be proficient. They need to display creative and critical thinking through the language to express and support their ideas creatively and critically. However, he continues, critical thinking skills should not be taught separately but incorporated in the curriculum.

Atkinson (1997, cited in Birjandi & Bagherkazemi, 2010) states that the concept of critical thinking has entered the field of language education from L1 and already made its mark. However, he is skeptical as to whether it can be taken on faith, and believes language educators should consider its applicability to the field carefully and cautiously. He states four reasons for this speculation:

- (a) Critical thinking may be more on the order of a non-overt social practice than a well-defined and teachable pedagogical set of behaviors;
- (b) Critical thinking can be and has been criticized for its exclusive and reductive character;
- (c) Teaching thinking to nonnative speakers may be fraught with cultural problems;
- (d) Once having been taught, thinking skills do not appear to transfer effectively beyond their narrow contexts of instruction. (p. 71)

As far as the cultural load of critical thinking is concerned, Davidson (1998) cites Ennis (1996) as saying that the problem for educators is not whether critical thinking has value for people from non-Western cultures, but how and when critical thinking should be drawn upon. He continues:

Part of the English teacher's task is to prepare learners to interact with native speakers who value explicit comment, intelligent criticism, and intellectual assertion. Maybe even more than the L1 teacher, we as L2 teachers have good reason to introduce higher level students to aspects of critical thinking. If we do not, our students may well flounder when they are confronted with necessity of thinking critically, especially in an academic setting. (p.121)

However, Davidson concedes that in order to be usable in ELT, critical thinking must be clearly defined and adapted culture-wise. A point of caution is in order with regard to the confusion of critical thinking in TESOL and critical approaches to TESOL. Pennycook (1999) clearly recapitulates the point:

Critical thinking is generally an apolitical approach to developing a sort of questioning attitude in students; critical approaches to TESOL have to do with a political understanding of the location of pedagogy and the development of a method of teaching aimed at transformation (p.341).

2.2. The Concept of Grammar

To many people, learning another language is essentially a question of grammar (Rivers, 1981). However, there is not any one explicit definition of grammar. It is a protean term,

meaning different things to different people, but often also used with varying references by the same speaker (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). For most people, it is the system of a language and refers to the language patterns that indicate relationships among words in sentences. As Rivers (1981) puts it, it is the rules of a language set out in a terminology which is hard to remember, with many exceptions appended to each rule.

At its core, the term grammar refers to either the inherent structure of words and sentences, i.e. morphology and syntax respectively, in a language; or to the study and description of this structure published as grammar rules in books (Whitesmoke, 2007). We unconsciously use grammar all the time when we use language for speaking, listening, reading and writing. Thus, when we want to improve our English language abilities, there is no escape from addressing grammar issues. Psychologists think of grammar as the subconscious mental rules that speakers follow to create language (Chastain, 1988). With a novel use of the word *grammar*, Chomsky (1965) points out that a child, who has learned a language, has developed an internal representation of a system of rules that determine how sentences are to be formed, used and understood. Thus, to Chomsky, grammar is not a property of a language, but a property of mind-tacit knowledge about what constitutes the native language and how it works (Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

From another perspective, “sociolinguists define grammar as the rules that govern the use of language in social situations” (Chastain, 1988, p. 66). Among linguists, grammar, as an object of study, is usually synonymous with inflection and syntax, which together determine how words combine into sentences. Syntax has to do with the sequence and occurrence of words in sentences, and inflection with the shape that words take as determined by grammatical rules (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). On the whole, all linguists disagree considerably on the meaning of grammar and that is why one may hear of Chomskyan grammar, Hallidayan grammar, Montague grammar, dependency grammar, phrase-structure grammar, slot-and-filler grammar, and so on and so forth.

The reason why grammars in the sense of systems of grammar or grammatical models abound is that language itself does not possess some self-evident organization which the linguist merely has to note own. Grammars, as parts of descriptions of language or languages, are ordered interpretations imposed upon them. While certain grammars are more *powerful* than others in that they capture the same facets and more, it is impossible to state absolutely that this or that grammar is *better* than another, since language has many facets and linguists tend individually to give emphasis to one or a few facets at the expense of others (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). However, from applied linguistics’ point of view, as pointed out by Richards

et al (1992), grammar is a basic description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. “The grammatical rules of a language do not tell us what to do. Rather, they tell us how to respond correctly within the structural system of the language” (Pollock, 1997, p. vii). They usually take into account the meanings and functions of sentences in the overall system of a given language.

Therefore, speaking or writing in a language requires an accurate in-depth knowledge of the grammar system, form and sentence structure. The development of accuracy in grammar is a complex issue, so that becoming a proficient speaker or writer in a second language entails mastering elements of structure, form, as well as sentence organization. The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1992) defines accuracy as the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. Therefore, the emphasis on accuracy deals with the production of structurally correct instances of second language. On the other hand, inaccuracy is a sign of erroneousness and results in the production of structurally wrong sentences which violates the goals of any language curriculum.

3. Statement of the Problem

Although many surveys and research studies have been conducted in the area of critical thinking, it still seems as if more research is needed. A number of issues concerning the value of researching into the effects of critical thinking ability in EFL/ESL instruction has been investigated; however, it is equally clear that further research needs to examine the effects of critical thinking ability (1) on different language constructs, such as grammatical accuracy; (2) with different proficiency level groups of learners; (3) in an EFL context, in which the amount of students’ exposure to L2 is much less than that of ESL; and (4) in less formal and non-academic settings, such as language schools, in which the main goal of the curriculum is teaching language through a communicative paradigm. Therefore, the present research has attempted to evaluate the effects of critical thinking ability on learners’ knowledge of grammar during instruction.

Drawing upon such a purpose, this research intends to seek answers to the following question:

-Does critical thinking ability have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners’ grammatical accuracy?

According to the above question, the study particularly aims at testing the following null hypothesis:

H₀: Critical thinking ability makes no significant contribution to Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy?

It was hoped that a systematic analysis of the study would indicate if higher critical thinking ability was benefiting the experimental group more in comparison with the control group.

4. Method

4.1. Participants

This study was conducted with upper intermediate English students. A total of 70 students participated in the study. The subjects were passing *Cambridge Passages*, and had the same level of grammar knowledge. The intended subjects whose age ranged from 19 to 31 were both male and female learners in coeducational classes, and were studying at upper intermediate level, in two distinct groups, comprising one experimental group and one control group. More detail on how participants were categorized into distinct groups is provided in section 4.4.

4.2. Instrumentation

The study implemented two grammar tests, namely a pre-test and a post-test to obtain the necessary data on subjects' pre- and post-instruction knowledge of grammar. The pre-test and the post-test were specifically designed for subjects' course of study, adapted from *Passages Placement and Evaluation Package* by Cambridge University Press (2005). Both the pre-test and the post-test included 40 items. The tests were comprised of different type items, such as multiple choice, gapped sentences and sentences to be transformed. The purpose of these tests was primarily tapping into the learners' grammar competence, as well as grammar proficiency before and after they received grammar instruction.

In order to tap into subjects' critical thinking ability, the Thesis-Analysis-Synthesis key (TASk) was used. TASk, which was developed by Unrau (1997), measures subjects' critical thinking ability based on a 0 to 10 scale.

4.3. Design

The study was conducted using the quasi-experimental method of research. Based on the scores obtained from the TASk, one experimental group and one control group were determined. The subjects in both the experimental group and the control group received

grammar instruction during the course of study. Because of the problems prevalent to conducting this type of study, such as being unable to sample a far more number of the candidates, it tended to approach a quasi-experimental design.

4.4. Procedure

The grammar pre-test and the TASK were run among all the students in the first session of the term. Afterwards, the students handed in their papers for correction. The intended subjects were then divided into two groups according to the TASK scores in order to pass a supplementary grammar course based on *Cambridge Passages*, and to receive grammar instruction. The experimental group was comprised of the top thirty five subjects who did better in the TASK in comparison with the other thirty five participants. In other words, the top thirty five subjects were regarded as high critical thinkers based on their TASK scores and hence were included in the experimental group. The other subjects comprised the control group; yet both the experimental group and the control group received grammar instruction during the course.

4.5. Data Collection and Scoring

After ten sessions that the instruction had been given to the groups, a post-test was run to figure out the extent of subjects' post-instruction knowledge of grammar. As already mentioned, the pre-test and the post-test were comprised of different type items, such as multiple choice, gapped sentences and sentences to be transformed. Since the correct answers to the test items had already been available, that is the tests were discrete point objective test format, only one rater sufficed to score the papers. For more details on characteristics of a discrete point objective test see Baker (1989, p.34).

Neither of the tests carried negative marks and the subjects were free to express answers to the questions. Subjects' scores were their number of correct answers. Therefore, the maximum grade for each participant would be 40 out of 40 on each test. After the required data was collected, the t-test was run to find out if the difference between the subjects' critical thinking ability had left any impact on learners' knowledge of grammar. The required t-test was carried out in Microsoft Excel 2010.

4.6. Results

As mentioned earlier, the subjects were expected to have relatively the same knowledge of grammar prior to giving grammar instruction. To ensure the homogeneity of the groups, before the subjects were exposed to instruction, a pre-test was conducted to all the participants of the study in order to figure out their pre-test knowledge of grammar. Table 1 presents the obtained results.

Table 1 *Pre-test Results*

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Number of Students</i>	<i>Mean Score</i>	<i>Variance</i>
<i>High Critical Thinkers</i>	35	23.7	12.631
<i>Low Critical Thinkers</i>	35	22.8	20.4413

In Table 1, the pre-test results show little diversity between the two different groups, so that the first group, i.e. experimental group which comprised of high critical thinkers, showed an obtained mean score of 23.7. The calculated variance for this group was 12.631. The observed mean score for the second group, i.e. control group which comprised of low critical thinkers, was 22.8 with a variance of 20.4413.

After the instruction was given, a post-test was run in order to observe the effects of grammar instruction on the different group conditions. The following table presents the results of this test.

Table 2 *Post-test Results*

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Number of Students</i>	<i>Mean Score</i>	<i>Variance</i>
<i>High Critical Thinkers</i>	35	29.3	16.2862
<i>Low Critical Thinkers</i>	35	25.1	16.9896

As can be seen in Table 2, the different groups' knowledge of grammar was altered by the effects of subjects' critical thinking ability. The post-test reveals progress in the mean score of both of the groups. Moreover, the variance between the post-test scores, which has a direct influence on the interpretation of the results, has also shown a considerable difference in comparison with the pre-test. However, these changes are interpreted differently, unless they are analyzed and compared by precise statistical procedures.

To observe a better schematic representation of the obtained results, an illustrative diagram was generated. Figure 1, below, shows the mean score of the pre- and the post-tests for the two condition groups. As can be observed in the figure, the mean score for members of each group showed a relative progress after the instruction. However, the high critical thinking ability group seems to show a relatively better progress after receiving the instruction. In other words, the figure depicts that the experimental group, i.e. the high critical thinkers, outperformed the control group who were regarded as low critical thinkers in comparison with the former group, in the post-test.

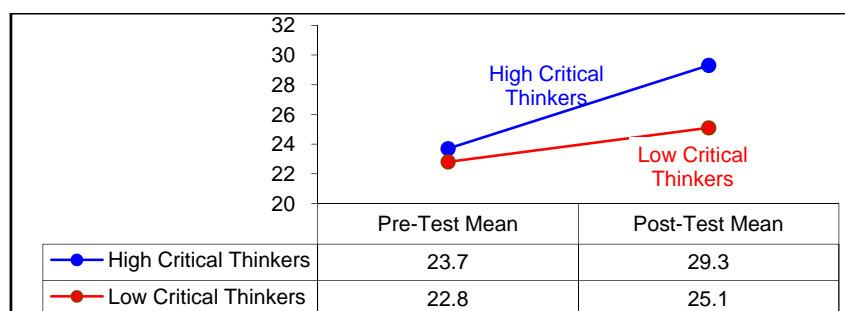


Figure 1 Representation of the Difference between Mean Scores Progress

4.7. Data Analysis and Discussion

After observing a pictorial comparison of the obtained data, all the collected data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel 2010. In order to have a better understanding of the differences between the groups, the t-test was run on the pretest and the posttest mean scores. The related data analysis is shown in Table 3 and 4 respectively.

Table 3 T-value of the Difference in the Pre-test Mean Scores between the Two Condition Groups

Groups	N	Mean	Variance	T-value	T (critical)
High Critical Thinkers	35	23.7	12.631	0.8571	2.6682
Low Critical Thinkers	35	22.8	120.4413		

As shown in Table 3, the results for the t-test indicate that the two groups of the study did not differ significantly in their pre-test grammatical accuracy ($t_{crit} = 2.6682$, $p < 0.01$). This finding may be due to the fact that subjects, in these groups, had received the same level of grammar input prior to participating in the study and had a relatively similar level of grammar knowledge.

On the other hand, the results for the t-test on the post-test mean scores indicate that there were significant differences in groups' post-test grammatical accuracy ($t_{crit} = 2.6632$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4 T-value of the Difference in the Post-test Mean Scores between the Two Condition Groups

Groups	N	Mean	Variance	T-value	T (critical)
High Critical Thinkers	35	29.3	16.2862	3.9879	2.6632
Low Critical Thinkers	35	25.1	16.9896		

As shown in Table 4, the results of the t-test indicate that there was a significant difference in the mean scores of post-test grammatical accuracy. The results of the t-tests indicate that

the mean scores of the high critical thinking ability group and low critical thinking ability group are significantly different ($t = 2.6632, p < 0.01$).

5. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Based on the constructivist approach to learning, critical thinking instruction includes seeking and valuing students' points of view, fostering instructor-student co-learning relationships, challenging learner suppositions and then allowing learners to reflect on those discussions, and finally, assessing critical thinking and using caution in evaluating (Siegel, 1999, cited in McCarthy, 2001). Aiming at infusing higher order thinking skills and dispositions across the curriculum, constructivist instruction considers multiple learner viewpoints, perspectives, options, and ways to solve problems. It requires fostering open-mindedness to multiple perspectives especially in dealing with student diversity and challenging, complex situations and ways to solve ill-structured problems. Constructivist instruction needs to involve each learner's perspectives, value every input, motivate and reward good but challenge poor critical thinking.

Supporting EFL students as they actively practice the skills of inquiry, reflection, discovery, and risk-taking is part of helping them become critical thinkers. Rojas (1996, cited in Reyes, 2009) stressed the importance for students of gaining "new understandings" by not settling for a "world filled with few questions, easy answers, and perfect practices". Embedding critical thinking skills in EFL courses can help provide students with tools they need to enhance their daily learning experiences, problem-solve, team-build, and boost their strategic spirit, defined by Tishman et al (1995, cited in Reyes, 2009) as enthusiasm for systematic thinking and the tendency to invent and use thinking strategies in response to challenging situations.

All students need to learn how to develop independence and confidence as learners, and most importantly, gain a strong sense of their own thinking and learning processes. In the EFL setting, carefully designed teaching can help students develop independence and confidence as learners, which can in turn increase their academic motivation as they become more successful in school and in their real-life practice. Chamot (2002, cited in Reyes, 2009) proposed learning strategies for EFL students, including organizational planning, predicting, using one's knowledge and experience, monitoring comprehension, taking notes, visualizing, making inferences, using resources, asking questions, summarizing, cooperation, and self-evaluation. According to Chamot "when students develop metacognition, the awareness of

the learning processes and strategies that lead to success, they are more likely to plan how to proceed with a learning task, monitor their own performance on an ongoing basis, find solutions to problems encountered, and evaluate themselves upon task completion” (p. 20). Moreover, the utilization of critical thinking strategies would help learners improve their stress-management skills. It is absolutely crucial for EFL teachers to encourage students to use their thinking abilities and provide them with challenging opportunities to reflect, grow, and learn (Kamali & Fahim, 2011). In other words, it is the responsibility of teachers to educate students for inquiry, problem solving, critical and creative thinking, and reflection which can contribute to their progress in language learning.

Along the same line of inquiry, the findings from the present study add to the growing body of research that has investigated the effects of critical thinking on language competence. Because little to no research has specifically investigated the effects of critical thinking on developing grammatical accuracy in the Iranian EFL context, the findings of the present study are noteworthy. From this study of the significance of critical thinking, teachers will be able to infer the nature of learners’ critical thinking ability and its impacts on grammatical knowledge of the target language at a given stage in their learning career. It is recommended that teachers aid students to develop a better understanding of critical thinking.

The findings of this study advise English teachers in schools, language institutes and universities to use techniques in order to develop critical thinking ability of their learners. One possible remedy to improving learners’ critical thinking ability is to familiarize students with thinking critically. Moreover, teachers are encouraged to shift their teacher-centered classes to learn-centered ones. In this way, students would share their ideas about a given grammatical point with the whole class. This can also be a help for students to self-correct their own errors, so that they would gradually become autonomous learners.

In order to contribute for research into the role of critical thinking in EFL instruction, the present study investigated the extent to which this ability improves Iranian English learners’ grammatical accuracy. Taking data analysis as well as the previous discussions into consideration, we can now answer the research question mentioned earlier in this paper.

Does critical thinking ability have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners’ grammatical accuracy?

The study found that critical thinking had a great effect on the grammatical accuracy of Iranian English learners. Therefore, it can be confidently claimed that between the two groups of the study, the experimental group, i.e. high critical thinkers, have potentially greater ability in developing their grammatical accuracy. Accordingly, English teachers are

recommended to get familiar with and adopt different types of strategies in teaching critical thinking abilities to their students.

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Title

Grammaticalization , Studying (ra) Object Marker in Persian

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Abstract

There are different concepts of grammaticalization. Also there are examples of grammaticalization which are accepted as prototypes by linguists. For example all of the languages make distinction between morphological and grammatical words, it is often seen that the roots of grammatical words are originated from morphological words.

Keywords: Grammaticalization, Morphologization, Persian object marker (ra)

1. Introduction

According to Hopper and Traugott (2003) when a morphological word gets the characteristics of grammatical words, it is said that the word became grammaticalized. While grammaticalized, morphological elements changes to dependent morphemes or to grammatical elements without losing their morphological position. One kind of grammaticalization is morphologization. In this process a dependent morpheme changes and diminishes to a dependent morpheme. Here the morpheme lose its meaning and gets a grammatical role instead. Some of the linguists believe that all of the dependent morphemes are built with this process.

2. **Morphologization;** Is a kind of grammaticalization. It occurs within the clause. This process means combination of previous independent elements with each other especially changing clitics to inflectional morphemes. Morphologization is related to frequent use of syntactic structures. Some linguists like Chafe (1970) believe that syntax itself is morphology and part of speech-sentence- is built with the same rules which built internal structure of words. Studying grammaticalization approves that hypothesis. In which the mental boundaries of structures like sentence, clause and word are separated arbitrarily and there is a relation among them. While it is possible that in synchronic stage there would be some reasons for appearing these structures, in diachronic (historical) stage the relation between stem and an affix is observed just in a context of which they are derived. Morphologization is a part of grammaticalization which contains second and third part of a cline;

Morphological elements > clitics > affix

There is always not enough witnesses for this diagram, but most of the words losing their independency are included for the process of cliticization. [Clitics are important factors in creating morphologized structures]. It always happens that “syntactic set of an especial word like a noun be morphologized with an especial clitic like a proposition” (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p.131). There are two forms of morphologization. First grammaticalization changes which occur in a set and second the changes occurring in argument structure especially in markers for subject and object.

3. **Morphologization in marker words;** One of the most famous examples of this process is object marker (ra) in Persian language. It is a good example of one way cline in which a word (morpheme) changes to postposition then changes to a prefix. The generalization of this grammaticalization can be regarded from dimensions; first animacy hierarchy and second familiarity. From the first dimension point of view, there is a hierarchy for generalization in linguistic rules;

Human nouns > other animals > non animals > abstract nouns

According to the second dimension point of view and according to specificity hierarchy, nouns having the most examples of referents contain the most generalization comparing to the nouns which have less examples of referents;

+specific/+referent > -specific/+referent > -specific/-referent

For example specific nouns appear very frequently in subject position comparing to non specific nouns in English language. Also we use passive voice to prevent of using non specific nouns in subject position (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p.154).

Now we are going to study the historical change of Persian object marker (ra).

3.1. (ra) in old Persian; this word in old Persian was used with the form of (radiy) to show the reason of doing an action (kent 1950, p.205).

3.1.1 avahyaradiy vayam haxamanisiya qahyamahy.

“For this reason we are called haxamanisian.” (kent 1950, p.116).

a) (ra) in middle Persian; this word was used as (rad/ray) with vast variety of usages. Dabir Moghaddam (1990) listed the whole usages of (ra) in middle Persian. here are some examples; Goal – to justify an action;

O pars giriftan I artanser radamat. “He came to pars to catch the artanser (the king).

b) Reason (because of, for the reason of)

Gannak menoi danise rad hachastih I ohramazd amakah but.

“The devil (Satan) because of his ignorance was not aware of Hormoz presence”.

C) papak rad pus-e hast “Babak has a son”

3.2. (ra) in classic Persian; its usage is often is bound to four roles; complementary, indirect, dative and direct object.

a) Dative object

داناڤي را همتاي نڤست. There is no counterpart for knowledge.

b) Direct object

من تو را دوست دارم. I love you.

c) Indirect object

شاه او را هديه اي فرستاد. King sent him a present.

d) Dative object

بزرگي را پرسيدند از سيرت علما.

They asked from an outstanding person about the scientists manners.

3.3. (ra) in modern Persian; Karimi (1980) says that if in a noun group there be the concept of obliqueness and specificity altogether, the presence of (ra) is compulsory. Obliqueness is a general concept for all of the syntactic positions with exception of subject position. She also says that a noun can be in object position and no proposition appears before it. Dabir moghaddam (1990) express that there is a close relation between syntax and discourse. He believes that just A NOUN WHICH IS IN THEME POSITION CAN ACCEPT (RA). In other words (ra) as a direct object marker namely the most prominent position in all of the objects accompanies every themed position from embedded sentences without its subject and nominal part of a compound verb.

Shokouhi and Kipka (2003) believe that “(ra) is the sign of specificity of discourse referents. They think that (ra) is a sign to specify the object” (p. 953). In informative sentences (ra) is

felicitous instead of specificity and in interrogative sentences it is used to identify specificity and finally (ra) is used with generic objects when we are going to show that these objects are deduced from the previous discourses.

4. Historical evolution of (ra); (ra) as an object marker in old Persian was used for expressing the reasons of an action. Its form was (radiy) at that time. In middle Persian, its form was (rad/ray) and it was a prefix for showing dative, complementary, direct and indirect objects. It never comes with non specific objects. In modern Persian (ra) as a prefix and a morpheme is the sign of direct object. Its use for dative and complementary object is common. “In modern period of Persian grammaticalization of (ra) was completed and used for all of the specific objects namely dative, benefactor, complementary and etc objects” (Hopper and Traugott, 2003, p.158).

There are three referable stages between ninth to fourteenth centuries;

First stage (middle Persian); (ra) as a postposition was used for complementary and benefactor objects.

Second stage (classical Persian); (ra) as a postposition was used as a marker for the objects of benefactor, complementary and specific direct objects.

Third stage (modern Persian); (ra) is used for almost all of the objects especially as an absolute sign for direct objects. In modern Persian (ra) is used as a pragmatic sign of specificity from one hand, and from the other hand its use was confined to semantic role. For example;

A) Arabi – o baladi ? “can you speak Arabic ?“

B) Turki – ra baladi ? “can you speak Turkish?”

(ra) may contain non- specific objects also;

a) Dalane deraze tarik -i - ra peymud

“He passed a long dark tunnel.”

In this stage (ra) roles are used to make prominent the noun groups which are object of verb Regardless of their animacy and specificity. Such a uniformed discourse positions which are grammaticalized are a common phenomenon.

“Expanding of animacy and specificity hierarchy of (ra) is in contrast with semantic role hierarchy. Here (ra) is never used in a context other than direct object context and never used with other objects. The reasons of these contrasts are not clear, but it may be in relation with tendency of this case marker to syntactic marker” (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p. 160).

Comparison of (ra) usage in different periods of Persian language shows that all of the changes was in a parallel line to unify it’s syntactic role as a marker for direct object.

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Title

A Critical Inquiry into the Current State of Neurolinguistic Research Neglect in Second Language Pedagogy

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Biodata

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Abstract

Since the emergence of neurolinguistics in applied linguistics, a bulk of research has yielded some prosperous findings for the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) over the last decades. However, the magnitude of the application of neurolinguistic studies to second language pedagogy has often been a moot issue in the historiography of language teaching. As a result, researchers in this field have faced with some conflicting and inconsistent results and viewpoints concerning the pedagogical applicability of neurological discoveries for second language instruction. In light of such research-based concern, the current paper first attempts to survey and clarify the points of contention for and against this issue via a reflection on the most recent neurolinguistic contribution to second language pedagogy called *bimodality theory* (Danesi, 2003). Second, it aims to address a perceptible research gap or neglect in the circle of second language research for pedagogy-driven neurolinguistic theories such as bimodality theory. Finally, some concluding remarks are offered for factors accounting for inception of the above phenomenon in the area of second language teaching research and some suggestions are put forward in favor of a balanced alternative neurolinguistic perspective for second language practitioners as well.

Keyword: Neurolinguistic applications, Second language research, Second language pedagogy, Bimodality theory

1. Introduction

By definition, neurolinguistics is a branch of neuroscience that studies the diverse dimensions of the relation between the human brain and language. It is mainly concerned with the study of language production and comprehension in relation to the brain structures and functions. The emergence of the scientific discipline of neurolinguistics is traced in the 19th century and strongly related to the case studies of patients who suffered a stroke (Stavrakaki, 2012). In the field of neurolinguistics, a lot of ink has been spilt in discussing how human language is represented in the brain and how language learning neurologically takes place in L1 and L2 systems. To elaborate further on the nature and scope of neurolinguistic research, more recently Nergis (2011) argues that neurolinguistics mainly investigates "linguistic development of normally developing subjects, language loss in patients with brain damage, and language use by people with specific language impairment" (p. 143).

So far, some prominent and well-grounded brain studies have been conducted in the area of language acquisition exploring brain functions (see Abutalebi, 2008 and also Jacobs & Schumann, 1992 for synopses) and its complex structures to propose some neurolinguistic theories, namely *Cerebral Dominance/Lateralization* and *Critical Period Hypothesis* (for extensive reviews, see Bialystok, 1997; Bickerton, 1981; Birdsong, 2006; Lenneberg, 1967; Scovel, 1969, 1988, Singleton, 2005), *Connectionism Theory* and *Parallel Distributed Processing (PDP) Approach* (see Bowers, 2002; McClelland, Rumelhart, & PDP Research Group, 1986; Ney & Pearson, 1990; Sokolik, 1990) and *Bimodality Theory* (Danesi, 1986, 2003). Thus, it is clear that the ever-increasing knowledge of brain has been fast becoming a part of the issues that researchers and practitioners deal with in SLA and ELT professionally.

Given the fact that it is not irrational in nature for second language researchers and practitioners to seek insights from the brain sciences such as neurolinguistics for more effective instruction (Danesi, 1986; Nergis, 2011; Spolsky, 1989), only a limited number of attempts, however, have been made to particularly crystallize neurolinguistic findings into language teaching methods during the last few decades.

In a similar vein, Kim-Rivera (1998) notes that few studies have approached second language teaching from the aspects of neurolinguistics attempting "to apply neurolinguistic discoveries to the development of concrete prepositions that could guide second language teachers" (p. 91). In this sense, Danesi (2003) likewise contends that over the last decades the foray into the neurosciences has been truly invaluable and productive for language teaching practices culminating in the design of three groundbreaking "*Neurolinguistic Methods*",

namely Lozanov's (1979) *Suggestopedia*, Asher's (1977, 1981) *Total Physical Response*, and Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *Natural Approach*. The aforementioned methods were proposed with a focus on the involvement of the right hemisphere (RH) of the brain in the process of second language learning (Young & Danesi, 2001).

Drawing upon the recent endeavors utilizing pedagogical applications of neurolinguistic findings vis-à-vis SLA and Second Language Teaching (SLT), Danesi's (1986) *bimodality theory* has virtually enriched the body of knowledge of SLA and SLT. Seemingly the advent of bimodality theory has inaugurated an unprecedented neurolinguistically-based explanation for success and/or failure of second language teaching methodology. In effect, it can be argued that this theory being later amended and expanded by Danesi (2003) to a set of pedagogical maxims, has paved the way for the development of a "*Bimodal*" pedagogy (a term associated with bimodality theory) which might be considered as a preliminary step to initiate a neurolinguistically-oriented methodological undertaking to approach the circle of second language methodology.

In line with advocating a "Bimodal" pedagogy derived from bimodality theory for second language teaching, Danesi (2003) raises the notion of *SLT Dilemma* which claims that despite considerable research on SLA and SLT, language learners rarely achieve high levels of proficiency, irrespective of their background or the employed methodology. In this sense, Mahmoodzadeh (2011) has lately traced the major scholastic trends to this challenging dilemma in the area of SLT during the past two decades. In this respect, he offers a classified overview of two main theoretical trends to resolve this dilemma: one theoretical trend expressing an *ethno-culturally-oriented methodological reaction* with a focus on the evolving perspectives on language teaching methods and approaches after the emergence of *post-method era*; and the other theoretical trend expressing a *neurolinguistically-oriented methodological reaction* to the SLT Dilemma which is closely related to the bimodality theory. In this case, Mahmoodzadeh (2011) maintains that whereas, the former trend is significantly more subject to the phenomenon of contextual variations and might not find an optimal solution to all endless contextual and cultural teaching constrains, the latter trend seems to favor some systematic frameworks which are not context-specific/sensitive and perhaps it is unlikely to be affected by the ecological challenges and impediments of second language pedagogy. Hence, the distinctively methodological foundations incorporated in the latter trend might make it possible to fit various socio-cultural teaching environments and stand the test of time accordingly. Given the above groundbreaking neurological explanation for the SLT Dilemma, it can be inferred that the time for reopening the agenda of

neurolinguistic applications to second language teaching is perhaps on the horizon in the third millennium.

To come up with a sufficient understanding of the issue to open the debate, first a brief account of the underlying tenets and premises of bimodality theory as a concrete and good case of contemporary neurolinguistic applications is given; second the contribution of research-based implications of this theory with respect to SLT is shortly discussed. Third, a synopsis for the hotly debated critiques regarding the application of neurolinguistic research to second language learning/teaching is discussed. And finally some general issues are raised with reference to the existing clear-cut neurolinguistic research gap in the area of second language pedagogy.

1.1. Bimodality Theory and its Relevance to Second Language Pedagogy

To begin with, it should be noted that Bimodality is an educational construct that provides a lucid theoretical foundation for second language instruction in the classroom (Danesi & Mollica, 1988). In principle, "Bimodal" pedagogy, one of the new views on SLT which radically ushered in a new era of research in second language learning and teaching (Mahmoodzadeh, 2011), suggests that the reason that so many methods and approaches in SLT have relatively tended to fail lies in the fact that all of them were in part unimodal, that is, focusing on only one of the two hemispheres of the brain. For example, on the one hand, methods such as Grammar Translation Method or Audio-lingual Method focused only on the left hemisphere (L-Mode) while, on the other hand, the Communicative, Humanistic, and Neurolinguistic methods and approaches overemphasized the right hemisphere (R-Mode) to the detriment of the L-Mode (see also Danesi, 2003).

As Danesi (1988) discusses, at the end of the 19th century, the designation of the left hemisphere as major or dominant and the right as weak or minor caused teaching methods to be unimodal, that is, to concentrate on the structural form of language. The pedagogical implications of this signified a tendency to neglect those features associated with the right hemisphere. Further research continued to strengthen the views that the left hemisphere was programmed for form and the right controlled content, in that it deciphered new stimuli in an efficient manner. Therefore, the methods that pursued grammatical and linguistic competence only exercised the left hemisphere actively.

In addition, even though the techniques used in inductivist and deductivist methods focused on developing L-Mode control of second language, it should be noted that some of the techniques employed in the inductivist method, for example, the use of situational practice, the incorporation of visual stimuli, the contextualization of practice routines did

have an R-Mode focus. And, it might explain why they have survived to this day as effective techniques on their own (Danesi, 2003). However, on the other hand, Communicative, Humanistic, Neurolinguistic methods and approaches were designed with an opposite unimodal bias. They typically overemphasized and utilized R-Mode functions to the detriment L-Mode functions. This is why they always generated much interest at first, but seldom produced high level of proficiency at the end of a course of study (Danesi, 2003). Further, it should be added that

No method or approach has ever been designed intentionally to be unimodal. It is more accurate to think of SLT practices generally as placeable on a continuum with two extreme L-Mode and R-Mode endpoints (i.e. GTM & Silent Way methods, respectively) at which bimodality theory suggests the mid-point of this continuum as the most appropriate for SLT practice (Danesi, 2003, p. 49).

In reaction to unilaterally modal bias seen in the above language methodologies, Danesi (2003) describes the "Bimodal" pedagogy as a new fledged attempt to provide neurolinguistic foundation for language instruction in the classroom. It is premised on the assumption that there is a natural flow of information from the right to the left hemisphere of the brain during language learning. In fact, bimodality theory's response to the SLT Dilemma which is mainly based on the findings of neurolinguistic studies suggests that the optimal solution to the current dilemma lies in the systematic utilization of both hemispheres of the brain during the process of language learning. In effect, as Danesi (2003) states, any instructional system that privileges only one of the two modes of brain is bound to fail sooner or later because such a system has been unimodally developed.

Nevertheless, as Danesi and Mollica (1988) discuss, bimodality does not dictate any specific instructional routine or style; it can be adapted into any textbook, regardless of emphasis. Thus, this theory is compatible with the notion of proficiency in that it is a multifaceted concept that adapts to all methodologies, approaches, and techniques.

It is also worth mentioning that the principles and techniques of bimodality theory have been developed and extended during the last two decades. In essence, Danesi (2003) proposes the most recent pedagogical implications of bimodality theory through a rich array of pedagogical principles and techniques. These principles and techniques can assist language teachers to improve their teaching. Also, they can inform syllabus designers and material developers of the latest findings of neurolinguistic studies so that they are able to design more efficient ELT materials for EFL/ESL learners.

However, they are four pedagogical principles derived from the recent relevant brain research corresponding directly to the application of bimodality theory in SLT. Danesi (2003) introduced these principles neatly as follows: (1) *the modal flow principle*; (2) *the modal focusing principle*; (3) *the contextualization*; (4) *the conceptualization principle*. The consolidation of these principles would effectively enhance learning of the language, as they integrate both structure and communication, and thus educate both hemispheres at the same time. The summary of these informative principles are concisely explained below.

By definition, the modal flow principle (also known as modal directionality principle) "signifies that at first the experiential plane is activated (the R-mode), then new input flows to the analytical (the L-mode), as was generally the case with the inductive principle" (Mollica & Danesi 1998, p. 209). However, the principle of modal directionality should be utilized only with new input, so that foreign language learners may experience a new structure or concept before shifting to the formal explanation (Antenos-Conforti, 2001). Young and Danesi (2001) argue that during the initial learning stages, students need to assimilate new input through observation, induction, role-playing, simulation, oral tasks, and various kinds of interactive activities. But formal explanations, drills, and other L-Mode procedures must also follow these stages, since we have found that control of structure will not emerge spontaneously. Danesi (2003) divided the neurological basis of the brain during the process of learning a new language into three neurolinguistic stages and then identified the general procedures being used in each stage:

During an R-Mode Stage: Classroom activities should be student-centered and involve students and teacher in a complementary fashion. Novel input should be structured in ways that activate sensory, experiential, inductive forms of learning (dialogues, questioning strategies, simulations, etc.). And, the students' inductive and exploratory tendencies should be encouraged to operate freely when introducing new information.

During an L-Mode Stage: The focus here shifts to the teacher. The teacher should explain the structural and conceptual features of the new *materials* clearly using deductive and inductive techniques as warranted by the situation. And focusing on some problematic aspect of the subject being taught is to be encouraged if a student appears to have difficulty grasping it or using it with appropriate comparison to his/her L1 and with suitable exercise materials.

During an Intermodal Stage: The learner should be allowed to employ the new materials to carry out real-life verbal tasks, but only after he/she shows the ability or willingness to do so. Teaching new things or discussing matters of form and structure during this stage should

be avoided. Students should be allowed to find solutions to problems of communication on their own. Role-playing and work in pairs or groups is advisable for most students, although some may not wish to participate. The latter students can be assigned other kinds of creative tasks (e.g. writing).

Modal focusing principle is required at points in the learning process when, for instance, a learner appears to need help in overcoming some error pattern that has become an obstacle to learning. L-Mode focusing allows the learners an opportunity to focus on formal matters for accuracy and control while R-mode focusing allows the learners to engage in matters of understanding and conceptualization (Danesi, 2003). In fact, as Mollica and Danesi (1998) state, "the modal focusing stresses that, at some time during the learning process, students may need to concentrate on one mode or the other to digest new data, reinforce acquired structures or vocabulary, or simply think of what to say" (p. 210).

In terms of contextualization principle, Danesi (2003) argues that memorizing or pronouncing words in isolation, rehearsing speech formulas, or even practicing grammar without reference to some situation that typically entails them, rarely leads to learning. The reason is that language derives its meaning (usage) primarily from the context in which it is involved (i.e. its use). So, without sufficient context, it is unlikely that the brain can assimilate new input in any mnemonically functional way. Danesi (2003) also maintains that during an R-Mode Stage, the new material must contain references to cultural concepts in order for the brain to detect the appropriate meaning potential of the new structures whereas, during an L-Mode Stage, the practice and rehearsal of the new structures is greatly enhanced if practical or conceptual information is provided.

Concerning the conceptualization principle, Danesi (2003) discusses that a common observation of teachers indicates that students often produce L2 messages which are semantically anomalous when they attempt to speak or write spontaneously without some form of guidance. "The source of such anomaly in the unconscious tendency of learners to put together L2 messages on the basis of L1 concepts" (Danesi, 2003, p. 61). Thus, the language teacher must ensure that the two systems, that is, the linguistic and the conceptual are interrelated during all aspects and stages of instruction and practice. Moreover, in terms of dealing with incoming conceptual structures, Danesi (2003) argues that "the conceptualization principle can manifest itself in one of these three ways: (1) isomorphic (2) overlapping (3) differentiated" (p. 66). In this sense, Danesi (1993) likewise suggests the student learning a L2 must thus learn about the life of the language through his/her understanding of concept boundaries, metaphorical usage, proverbs, and conceptual domains.

Included in this domain of language are also all the nonverbal language of a target culture such as gestures, tone, social interactions and register.

1.2. A Review of Research into Pedagogical Applications of Bimodality Theory

In terms of the studies conducting on the basis of bimodality theory, Danesi (2003) notes that after the proposal of bimodality theory, a number of second language teachers and researchers, especially in Italy and North America began assessing the implications of this theory critically (see for example, Curro, 1995; Lombardo, 1988). One of the significant studies of bimodality construct is related to the research carried out by Pallotta (1993). In this study, the bimodal aspects of proficiency-oriented instruction were examined. After comparing the five workable principles of proficiency-oriented instruction developed by Omaggio (1986) with the viable tenets of bimodality theory, Pallotta (1993) concluded that Omaggio's principles of proficiency-oriented instruction represent a close parallel to the neurologically-oriented principles of Danesi's bimodality theory (as cited in Kim-Rivera, 1998). To grasp a better sense of understanding about the proficiency-oriented instruction, its five viable principles are briefly presented below:

- 1) Opportunities must be provided for students to practice using language in a range of contexts likely to be encouraged in the target culture....
- 2) Opportunities should be provided for students to practice carrying out a range of functions likely to be necessary in dealing with others in the target culture....
- 3) In proficiency-oriented methods, there is a concern for the development of linguistic accuracy from the beginning of instruction....
- 4) Proficiency-oriented methodologies respond to the affective needs of students as well as to their cognitive needs....
- 5) Proficiency-oriented methodologies promote cultural understanding and prepare students to live more harmoniously in the target language community (Pallotta, 1993, pp. 44-53).

Furthermore, Talebinezhad and Mahmoodzadeh (2011) have recently conducted a study focusing on the pedagogical applications of bimodality theory in a selection of both internationally-developed and locally-developed ELT textbooks used widely in Iran. They adopted Bimodality Models to come up with a new approach called *Bimodal Approach* to develop and evaluate ELT materials. In the end, the results of the study revealed that pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory appear to be significantly more applied in the design of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks than the locally-developed ones. The study also suggested that perhaps one of the main reasons for the inefficiency of the locally-developed ELT textbooks used in Iran was the marginality of the

pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory in them and that the textbooks need to be modified in order to be more in line with the pedagogical objectives of this theory.

By the same token, in another quite recent branch of endeavor investigating the bimodality theory, Mahmoodzadeh (2012) likewise examines the pedagogical applications of this theory from the ELT teacher's voice in the Iranian context. The purpose of the research was first to determine the extent to which ELT teachers utilize the principles of bimodality theory in their teaching and second to determine the extent to which ELT teachers implement these principles correctly in terms of their respective modal stages. The study also aims at exploring the ELT teachers' views concerning the applications of Danesi's (2003) modal techniques suggested for designing the learning activities of ELT textbooks to see whether ELT teachers corroborate the applications of these techniques. The corollaries of the study indicated that the teachers seemed not to be aware of the pedagogical purposes of these principles because they significantly failed to implement these principles successfully in the classroom, especially the principles belonging to the R-Mode Stage. In terms of the application of modal techniques, the majority of the teachers were found not to confirm the findings offered by Danesi (2003) to a statistically large extent. According to Mahmoodzadeh (2012), several important factors are suggested to account for the perceived research incongruity. In essence, it can not be only attributed to the ELT teachers' inability or lack of their understanding because several other factors have also given rise to this observed mismatch including the ELT materials, the ELT learners, and the educational curriculums.

2. SLA Critiques on the Shift of Focus in Favor of Neurolinguistic Applications

In the developmental course of neurolinguistic findings, this field has witnessed some cautions concerning its feasible jurisdiction in the realm of second language pedagogy on a number of grounds. For example, in the early 1980s, Scovel (1982) voiced his concern about the applications of neurolinguistic research to second language learning and teaching. In fact, he believes that any direct application of neurolinguistic research to foreign language teaching, in all likelihood, should be seriously turned down due to the fact that it is not necessary to employ either linguistic models or neurolinguistic research in vain to justify optimal pedagogy or to condemn inadequate classroom practices; rather, the contribution of neuropsychology, like that of linguistics, should be indirect and insightful. That is to say, "the pedagogical irrelevance of direct applications of neuropsychological research emphasizes the

ultimate futility of any attempts to seek a neurolinguistic reality to justify certain classroom techniques and behaviors" (Scovel, 1982, p. 328). In attempting to defend his claim, Scovel (1982) argues that

...1) neuropsychologists have studied competent bilingual, not language learners—the group we are concerned with, 2) experimental tasks are often more complex than envisioned, 3) the studies have dealt only with hemispheric lateralization and not with other dimensions of the brain, and 4) even if it were possible to teach primarily to one or more portions of the brain, quantity does not imply qualitative success at language learning (cited in Cohen, 1982, p. 306).

In the same vein, during the last decade some other researchers have expressed their disapproval for adopting an integrative approach concerning the pedagogical utility of neurolinguistic findings for second language research (e.g. Coch & Ansari, 2009; Goswami, 2006). To put it succinctly, Christodoulou and Gaab (2009) and also Willingham (2009) discuss that it will never be possible to offer new cogent L2 teaching methods that are rightfully based on neurological findings, as neuroscience is perceived to possess a descriptive rather than a prescriptive approach to informing educators.

More particularly, since the inception of bimodality theory, some researchers, however, have cast doubt on the pedagogical effectiveness of this theory. For example, Kim-Rivera (1998) argues that one of the issues concerning Danesi's bimodality theory is that it has been perhaps the lone concrete proposal for second language teaching from the perspective of neuroscience over the last decades. Another possible issue might be that few empirical studies have been carried out to investigate this theory (e.g. Danesi & Mollica, 1988; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Pallotta, 1993; Talebinejad & Mahmoodzadeh, 2011).

In this regard, almost two decades ago, Kim-Rivera (1998) rightly argues that only when a consistent pattern of salient results is achieved can theories such as bimodality be considered worthy as a theoretical basis for instructional practice. But this issue is perhaps still open to debate because it follows that the voiced objections to the applications of the neurolinguistic research has nearly placed the germinating roots of empirical studies at stake, withering due to the lack of sufficient attention and investigation during the last few decades.

3. The Crux of the Matter

Over the last few decades, the reiterated notes of caution against mapping over the neurolinguistic applications for second language pedagogy have virtually made second

language researchers undergo a state of quandary over this issue. As such, it comes down to the inferred presumption that the uttered unjust cautions has turned neurolinguistic domain into a rather vulnerable research area in terms of applicability and practical implication of its promoted and advocated assumptions concerning second language teaching.

Arguably, whereas neurolinguistic findings in general have been informative and insightful for second language researcher, seemingly they have fallen out of favor among a large number of second language practitioners particularly during the last two decades. An intriguing explanation is that it can be in part due to the fallaciously overemphasized arguments exerted against the applicability of neurolinguistic corollaries in second language teaching. In fact, as Nergis (2011) asserts, "researchers working on neuroscience and education should come up with a new approach or framework to negotiate these two fields of research to form sound suggestions" (p.143).

Following another line of argument, regarding SLA researchers, Jacob and Schuman (1992) likewise rightly indicate the plausible infancy of the current state of neurolinguistic research neglect in SLA studies almost two decades ago and urge language acquisition researchers not to play down the role of neurological contributions and consider SLA and the interdisciplinary field of neurolinguistics as two distant and discrete research realms. Instead, they call for adopting a more integrative perspective towards the two fields and thus suggest that SLA researchers begin to incorporate "a degree of neurobiological reality into their perception of the language acquisition process. Such a neurally inspired view helps to provide a common ground for evaluating and integrating various language acquisition perspectives" (p. 282). Even from solely linguistic viewpoint, some scholars (see for example Grimaldi, 2012; Grimaldi & Craighero, 2012) have recently cast doubt on the fertile integration of linguistics and cognitive neuroscience and have redrawn our attention to the necessity and usefulness of this legitimately interdisciplinary interface instead.

However, granted that establishing neurological foundation for second language research can not yield prescriptive approach to second language teaching, viewing neurolinguistic studies as a descriptive approach deprived of empirical and practical validity might be likewise a misconception. Thus, delving into investigating the applications of neurolinguistic research should not be manifested as discouraging attempts, thereby causing ELT researchers and practitioners to decline to get engaged in applying neurolinguistic findings to the given teaching milieus in vain endeavors to test the viability of their implementation. Seen this way, it can be metaphorically implied that paradoxically neurolinguistics is theoretically assumed to be sufficiently fruitful, but practically of kind of 'forbidden fruit'. In a nutshell, it can be

argued that despite the given demystified cautions against overgeneralizing neurolinguistic findings, perhaps we should be careful not to inhibit the spread of irrational generalization, at the expense of abandoning future attempts.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the author calls for a balanced alternative neurolinguistic perspective in which the fields of neurolinguistics and second language pedagogy are not only considered mutually exclusive but also they are considered mutually complementary. Thus, henceforth it is hoped that the relatively upheld passive representation of neurolinguistic applications to second language teaching will turn out to allow for a more active role with both indirect and, more importantly, direct pedagogical implications withstanding the test of time. However, such alternative perspective, while thought-provoking, still remains speculative since no sound consensus has been reached on this issue yet.

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Title

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Various Types of Error Feedback on Students L2 Writing Quality

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Abstract

Second language students' writing is a topic that has attracted considerable amount of interest from researchers and teachers alike. However, debate regarding whether corrective feedback on L2 writing helps student writers to improve the accuracy and overall quality of their writing has been prominent in recent years. The aim of this study is to describe the theoretical concerns in the provision of written feedback. The study compared and contrasted four different methods of written corrective feedback. 60 adult EFL students at the same level of language proficiency were assigned to four treatment groups to revise their writing across four different feedback conditions: (1) overt correction; (2) coded; (3) uncoded and (4) marginal. The findings of the study demonstrate that students' major difficulty in error correction lies in their failure to detect errors rather than the lack of knowledge. The outcomes further showed that those groups that received indirect feedback (coded, uncoded,

and marginal) outperformed the indirect group, among which the coded method was the most superior one for indicating both the location and type of the error. The students being addressed by the indirect methods could correct their meaning errors more than the direct group which mostly focused on surface errors. It could be concluded that less explicit feedback methods appeared to help students better revise their writing errors than overt correction methods. The findings of this study can provide teachers with precious information to direct their error correction policy.

Keywords: Corrective feedback; Overt correction; Coded feedback; Uncoded feedback; Marginal feedback

1. Introduction

As foreign language teaching has gradually come under the influence of theory and research on second language acquisition, language teachers expect that students learning a second language will make many errors. Cardelle and Corno (1981) in this respect proposed that systematic analyses of errors can provide useful information regarding the process of language acquisition because errors are signs of language learning development. Moreover, teachers must avoid using the correction strategies that might embarrass or frustrate learners (Weigle, 2002). On the other hand, learners' attitudes, motivation, and personality should be taken into consideration when providing feedback by teachers. Over the past two decades, considerable amount of attention has been paid to error correction in second language writing. Attitudes towards error correction, according to Lee (1997), have evolved from the strict avoidance of errors and thus quick and direct error correction before the 1960s, to the condemnation of error correction as something harmful in the late 1960s, and to a more critical view of the necessity and value of error correction in the 1970s and 1980s. The controversy over the topic of error correction; however, remained unresolved in the 1990s. According to Ferris and Roberts (2001) there is still no agreement on how teachers can best react to learners' errors. The necessity of the provision of feedback on learners' writings, according to Hyland and Hyland (2006), lies on the assumption that the more information students have about their responses the better they will understand why they make mistakes. Such understanding enables students to correct their mistakes thus increase their achievement (Kulhavy, 1977). How teachers should give feedback to second language students' writing is a topic that has attracted much interest from researchers and teachers alike. However, Hyland and Hyland (2006) argued that although feedback is a central aspect of second language

writing, the research has not proved its positive role in L2 development. Guenette (2007, cited in Ellis, 2008) justified this failure due to the lack of rigorous corrective feedback studies that systematically investigate different types of written corrective feedback. As a result, it would be vital for researchers and teachers to systematically identify different types of corrective feedback so that to increase the efficacy of corrective feedback provision on students' writing in EFL/ESL classes.

Error correction can be operationalized in terms of direct and indirect feedback (Bates, Lane & Lane, 1993). Direct feedback refers to overt correction of errors that is the teacher provides the correct form or structures for the students. If the student revises the text, s/he just needs to transcribe the correction into the final version. Indirect feedback, on the other hand, occurs when the teacher indicates that an error exists through prompting students about the location of errors (e.g. by underlining) and/or prompting students about the nature of the errors by means of a correction code. Here, teachers do not provide the correction thus letting the students know that there is a problem, however, leaving it to them to solve it. Second language acquisition theorists and ESL writing specialists alike, according to Lalande (1982), argue that students prefer indirect feedback because it engages them in guided learning and problem solving thus leading them to reflection about linguistic forms that can maintain long-term acquisition.

There are a number of studies demonstrating the efficacy of error feedback types from the teacher. A number of researchers (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991; Ashwell, 2000) found that in the EFL/ESL writing classroom, students constantly have expressed preferences for overt error correction or direct feedback. Their findings showed that students want, expect and value teacher feedback on their writing errors. However, some other researchers (e.g. Ferris, Chaney, Komura, Roberts & McKee, 2000; Lalande, 1982; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005)-to name a few-have pointed out the harmful effects of this type of error correction on students' attitudes towards writing; as a result they reported that indirect feedback helps students progress in accuracy overtime more than direct feedback. Their findings indicated that students prefer indirect feedback with error codes or labels attached to mark errors. Tribble (1994) suggested that it is important for teachers not to correct learners' errors and provide the correct response immediately. He believed that direct feedback is based on the assumption that students do not have the knowledge to correct errors. Hendrickson (1980) recommends a combination of indirect and direct error correction feedback techniques, ranging from underlining, circling, and insertion marks to deletion and fully explicit corrections.

A common type of error feedback technique in EFL/ESL classroom is the use of correction code which consists of a list of grammatical items such as noun, article, pronoun, preposition, etc. Lalande (1982) has found that students who used an error correction code made more improvements in writing than those who were given other types of error correction feedback. The use of correction code feedback is based on the assumption that students will realize the concept associated with grammatical terms used in error correction. Similar to this study, Semke (1984) found that overt correction of students' writing tended to have negative side effects on both the quality of subsequent compositions and their attitudes towards writing in a foreign language. Lee (1997) in his study found that students were significantly more able to correct errors that were underlined than errors that were either not marked or only marked in the margin. Ferris and Roberts (2001) in another study found that the two groups that received corrective feedback (either on type of error or on location) significantly outperformed the control group (no feedback); however, he didn't observe any significant differences between the two experimental groups. In another study in which Ferris (1999) investigated various kinds of teacher feedback on accuracy of both revision and subsequent writing, he found that direct correction of error by the teacher led to more correct revisions (88%) than indirect feedback (77%). He further concluded that teachers were tended to give indirect feedback to treatable errors and direct feedback to untreatable ones.

Tribble (1996) believes that the provision of feedback during the writing process requires the teacher to assume different roles such as 'audience', 'assistant', consultant' or 'reader' responding to more global errors of planning and content in student writing. These are in replace for the traditional role of the teacher as an authority in classroom. However, reports from the classroom, on the other hand, indicate that teachers still respond most frequently to mechanical errors. In a study of writing in the secondary schools, Chandler (2003) found that more than 85% of EFL teachers ranked mechanical errors as the most important benchmark for responding to student writing. Longer ago, in line with the above mentioned issue, Zamel (1985), recommended that L2 writing teachers pay more attention to the global or textual aspects of the writing assignment and less to surface-level concerns, thus becoming more 'writing teachers' rather than 'language teachers'. However, it should be noted that these findings are in contrast with Truscott's (1996) position who argues that error correction in L2 writing is useless and should be abandoned. He justifies his claim by arguing that because language acquisition is a gradual developmental process unlikely to be furthered by any transfer of explicit explicit suggestions, error correction is rejected. Moreover, he claims that

no studies have so far showed the effectiveness of error correction in writing. Zamel (1985) further found that ESL teachers approach students' writing with a similar attitude. When she compared ESL and content teachers' feedback on the same compositions, Zamel found that language teachers focused primarily on mechanics of writing, whereas, teachers from other disciplines responded most frequently to the ability of students on the presentation of facts and concepts. Hendrickson (1978) suggests that some errors have higher priority for correction than others such as the errors that hinder communication. He further added that, errors are not all the same for students because some errors are easier to correct than others in a way that research has shown that students are better at correcting surface errors (errors in spelling, punctuation, or word usage which do not influence meaning) than meaning errors (errors in logic which influence the meaning). Rutherford (1987) contends that when responding to students' writings, it is important that teachers assume that their learners already know much about language and communication. This is an important assumption which is hardly ever made in second language writing instruction. In this regard Yates and Kenkel (2002) added that, not only do writing teachers should read their students' texts from the perspectives of what learners know about communication, but also they should read students' texts from the perspective of what learners know about language.

Although a number of research studies have investigated the effectiveness of various types of corrective feedback on students' writing progress, research on written corrective feedback in foreign language learning has been scant and generally inconsistent. Sheen (2007) suggested that because of teachers' lack of precision and consistency, their correction of students' writing is little effective in minimizing errors. Moreover, there is still little agreement on what kind of error correction is more effective. On the other hand, few available studies have explicitly examined differences in accuracy, fluency and complexity among students who received various corrective feedback types. On behalf of the above mentioned shortcomings, the aim of the current study is to investigate the relative effectiveness of indirect and direct corrective feedback by comparing four types of error treatment-overt correction, coded, uncoded, and marginal-to examine the effect of each of which on improving the students' overall writing quality. The study addresses the issue whether error correction can be an effective way to improve the accuracy, fluency and complexity of students' L2 writing by presenting empirical data.

In order to investigate the potential impact of various types of error feedback on students' writing quality regarding the above mentioned problems, the following research questions can be formulated.

1. Is there any significant difference in the improvement of students' writing proficiency among the four groups of students receiving four different types of corrective feedback?
2. Which type of error correction feedback better works in reducing students' writing errors?

In order to answer the above mentioned research questions a 14-session sequence of composition, scoring, comparison and revision was performed using the following conditions:

1. **Overt correction:** In the overt correction group, the papers were completely corrected by the teacher, with the corrections covering all categories of lexical, syntactic, and stylistic errors. Errors in content or organization were not corrected. Once the papers were returned, the students in the overt correction group just needed to incorporate the teachers' corrections in their original compositions.
2. **Coded feedback:** In the coded feedback group, the papers were marked in an abbreviated code system in which the type of error was indicated on the student's paper. Students in this group required to decipher what the teacher meant by the markings in order to revise their compositions.
3. **Uncoded feedback:** In the uncoded feedback group, the papers were marked over using a pink text-highlight-marking pen. The difference between the uncoded feedback and the coded feedback is in the salience of error marking in a way that for the uncoded feedback the location of the places in need of editing or revision was specified but did not indicate exactly why the teacher chose to mark that part.
4. **Marginal feedback:** In the marginal feedback group, as suggested by Robb et al. (1986) the papers were marked with the least salient method. The number of errors per line was totaled and written in the margins of the student's paper. Students were then required to reread each line of their composition to search for the places in need of editing or revision. Once they found the error, they had to correct it. Table 1 summarizes the four corrective feedback methods.

Table 1 *Types of corrective feedback methods*

Feedback type	Location of error	Content of error	Teacher's modeling
Overt Correction	✓	✓	✓
Coded	✓	✓	×
Uncoded	✓	×	×
Marginal	×	×	×

2. Method

A total number of 60 adult Iranian intermediate learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) studying at the intermediate level of the ILI (Iran Language Institute) participated in

this study. The reason for employing intermediate learners of English was due to the fact that they have already gained some awareness on paragraph writing. These participants included 30 males and 30 females with an age range of 15 to 38. The students were assigned to four different classes based on the treatment they were supposed to receive. A paper-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was administered prior to the study to make sure that all the participants are the same level of language proficiency. The result of the TOEFL test indicated no significant difference between the four groups prior to study ($F=0.18$). It should be noted that all four classes were taught by the same teacher-researcher in the same way; yet, the only difference was that the type of feedback treatment given to each group was different. For the sake of this study, the students attended a total of 14 sessions. The classes met for 75 minutes twice a week over six weeks from October to mid-November 2011. Students were reminded frequently to prepare their essay writings between 200 to 250 words and then hand it to the researcher in the following session. Having provided the specific feedback for each particular group by the researcher, all learners in the four classes were then required to revise their weekly writing based on the feedback they received by the teacher. The revisions were then returned to the teacher-researcher in the next session to be checked for accuracy, fluency and complexity by the instructor. The instructor then evaluated the students' essays and scored them based on the educational grading system of Iran (between 0 to 20). Each class received a different type of corrective feedback method. The first group ($N=15$) received overt correction, the second group ($N=15$) received coded feedback, the third group ($N=15$) received the uncoded feedback and finally the fourth group ($N=15$) received marginal feedback. The summary of data collection and the research procedures appear in Table 2.

Table 2 *Summary of data collection and the research procedure*

Session	Corrective Feedback Procedure
1	Students Hand in the 1 st writing
2	Teacher's FB on the 1 st writing
3	Students revised the 1 st writing + students hand in the 2 nd writing
4	Teacher's evaluation on the 1 st writing + teacher's FB on the 2 nd writing + students hand in the 3 rd writing
5	Students revised the 2 nd writing + Teacher's FB on the 3 rd writing + students hand in the 4 th writing
6	Teacher's evaluation on the 2 nd writing + students revised the 3 rd writing + teacher's FB on the 4 th writing + students hand in the 5 th writing
7	Teacher's evaluation of the 3 rd writing + Students revised the 4 th writing + Teacher's FB on the 5 th writing + students hand in the 6 th writing
8	Teacher's evaluation of the 4 th writing + Students revised the 5 th writing + Teacher's FB on the 6 th writing + students hand in the 7 th writing

9	Teacher's evaluation of the 5 th writing + Students revised the 6 th writing + Teacher's FB on the 7 th writing + students hand in the 8 th writing
10	Teacher's evaluation of the 6 th writing + Students revised the 7 th writing + Teacher's FB on the 8 th writing + students hand in the 9 th writing
11	Teacher's evaluation of the 7 th writing + Students revised the 8 th writing + Teacher's FB on the 9 th writing + students hand in the 10 th writing
12	Teacher's evaluation of the 8 th writing + Students revised the 9 th writing + Teacher's FB on the 10 th writing
13	Teacher's evaluation of the 9 th writing + Students revised the 10 th writing
14	Teacher's evaluation of the 10 th writing

3. Data analysis

The students in each group were provided treatment based on a particular type of error feedback mentioned in section 3. Having revised the essays by the students based on the feedback given, the researcher evaluated the essays and investigated their progress in writing proficiency through scoring their essays. The variables in this study were labeled as the factor of accuracy-examining the use of correct structures, error free T-units, by learners, fluency-examining the use of correct and appropriate words and clauses, and complexity-examining the use of additional clauses and correct language styles. To answer the research questions, as suggested by Ferris and Roberts (2001), the compositions written by the four groups of students' throughout the study were analyzed, because of the groups being equivalent, using statistical procedures (frequencies, means, standard deviations, ANOVAs to see whether there is a significant difference among the experimental groups or not and further to see which corrective feedback type better works in reducing students' writing errors. SPSS Version 16.0 for Windows was used for all statistical tests.

4. Results and discussion

To measure the students' writing accuracy, as suggested by Eskey (1983), the ratio of error free T-units to total T-units and the ratio of error free T-units to total clauses was measured. Diagnostic essays from the 60 students marked and analyzed for the four types of error treatment type. Analysis of variance was used to investigate the differences in outcomes for the four experimental groups. Tables 1, 2 and 3 represent the results for writing accuracy; fluency and complexity are represented in Tables 3, 4 and 5 respectively.

Table 3 ANOVA statistics for 'writing accuracy'

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	48.21	3	16.07	23.40	.000
Within Groups	38.45	56	.68		
Total	86.67	59			

$P < .05$

Table 4 ANOVA statistics for 'writing fluency'

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	67.55	3	22.51	32.21	.000
Within Groups	39.15	56	.69		
Total	106.70	59			

$P < .05$

Table 5 ANOVA statistics for 'writing complexity'

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	35.13	3	11.71	20.32	.000
Within Groups	32.27	56	.57		
Total	67.41	59			

$P < .05$

The analysis of variance demonstrated that there are significances across the four feedback treatment among the experimental groups; accuracy ($f_{(3, 56)} = 23.40, p=0.00$); fluency ($f_{(3, 56)} = 32.21, p=0.00$); and complexity ($f_{(3, 56)} = 20.32, p=0.00$). The obtained outcomes show that the different types of corrective feedback provided by the instructor for the students do differ in terms of their understandings and further achievement in writing proficiency.

Having proved by the findings that there are significant differences in the various types of feedback given by the instructor and of course their different levels of influence on learners achievement in writing proficiency, it seems essential to determine which type of error corrective feedback works better in reducing students' writing errors. Table 6 represents the means and standard deviations of the students' writing scores, as given by the instructor, for each particular type of corrective feedback in each scoring trait (accuracy, fluency and complexity).

Table 6 *Students' mean scores and standard deviations*

	Overt Correction (N=15)		Coded (N=15)		Uncoded (N=15)		Marginal (N=15)	
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
Accuracy	14.35	1.08	16.81	0.92	16.05	0.45	15.55	0.72
Fluency	14.31	1.29	17.16	0.48	16.05	0.59	15.10	0.73
Complexity	14.70	0.90	16.83	0.72	15.86	0.39	15.51	0.89

The examination of descriptive statistics for students' **accuracy** in writing suggests that the assumption underlying overt correction-that more correction results in more accuracy-was not convincing. The results of the analysis of the accuracy trait demonstrated that indirect methods of feedback do not tend to direct learners' attention to surface errors. In this respect, the 'coded' group (mean=16.81) outperformed all other methods of error treatment showing that coded error feedback is the most effective method among all other methods. The 'Uncoded' group (mean=16.05) came in the next place in terms of success in the provision of corrective feedback. Further, the results showed that the 'Marginal' group (mean=15.55) came in the penultimate place regarding its degree of success in error treatment provision for students. Finally, the 'Overt correction' group (mean=14.35), based on the obtained outcomes, showed to be the least successful method of error feedback treatment on learners.

On the **fluency** measures, the results provided evidence that overt error correction causes foreign language writers to be extremely concerned with surface structure to the extent that fluent writing constrained. As a result, the results showed that, the same as accuracy trait, the 'coded' group (mean=17.16) outperformed all other methods of error treatment thus providing evidence that coded error feedback is the most successful technique by the use of which teachers can provide their learners with feedback. The 'Uncoded' group (mean=16.05), as the findings imply, came in the next place with regard to the degree of its success in the provision of corrective feedback by instructors. The 'Marginal' group (mean=15.1), based on the obtained outcomes, came in the penultimate place on behalf of the degree of effectiveness in error treatment provision for students. Finally, the 'Overt correction' group (mean=14.31), as the findings demonstrated, was found to be the less effective than all other types of error feedback treatment on learners.

On the **Complexity** findings, the findings suggested were in line with the above findings on accuracy and fluency. Regarding the 'coded' group (mean=16.83), the results showed that

the students, again, outperformed all other methods of error treatment demonstrating that coded error feedback seems to be more effective than all other techniques of feedback provision by the instructor. The ‘Uncoded’ group (mean=15.86) came in the next place regarding its effectiveness in the provision of corrective feedback by instructors. The ‘Marginal’ group (mean=15.51), as the findings suggested, came in the penultimate place considering its effectiveness in providing students with corrective feedback. In the last place, the ‘Overt correction’ group (mean=14.7), as the outcomes of the descriptive data analysis demonstrated, was found to be the least influential type of written corrective feedback.

Considering the three types of indirect feedback (coded, uncoded, and marginal), the superiority of the coded feedback compared to the uncoded and marginal methods could be attributed to the fact that students better benefit using the corrective feedback methods that indicate both the location and type of errors rather than those that just simply locate the errors or the frequency of errors but without providing them with further explanation of the type of errors they made.

The rate for the teacher to respond to students’ errors on one draft was also estimated to find out which method is more comfortable and less time taking to respond students’ writing errors (see table 7).

Table 7 *Teacher’s response time*

Teacher’s response method	Mean time per 200 words (minute)
Overt correction	2.7
Coded	1.6
Uncoded	1.4
Marginal	1.8

As was expected, the fastest way for the teacher to respond to student errors on one draft is the ‘uncoded’ corrective feedback. ‘Coded’ corrective feedback is the second fastest way. It took the teacher an average of 1.6 minutes per 200 words; whereas, ‘marginal’ corrective feedback required 1.8 minutes. The slowest way is the ‘overt correction’ taking 2.7 minutes for the teacher to respond students’ errors. The findings, in line with the statistical outcomes mentioned above, clearly demonstrate the advantage of the use of indirect methods of providing students with corrective feedback over direct ones.

5. Conclusion

Being able to use corrective feedback in a positive way is crucially important to the process of developing writing skills. The results of this study demonstrated that students' writing proficiency improved significantly over two months. Moreover, the findings suggested that to increase accuracy, fluency and complexity in students' writing teachers should provide learners with corrective feedback and require them to make corrections a finding which corresponds to those reported in Chandler (2003). On the other hand, unlike the findings of Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991) indirect feedback can better help students self-edit idiosyncratic errors such as sentence structures, word choice and writing styles much better than overt and direct error correction. It has been previously suggested that because these errors are not rule-governed, students are better helped by direct feedback in such cases. This finding provides further evidence for the findings of Ferris et al. (2000); Lalande (1982) and Robb et al. (1986) who reiterated in their findings the advantage of indirect feedback over direct error correction. The findings further stressed the importance of formal knowledge at the editing phase, in which the students in the indirect groups (coded, uncoded, and marginal) were asked to focus on correcting their errors. This finding provides further evidence for Krashen's (1982) Monitor Hypothesis which suggests that formal knowledge primarily functions as an editor operating when students focus on form, have knowledge of rule and of course enough time to reflect on and apply their knowledge. The results of the study further confirmed Kepner (1991) findings that indirect feedback methods, compared to the direct one, are more effective in correcting students' meaning errors rather than surface errors. However, since the number of meaning errors is significantly smaller than that of surface errors, the results have to be treated with caution.

Although time taking for students to revise their writing, the superiority of the indirect correction method might be due to the fact that direct correction may cause students feel discouraged and thus not able to correct significantly more of their errors on their revisions after this method than after teacher's responses describing students errors either based on the location, type or frequency. On the other hand, in direct methods of corrective feedback involves students in the process of error correction for revising their writing and thus help not to make errors in the future through better internalization of correct forms. EFL teachers often spend a great amount of time responding to the mechanics of students writing; however, the findings of this study do not suggest the use of direct corrective feedback for surface error correction. On the other hand, since direct error correction is time consuming, the outcomes of this study suggest that less time consuming methods of directing students' attention to surface errors are more suitable.

Corrective feedback specifically on sentence level errors deals with only one aspect of overall student writing ability. Therefore, if teachers consider their students in need of some form of corrective feedback, then, according to Eskey (1983), it is essential that teachers focus on form.

The implications of this study are beyond classroom setting. The findings suggest that the time and effort that the instructor puts may not be worth the use of direct feedback on sentence-level writing mechanics even though many students, as found by Robb et al. (1986), favor this type of corrective feedback. On the other hand, when students incorporate feedback in their revisions, no matter what the type of the feedback is, corrective feedback on writing, in line with the finding of Wong (2001), is a way to draw students' attention to the form and the material not adequately learned, allowing the learner to focus on there without being distracted from the main communicative intention. Moreover, helping learners notice a mismatch between their interlanguage and the target language can facilitate second language acquisition. After the teacher corrected the students' writing errors, either direct or indirect, their subsequent writing became significantly more correct in just two months.

It could be implied from the findings of this study that in using coded error corrective feedback, teachers might be using a wider range of metalinguistic terms than students could understand. The reason is that teachers may assume that students know to what errors the abbreviations of grammatical categories are associated with. However, based on the findings of this study, as the researcher was reviewing students' revised drafts, teachers must make sure that the coded feedback indicators are clear to students. Therefore, it is important that both teachers and students share common knowledge as far as metalanguage is concerned. In this respect, according to Raimes (1991), conferencing is a useful technique to be used when using coded feedback method. Through discussion with students during conferencing, teachers can understand students' existing grammatical knowledge as far as coded errors are concerned to bridge a gap between their own and that of students' understanding of the grammatical concepts involved.

In sum, an absolute search for the 'best' method of corrective feedback to respond to students' writing might be fundamentally mistaken if we accept that, for an effective corrective feedback, teachers need to take into account contextual and students' learning style differences. According to Ellis (2008) it should be noted that corrective feedback is just one of several variables influencing the effectiveness of written corrective feedback. Other variables as identified by Guenette (2007) are the nature of the students being studied, the nature of the writing activities that the students are supposed to do, and of course their

motivation to write correctly. There are many established techniques and theories about the method of feedback in the writing process, all of which have their own merits; therefore, the aim of the study is not to prescribe how teachers should give error correction feedback to their students; whereas, to assist them develop their own correction method on the basis of their own situation. However, it is essential that teachers have a clear and explicit number of options available to them. Feedback is essential to writing and in helping learners to improve their writing proficiency; whatever form it takes, feedback can have a positive effect in helping students develop their sense of awareness and view writing beyond the text limits. The ultimate goal of error correction should be to equip students with a range of strategies to help them become more independent editors and better writers. Although this study examined corrective feedback using a controlled experimental treatment, it has its own limits which needs further study by researchers.

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Title

Investigating Teacher vs. Student-centered ELT Classes in Private Institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan

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Biodata

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Abstract

The present study empirically investigated teacher vs. student-centered classroom interaction in two different educational settings that is private English Institutes and Azad University. The participants of the present study were teachers and students in 20 EFL classes. 10 classes were selected from the Private English Institute of Zabansara; another 10 classes were selected from Islamic Azad University, Sirjan Branch. In each of the classes under study a total of sixty minutes of classroom interaction was tape-recorded, thirty minutes of which was randomly chosen for the sake of the present study. The tape-recorded data were later analyzed bases on Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS). The findings of the survey were analyzed using SPSS software. It was revealed that Azad University English classes were more teacher-centered than English classes in Private English Institutes

suggesting that students in Azad University should have a bigger role classroom discourse.

Keywords: Student vs. teacher-centered, Classroom Interaction, Educational settings

1. Introduction

Interpersonal interaction is thought of as a fundamental requirement of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Many researchers have stated that language instruction requires the development of interactional competence and interaction is a fundamental element of language teaching for communication (Kramsch, 1986; Rivers, 1987; Ellis, 1988). The interactionist perspectives in SLA have considerably emphasized on the role of interaction in general, and meaning negotiation in particular, with respect to the conditions which are theoretically important for SLA. Pica (1994) states that meaning negotiation, as a way of modifying interaction, enhances SLA by helping learners make input comprehensible and modify their own output, and by providing opportunities for them in order to access second language (L2) form and meaning. In accordance with the interactionist perspective, the conditions for SLA are substantially enhanced by helping L2 learners negotiate meaning with either native speakers (NS) or non-native speakers (NNS) (Long & Robinson, 1998). It is very important that L2 teachers construct an interactive learning environment in which learners can communicate together in the target language and negotiate meaning by means of interaction; the more learners participate orally and the more they engage in the negotiation of meaning, the better they will acquire the language. Research shows that this kind of learning may result in (a) higher student's achievements and greater productivity, (b) more caring, supportive and committed relationship among students, and (c) greater psychological health, social competence and self-esteem.

Observations of many different classes both in content area subjects and in language instruction consistently show that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking done in the classroom. Several research reports indicate that the teacher dominates the classroom discourse. Allwright (1980), using audio taped data from two parallel UCLA low-level ESL classes, concluded that the teacher has a vastly disproportionate number of turns compared with other participants and that most of them have the function of "discourse maintenance", that is, taking an unsolicited turn, when a turn is available. He adds that the teacher also does almost all the interrupting, and is even among those guilty of turn stealing. Coulthard (1985) studied classroom interaction structure; he found that teachers dominate the

classroom discourse and students share a little portion of it. Shehadeh (1999) investigated the role of NNS-NNS interaction and the role of self-initiation in providing opportunities for the production of comprehensible output. He investigated the ability of NNSs to modify their output toward comprehensibility in the context of NS-NNS and NNS-NNS interactions and the degree to which such modified comprehensible output was other or self initiated. The results showed that most repairs were self initiated and that NNS-NNS interactions produced more other initiations and other initiated modified comprehensible outputs. He claims that the frequencies of these modified comprehensible outputs support the importance of modification toward Gass & Varounis (1994) examined NS-NS, NS-NNS, and NNS-NNS conversations. They observed that negotiation of meaning is most prevalent among NNS-NNS pairs. Similarly, Shehadeh's study (1999) shows that a greater amount of extended negotiation work took place in NNS-NNS interactions than in NS-NNS interactions for the modified comprehensible outputs produced.

Taken all of the preceding discussion into account, the importance of classroom interaction in promoting students' second language acquisition seems to be crucial. It helps learners in general, and second language learners in particular, in the process of negotiation of meaning, exposing themselves to further input, and in using the language communicatively both with each other and with the teacher. However, research has shown that teachers monopolize the classroom discourse, and pupils as a one-headed participant contribute little to classroom interaction. In spite of the fact that many researchers have addressed the issue of classroom interaction, none have investigated second language classroom interaction across different educational settings, that is, private institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. As such, the present study aims at investigating second language classroom interaction regarding teacher vs. student-centeredness at different educational settings, that is, private institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan to see if the degree of teacher vs. student-centered interaction varies from one educational setting to another.

2. Methodology

This study sought answers to the following questions: 1) Do teachers show more initiating behavior than students during ELT class activities at different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan? 2) Do students show more responding behavior than teachers during ELT class activities at different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan? 3) Is there any period

of silence or non-talk during ELT class time at different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan? 4) Do different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan affect the degree of teacher vs. student- centered interaction in ELT classes? With regard to the research questions, the following four hypotheses were set forth: 1) Teachers show more initiating behavior than students during ELT class activities in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan compared to private English institutes. 2) Students show more responding behavior than teachers during ELT class activities in private English institutes compared to Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. 3) There are periods of silence or non-talk during class activities. 4) The ELT classroom interaction varies at different educational settings; in the other words, in private English institutes compared to Islamic Azad University of Sirjan ELT classroom interaction is less teacher-centered and students have a bigger share in classroom discourse. In order to find answers to the above-mentioned questions the following methodology was used.

2.1. Participants

The participants of the present study were teachers and students in 20 EFL classes. 10 classes were selected from private English institute of Aria; another 10 classes were selected from Azad University, Sirjan Branch. The same number of classes in each of the two educational settings was chosen so that the collected data and the findings of the study render reliable results.

2.2. Materials

Information obtained through tape-recorded data from classes under study constituted the materials for the present study. In each of the classes under study a total of sixty minutes of classroom interaction was tape-recorded; thirty minutes of which was randomly chosen for the sake of the present study. The tape-recorded data were later analyzed based on Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS) (Brown, 1975) (see appendix 1).

2.3. Instrumentation

Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS) (Brown, 1975) was used as the instrument of the present study. Unlike other systems (FOCUS, for example) which are unreasonably elaborate for practical purposes and in which the researcher is called upon to identify, judge, and record various events simultaneously, this system is fairly simple and can be usefully applied to analyzing verbal interaction in second language classes. In order to implement the BIAS system, a tally sheet (see appendix 2) is used and marked every three seconds for the

duration of the observation. Once the whole lesson has been coded in this way, percentages can be calculated for each of the categories noted, and a

In order to determine the inter-rater reliability in the identification of different categories, a second rater tallied 10% of the data (totaling 54 minutes) which was chosen randomly. This was done because it was not possible for a second rater to tally all of the recorded data. Based on Spearman's formula for calculating correlation, a resulting agreement rate of 83% was reached.

3. Data Analysis

As it will be discussed in chapter four, the percentage of time being spent in each category of BIAS was calculated. Percentages of teacher talk (categories 1-3), student talk (categories 3 & 5), and silence (category 6) as well as unclassifiable (category 7) were calculated. The frequency, the proportion, and the mean score of teacher talk vs. student talk were calculated and compared to see if there was a difference in the degree of teacher vs. student-centered ELT classes at different educational settings that is Private Institutes and Islamic Azad University. Chi Square was run in order to spot the differences. Pearson's Contingency Coefficient was further run to provide the researcher with more detailed information about those differences.

4. Results and Discussion

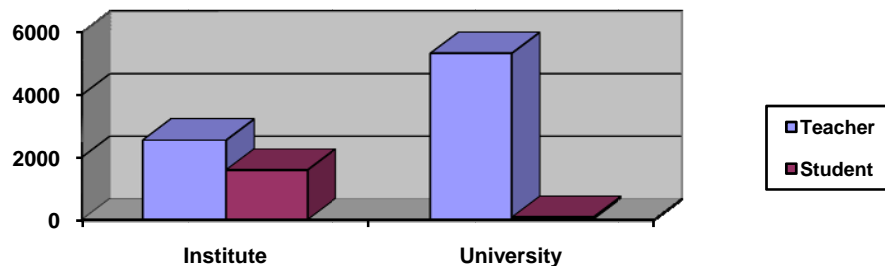
The first research question posed in the present study whether or not teachers show more initiating behavior than students during ELT class activities at different educational settings that is private institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. As table 1 and figure 1 shows, it was revealed that teachers showed more initiating behavior in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan compared to that of private English institutes. In other words, students showed less initiating behavior in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan compared to that of private English institutes. Quite the reverse was true of students' initiating behavior. They showed more initiating behavior initiating behavior at ELT classes of private English institutes, less initiating behavior in ELT classes in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. That students' initiating behavior increased from one educational setting to the other, is in line with Seliger's 1983 study in which he showed that there seemed to be a relationship between learners' participation patterns and their progress in mastering English, the higher students' involvement in classroom activities, the more initiating behavior they show in language

classes. Students at ELT classes of private English institutes are more involved in classroom activities, they have got a bigger share of classroom discourse and this in turn makes them to show more initiation behavior in their classes.

Level of Significance	Correlation Coefficient	Degree of Freedom	Chi Square	University	Institute	Educational Setting	
						Teacher vs. Student	
0/000	0/437	1	2254/98	5325	2542	Observed Frequency	Teacher
						Expected Frequency	
				4453/2	3413/8	Observed Frequency	Student
						Expected Frequency	
69	1593	Observed Frequency					
		Expected Frequency					
940/8	721/2	Observed Frequency					
		Expected Frequency					

Table1. Initiating Behavior in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan and Private Institute English Classes

Figure1. Bar Graph for Teacher vs. Student Initiating Behavior in Private English Institutes and Islamic Azad University of sirjan



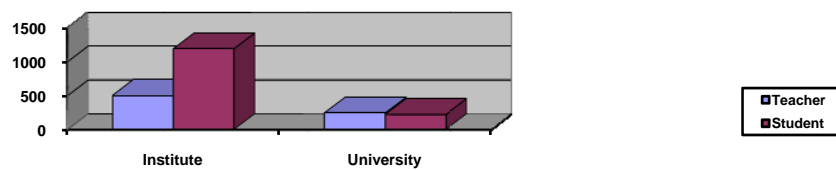
The second research question investigates if students show more responding behavior than teachers during ELT class activities at different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. As table 2 and figure 2 show, it was revealed that students showed less responding behavior in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan compared to that of private English institutes. In other words, students showed less initiating behavior in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan compared to that of private English institutes. This is because Students are more proficient, they are let into classroom activities, they have developed independence and through time, they have developed more speaking skills so that they can take longer turns while answering questioned asked by the teachers. Quite the reverse is true of students of lack of responding behavior. They don't have the necessary skills to answer questions raised by the teachers in longer turns and this in turn causes them to have less responding behavior in classes. The differences in mean of responding behavior, tends to support Seliger (1983) who claimed that the more proficient learners have a bigger share of classroom discourse than less proficient ones. With regard to teachers responding behavior, they showed much more responding behavior in ELT classes of private English

institutes than those of Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. The reason is that students' more initiation in ELT classes of private English institutes automatically causes more responding moves from the part of the teacher. This is in opposition with Bellack et al. (1996), and Dunkin and Biddles (1974) study in which the students uttered the most of the responding moves.

Level of Significance	Correlation Coefficient	Degree of Freedom	Chi Square	University	Institute	Educational Setting	
						Teacher vs. Student	
0/000	0/191	1	81/493	242	503	Observed Frequency	Teacher
							Expected Frequency
				160/1	584/9	Observed Frequency	Student
							Expected Frequency
221	1188	Observed Frequency					
			Expected Frequency				
302/9	1106/1	Observed Frequency					
			Expected Frequency				

Table 2. Responding Behavior in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan and Private Institute English Classes

Figure 2. Bar graph for Student vs. Teacher Responding Behavior in Private English Institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan

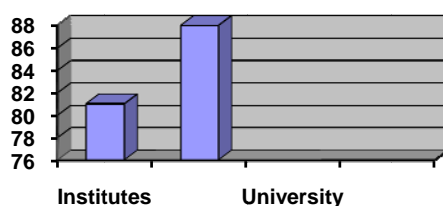


The third research question posed in the present study investigates whether or not there is any period of silence or non-talk during ELT class time at different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. As table 3 and figure 3 show, it was revealed that there is no meaningful difference between Islamic Azad University of Sirjan and private English institutes with regards to periods of silence.

Level of Significance	Degree of Freedom	Chi Square	University	Institute	Educational Setting	
					Teacher vs. Student	Class
0/59	1	0/29	88	81	Observed Frequency	
					Expected Frequency	
			84/5	84/5		

Table 3. Periods of Silence in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan and Private Institute English Classes

Figure 3. Bar graph for periods of Silence in Private English Institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan

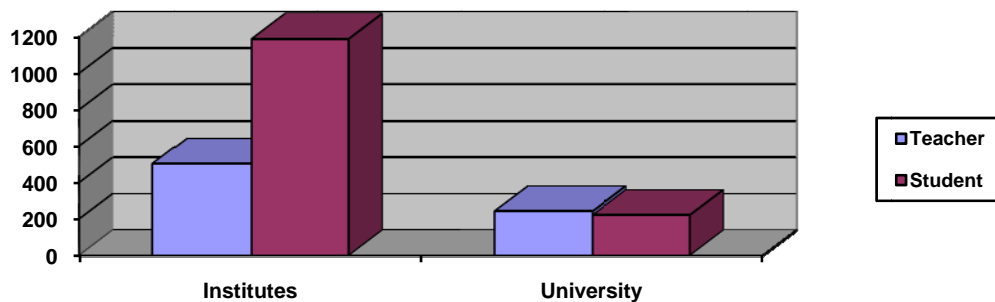


The fourth research question was: Do different educational settings that is private English institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan affect the degree of teacher vs. student-centered interaction in ELT classes? As table 4 and figure 4 show, it was revealed that English classes are much more student-centered in private English institutes compared to those of Islamic Azad University of Sirjan. In other words, English classes are much more teacher-centered in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan compared to those of private English institutes. This provides support for a number of studies like Mussemeci 1996, Flanders 1985, Coulthard 1985, Tsui 1995, Bellack et al. 1996, Dunkin and Biddle (1974), and Legarreta's 1997 study in which in traditionally taught and handled classrooms, teachers dominated the classroom discourse and students had a little portion of it.

Level of Significance	Correlation Coefficient	Degree of Freedom	Chi Square	University	Institute	Educational Setting	
						Teacher vs. Student	
0/000	0/437	1	2759/03	5567	3045	Observed Frequency	Teacher
				4317/4	4294/6		
				290	2781	Observed Frequency	Student
				1539/6	1531/4		

Table 4. Teacher vs. Student-centeredness in Islamic Azad University of Sirjan and Private Institute English Classes

Figure 4. Bar Graph for Student vs. Teacher-centeredness in Private English Institutes and Islamic Azad University of Sirjan



5. Limitations of the study

The present study suffered from a number of limitations, which will pose inevitable restrictions upon the generalization of its results. They are as follows:

- 1) The random selection of the classes for the sake of the present study was not possible
- 2) It was not possible for the researcher to control the influence of particular teachers on classroom interaction.
- 3) The time of observation was not the same for all of the classes. Some classes were observed in the morning and some other in the afternoon.
- 4) Non-verbal interaction was not taken account of.
- 5) Only certain courses (Pre-university English and General English) were used in the present study.

- 6) Only ELT classes at Islamic Azad University, Sirjan Branch were chosen for the sake of the present study.

6. Conclusion

The results obtained from the four research questions addressed in this study all point out to the fact that though interaction has long been recognized as a fundamental element in learners' language development, today's classrooms in Iran, particularly those in universities, have remained teacher-centered. As a concluding note, it can be stated that although it was revealed that ELT classes of Islamic Azad University of Sirjan were much more teacher centered than ELT classes of private English institutes, any generalization based on the results of the present study should be made cautiously.

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Appendix 1: Brown’s Interaction Analysis System (BIAS)

Teacher Talk	Initiation	TL	Teacher lectures, describes, explains, narrates, directs e.g., this is Brown’s procedure for coding classroom interaction.
		TQ	Teacher questions, about content or procedure, which pupils are intended to answer.
	Response	TA	Teacher responds, accepts feelings of the class; describes past and future feelings in a non-threatening way; praises, encourages, jokes with pupils; accepts or uses pupils’ ideas; builds upon pupils’ responses; uses mild criticism such as ‘no, not quite’.
Student Talk	Response	PA	Pupils respond directly and predictably to teacher questions and directions.
	Initiation	PV	Pupils volunteer information, comments, or questions
		S	<i>Silence, Pauses, short periods of silence</i>
		X	Unclassifiable. Confusion in which communications cannot be understood; unusual activities such as reprimanding or criticizing pupils; demonstrating without accompanying teacher or pupil talk; short spates of blackboard work without accompanying teacher or pupil talk.

Appendix 2: A Tally Sheet

Category	Tally Marks	No. of Tallies	% of Tallies
TL			
TQ			
TA			
PA			
PV			
S			
X			

Title

The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Listening Comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Biodata

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Abstract

Educators, professional teachers, syllabus designers, and psycholinguists have for a long time been concerned with making an appropriate match between intelligence and the ability to learn foreign languages. Psychologists and linguists have also become interested in Emotional Intelligence to figure out the relationship between EQ and English language skills and strategies. Subsequently, this study attempted to investigate whether there is a significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension ability in both sexes. Therefore, using Michigan proficiency test (ver., 1997), 177 subjects (106 female and 71 male) were selected as intermediate ones from the undergraduate students of Azad universities of Quchan and Mashhad, the private university of khayam and also the English Department of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, and they were asked to fill out two different questioners: EQ measurement test (Bar-On) and a test of listening comprehension. For analyzing the data, SPSS & STATISTICA programs were used, and the results confirmed the statistically significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and listening comprehension ability. Additionally, by considering gender through estimating the degree of relationship between EQ and listening comprehension ability, it was shown that this relationship in male learners was stronger than female learners. The other case mentioned through this research was about investigating the relationship between components of Emotional Intelligence Quotient and Listening comprehension scores of intermediate EFL

learners. The findings revealed a significant relationship between those components and listening comprehension scores, except empathy.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Listening comprehension, EFL learners

1. Introduction

Language remains unconscious until it is dealt with emotionally. Language and emotion are parallel systems in use, and their relationship exists in that one system (emotions) impacts on the performance of the other (language) and both of them share their functionality in the communicative process between people. Emotional Intelligence is the tool that evokes consciousness of language being learnt, enabling the learners to understand, clarify, and communicate ideas. It is one of the most widely discussed topics in current psychology.

Although first mentioned in professional literature two decades ago, in the past five years it has received extensive media attention. The term Emotional Intelligence refers to the ability to identify, express and understand emotions to thought; and to regulate both positive and negative emotions in oneself and others (Goldman, 1995).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EQ as the ability to perceive emotions; to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought; to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

According to Hein (2003), emotional intelligence is an innate potential, depends on the ability to feel emotional and includes the ability to remember feelings. The EQ concept argues that IQ, or conventional intelligence, is too narrow; that there are wider areas of emotional intelligence that dictate and enable how successful we are. (Hein, 2003).

Salovey and Mayer in Salovey and Sluyter (1997) define Emotional Intelligence as an ability to validly reason with emotions and to use emotions to enhance thought, its capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote and intellectual growth and it is an ability to recognize the meanings of emotion and their relationships and to reason and problem solve on the basis of them.

2. What is known about Emotional Intelligence?

The most distant roots of Emotional Intelligence can be traced back to Darwin's early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation (Bar-on, 2006). In 1900's, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problem solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of

study had begun to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. For instance, as early as 1920, E. L. Thorndike of Columbia University used the term social intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people.

In 1990, the work of two American University Professors, John Mayer and Peter Salovey, was published in two academic journal articles. They were trying to develop a way of scientifically measuring the difference between people's ability in the area of emotions. They found that some people were better than others at things like identifying the feelings of others, and solving problems involving emotional issues. Daniel Goldman (1995) defines EI by five skill dimensions:

1. Self awareness of feelings: know how you are feeling.
2. Emotional self regulation: reining in strong negative emotions, like anger and anxiety, and mobilizing positive personal and organizational support to enhance that control.
3. Empathy and perspective taking: showing sensitivity and appreciation for the feelings and opinions of others.
4. Self monitoring and goal setting: having short and long term goals.
5. Social and communication skills: the ability to work as part of a team effectively, using skills such as leadership, problem solving and decision making, careful listening , clear verbal and nonverbal communication.

The term emotional quotient (EQ) was first coined by Bar-On (1988) as a counterpart to IQ, that is, to cognitive ability. Bar-On (1997) defines EI as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands .These competencies, skills and facilitators include:

- the ability to recognize, understand and express emotions and feelings
- the ability to understand how others feel and relate with them
- the ability to manage and regulate emotions
- the ability to manage change and solve personal problems and problems with others
- the ability to generate positive emotion and be self-motivated

Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced EQ as a way in which an individual processes information about emotion and emotional responses. They identified emotional intelligence as the “ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action” (p. 189).

Bar-On (1997) developed the EQ-I, a self-report instrument, to assess Emotional Intelligence in each of these areas. He mentioned that general intelligence is composed of cognitive intelligence, which is measured by IQ, and Emotional Intelligence, which is measured by EQ. The higher the EQ score, the more positive the prediction for general success in meeting environmental demands and pressures. On the other hand, lack of success and existence of emotional problems are a function of the extent and degree of deficiency evident in these factors (skills) over time.

There exist a number of currently available measures of Emotional Intelligence (Gowing, 2001). The three prevailing test instruments are in alignment with the three Caruso Emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT), the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On EQ-i). They all vary in the descriptions of the constructs they measure and the manner in which they are assessed.

2.1. EQ and language learning

Emotional intelligence as a novel issue in both teaching and learning language has been exposed to different investigations through recent years. Emotional intelligence as a psychological factor, relating to the performance of both teacher and learners has an inevitable effects on the quality of learning foreign languages and it could be achieved and increased through some factors such as environment and experience.

Ozlem (2006) based on doing research on EQ scope and language learning provides a definition of intelligence and addresses the question whether EQ plays a more significant role in language learning. According to his view, language learning depends on both learner and educator in terms of human psychology and interpersonal communication. He claimed that the most important factor in language learning is the ability to recognize, comprehend and manage emotions.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) suggested to the instructors to take responsibility for their feelings instead of imposing their feelings, to be aware of their own feelings much more before than the feelings of their students and try to understand the feelings that might have motivated them to behave as such before judging their students' behaviors.

3. Listening comprehension overview

Listening is the first language mode that children acquire. It provides a foundation for all aspects of language and cognitive development, and it plays a life-long role in the processes of learning and communication essential to productive participation in life. A study by Wilt

(1950), which found that people listen 45 percent of the time they spend communicating, is still widely cited (e.g., Martin, 1987; Strother, 1987).

Listening has achieved greater and greater importance in foreign language classrooms. There are several reasons for this growth in popularity. By emphasizing the role of comprehensible input, second language acquisition research has given a major boost to listening. As Rost (1994) points out: "Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Thus, listening is fundamental to speaking" (pp.141-142).

Listening as the Cinderella skill in second language learning has been overlooked by its elder sister – speaking. For most people, being able to claim knowledge of a second language means being able to speak and write in that language. Listening and reading are there for secondary skills- means to other ends, rather than ends in themselves (Nunan, 1991).

Rost (1992) believes that in order to define listening, two basic questions should be asked: What is the comprehension skill in listening? And what does a listener do? He goes on to say that in terms of the necessary components, we can list the following: discriminating between sounds, recognizing words, identifying the grammatical groupings of words, identifying the pragmatic units, expressions, and sets of utterances which function as whole units to creating meaning, using background knowledge to predict and confirm meaning. He also believes that successful listening is a coordination of the component skills, not the individual skill, themselves. This integration of the perception skills, analysis skills is what we call a person's "listening ability".

Listening comprehension as one of the most vital determiners in language learning and the most sensitive ability that could be affected by different psychological factors such as EQ, motivation, attitude, etc. could be considered as the first and the most important issue in this regard.

There are several investigations have been conducted relating to the present study regarding the effect of EQ on different issues.

McDowelle and Bell (1997) found that lack of emotional intelligence skills lowered team effectiveness and created dysfunctional team interactions and most effective performers lost the best networking skills.

Tapia and Marsh (2001) found an overall significant main effect of gender and two-way interaction of gender - GPA on emotional intelligence. Emotionally Intelligent teachers help students with improved motivation, enhanced innovation, increased performance, effective use of time and resources, improved leadership qualities and improved team work.

Aghasafari (2006) found a positive relationship between overall EQ and language learning strategies. In addition, Riemer (2003) argues that EQ skills contribute to the learning potential of foreign language acquisition, particularly as it relates to acknowledging the legitimacy of other cultures as being equally valid.

Following the conducted investigations and considering learners' emotional intelligence as a factor that provides both teachers and learners circumstances to fulfill their pedagogical intentions, the present study is seeking to investigate whether EQ has any relationship with listening comprehension as ability in acquiring foreign language.

Accordingly, this research investigated the following questions:

1. Is there any relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension scores and their Emotional Intelligence Quotient?
2. Is there any relationship between listening comprehension scores and different components of Emotional Intelligence among Iranian intermediate EFL learners?
3. Does gender play any role on the relationship between EQ and Listening comprehension?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

The sample was comprised of 265 Iranian EFL male and female learners who majored in English literature and English translation in Azad Universities of Quchan and Mashhad branches, the English Department of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, and the private University of Khayam. Their proficiency level ranged from intermediate to advanced level. Therefore, it was logical to administer a proficiency test for homogenizing and selecting the suitable and appropriate ones. A total of 265 participants took a Michigan proficiency test. Finally, 177 EFL learners (106 females and 71 males) were chosen as intermediate ones.

4.2. Instrumentation

The data was gathered using three separate instruments:

4.2.1. Michigan English language assessment battery version 1997

A Michigan proficiency test containing 100 multiple - choice items: structure (40 items), vocabulary (40 items), and reading comprehension (20 items); taking 60 minutes altogether. This test was administered to homogenize and select intermediate learners from the total number of subjects.

4.2.2. Bar-On EQ-I

The oldest instrument is Bar-On's EQ-I, which has been around for over a decade. This self-report instrument originally evolved not out of an occupational context, but rather a clinical one. The EQ-I contains 133 items in the form of short sentences, and employs a 5-point response scale with a textual response format ranging from: "very seldom or not true of me" (1) to "very often true of me or true of me" (5). A list of the inventory's items is found in the instruments' technical manual, (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ-I is suitable for individuals 17 years of age and older and takes approximately 40 minutes to complete. The individuals' responses render a total EQ score and scores on the following five composite scales which comprise 15 subscale scores:

Intrapersonal (comprising Self-Regard, Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Independence, and Self-Actualization); Interpersonal (comprising Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship); Stress Management (comprising Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control); Adaptability (comprising Reality-Testing, Flexibility, and Problem-Solving); & General Mood (comprising Optimism and Happiness).

Scores on EQ-I are computer-generated. The students' answers on their answer sheet were entered into Excel program, which calculated the students' total EQ score in addition to the score of its 15 subscales. Average to above average EQ scores on the EQ-i suggest that the respondent is effective in emotional and social functioning. The higher the scores, the more positive the prediction for effective functioning in meeting daily demands and challenges. On the other hand, low EQ scores suggest an inability to be effective and the possible existence of emotional, social, and/or behavioral problems. The Bar-On EQ-i was translated and examined for reliability by a group of psychologists of Sina Behavioral Research Institute in Iran. So, the final format included 90 questions with the total reliability of 88% at the $P < 0.0001$ for both female and male students. The maximum and minimum scores for the whole test are 450 and 90, and for each scale are 90 and 6, respectively. The students with the score less than 270 are regarded as not being normal whose problem can be determined according to the scores of the scales.

4.2.3. TOEFL listening Test: (CBT)

The Listening comprehension section consisted of three parts with a total of 40 questions: 19 items in part A, 8 in part B, and 13 in part C. The time was controlled by the tape, and learners had 36 minutes to complete the entire section. The speaker on the tape used American English with American pronunciation. There were three parts in the listening comprehension test:

Responding to the one question that follows a short exchange between two speakers (part A). Answering several questions about a longer conversation between two speakers (part B). Answering specific questions about information contained in a short lecture, which is similar to the task learners have to perform when listening to a professor in a lecture class (part C).

5. Procedure

The research was conducted in four different universities during the 2007-2008 academic year. A group of 265 EFL learners participated in this study. First, a proficiency test (Michigan English Language Assessment Battery authentic test, 1997) was administered to 265 EFL learners to homogenize the group in which they were told that their papers would be rated anonymously and they did not have to reveal their identity in any way and their responses would be used for research purposes only. The length of administering this test was one hour. To minimize the impact of the environment, tests were administered with the help of the classroom professors concerned. After homogenizing the students, another appointment was planned to administer two other instruments of the study: EQ and listening comprehension tests to a final group. First of all, after explaining how to respond to the items, the Bar-On measurement test including 90 items was administered. In the other session, the researcher explained how to respond to each part of the listening comprehension test. The total time devoted to the listening test was 36 minutes, in addition to the extra time for distributing and receiving the booklets and answer sheets causing this test session to last almost 45 minutes. After administering the tests, the papers were corrected and scored by the researcher.

6. Results

In this research, the main hypothesis was based on the relationship between EQ and listening comprehension scores. Before analyzing the relationship between these two variables, the researcher estimated the internal consistency of the items in all questionnaires used throughout this research. Therefore, the proficiency test, EQ questionnaire and listening comprehension test were administered to the pilot group (consists of 53 EFL learners) to become sure about the reliability of them. Then the reliability of tests was computed using Cronbach Alpha formula. The degree of Alpha Chronbach for the listening comprehension test was calculated as .93, and this result indicated an acceptable internal consistency of items in listening comprehension test. Subsequently, details concerning the calculation of Alpha

Chronbach for proficiency test revealed a satisfactory degree of reliability, 0 .84, for the internal consistency of items in proficiency test and ultimately, results indicated that the degree of reliability for EQ questionnaire estimated as .93 was high and acceptable.

Before investigating the relationship between Emotional intelligence and listening comprehension, the researcher used descriptive statistics to summarize data and describe the entire variables.

Table1. Descriptive statistic for listening comprehension test, EQ Questionnaire, proficiency test and different EQ categories

	Valid N	Mean	Median	Sum	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Variance	Std. Standard	Skewness	Kurtosis	
Listening	177	59.94	62.5	10605.5	28	80	53	210.7	14.5	1.091	-0.453	-0.915
Proficiency	177	37.84	34.0	6698	30	64	34	70.08	8.37	0.629	1.340	0.935
EQ	177	319.62	324	5657	217	408	191	1546	39.32	2.95	-0.174	-0.272
Problem solving	177	22.53	22	3988	14	30	16	13.92	3.73	0.280	-0.117	-0.649
Happiness	177	22.58	23	3998	9	30	21	20.05	4.47	0.337	-0.623	0.223
Independence	177	20.75	21	3673	8	29	21	16.13	4.01	0.302	-0.201	-0.153
Stress tolerance	177	18.43	19	3263	6	27	23	19.97	4.46	0.336	-0.014	-0.289
Self-actualization	177	21.13	22	3741	10	29	17	9.67	3.11	0.234	-0.537	0.165
Emotional self-actualization	177	21.75	22	3850	13	27	16	12.76	3.57	0.269	-0.054	-0.372
Reality testing	177	19.69	20	3486	8	30	19	10.54	3.24	0.244	-0.427	0.491
Interpersonal relationship	177	22.93	23	4059	10	30	20	6.24	4.03	0.303	-0.582	0.317
Optimism	177	21.92	22	3880	8	30	22	20.33	4.50	0.339	-0.282	-0.295

Self regard	177	22.19	23	392 939 29	8	30	22	19.0 2	4.36	0.32 8	- 0.52 6	0.351
Impulse control	177	17.60	17.0	311 6	6	30	24	22.7 1	4.76	0.35 8	0.00 7	-0.309
Flexibility	177	16.21	16.0	287 0	9	23	14	9.05	3.00 9	0.22 6	- 0.22 7	-0.492
Responsibility	177	24.50	25	433 8	15	30	15	11.8 6	3.44	0.25 9	- 0.35 9	-0.449
Empathy	177	24.45	24.0	432 9	15	30	15	10.7 38	3.27	0.24 6	- 0.23 4	-0.512
Assertiveness	177	19.49	19.0	345 1.0	11	30	19	17.0 36	4.12 7	0.31 0	0.20 0	-0.337

To measure the degree of correlation between two variables (EQ and Listening Comprehension scores) in this study, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was applied. The basic concern in correlation analysis is to identify whether a student scoring high on one measure also scores high on the other and whether a student who scores low on one measure also scores low on the other?

To examine the null hypothesis, the researcher used probability value or p-value, which means that if the degree of the level of significance, is equal to 0.05 and if p-value is smaller than α , it can be concluded that there is a meaningful correlation between two variables of EQ and listening comprehension scores.

Table 2 presents the results for the first null hypothesis. It shows the degree of p-value is equal to 0.0001 and smaller than $\alpha=0.05$; on the other hand, because $r = 0.3857$ (correlation coefficient) and positive, it can be concluded that there is an statistically meaningful relationship between EQ and listening comprehension; thus, increasing in one variable can predict increasing in the other one and vice a versa.

Table 2: Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and listening comprehension scores

	EQ
Listening	.3857
	p=.000

After calculating correlation coefficient between EQ and listening comprehension scores, to support the validity of this relationship, the researcher used regression analysis. Accordingly, because the degree of p-value in regression analysis is 0.0000001 and smaller than $\alpha=0.05$, it can be concluded that there is a linear correlation between the two variables (EQ & Listening comprehension scores). This analysis indicates that $R^2= 0.1488$, which means that %14.88 percent of any change in listening comprehension is determined by EQ.

Subsequent to the information mentioned in the previous part, the researcher calculated the correlation coefficient between EQ and listening comprehension scores in female and male groups separately. The first part is devoted to the relationship between EQ and listening comprehension scores among females. The following table illustrates the relationship between EQ and listening comprehension scores in female learners.

Table 3: Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and listening comprehension scores in females

Variable	Listening
EQ	.3248
	p=.001

As it is indicated in table 3, p-value is equal to 0.001 and smaller than $\alpha= 0.05$. Considering this result reveals that since p-value is smaller than significance level, it can be concluded that there is a meaningful relationship between EQ and listening comprehension scores in females. The next step refers to the regression analysis of this relationship. In regression analysis, the degree of p –value is calculated as 0.00068 that is smaller than $\alpha= 0.05$, this means that the degree of p-value is smaller than the level of significance. Considering $R^2=0 .10550674$ indicates that EQ can predict 10% percent of any change in listening comprehension score. Accordingly, Regression analysis absolutely supports the idea of meaningful relationship between females’ EQ and their listening comprehension scores.

In addition, the researcher considered the relationship between these two variables (EQ& listening scores) among males. For this purpose, first of all, the degree of this relationship among males is investigated by calculating the degree of correlation coefficient.

Table 4: Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and listening comprehension in males

Variable	Listening
EQ	.4793

	p=.000
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According to Table 4, it can be concluded that because p-value is equal to 0.0001 and smaller than $\alpha= 0.05$, then there is a meaningful relationship between the males' listening comprehension scores and their Emotional Intelligence Quotient. Regression analysis subsequent to the correlation analysis also proves that there is a meaningful relationship between the two variables (EQ and Listening Comprehension scores) in males, due to the fact that the degree of p-value is smaller than level of significance or in other words p-value is equal to 0.000023 and smaller than $\alpha= 0.05$. By comparing these two results, we can conclude that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables (EQ and Listening comprehension scores) in both sexes, however, because p-level in males is 0.000023, which is much smaller than p-level in females, we can conclude the meaningful relationship between listening comprehension scores and EQ among males is greater than females. As another alternative hypothesis, the researcher considered different categories of EQ to find a meaningful relationship between them and listening comprehension scores. Table 5 illustrates the correlation coefficient between each of the EQ categories and listening comprehension scores.

Table 5: Correlation between components of EI and listening comprehension scores

Variable	Listening
Problem solving	.2213
	p=.003
Happiness	.2355
	p=.002
Independence	.2262
	.002
Stress tolerance	.2338
	.0017
Self-actualization	.2689

	p=.0001
Emotional self-actualization	.3774
	.00000022
Reality testing	.3334
	.0000057
Interpersonal relationship	.2388
	p=.001
Optimism	.3023
	.000043
Self regard	.3315
	.0000065
Impulse control	.2300
	.002
Flexibility	.2920
	.00008
Responsibility	.1979
	p=.008
Empathy	.1030
	p=.173
Assertiveness	.2903
	.000088

As indicated in table 5, there is a meaningful relationship between the components of Emotional Intelligence and listening comprehension scores, except empathy:

$P\text{-value} < \alpha = 0.05$, indicates that in $\alpha = 0.05$ the meaningful linear relationship between listening comprehension scores and these components is proved. However, in the case of empathy, because p-value is equal to 0.173 and bigger than $\alpha = 0.05$, it is concluded that there is no meaningful relationship between empathy and listening comprehension scores.

7. Discussion

This study provides a definition of intelligence and addresses the question of whether Emotional Intelligence or mental intelligence plays a more significant role in learning receptive skills such as listening comprehension. Intelligence is an innate capacity of the individual that can be enhanced and developed by factors such as environment and experience. Therefore, are individuals with high intelligence always successful? Or, do those people with high intelligence display a higher level of achievement in learning a language? Language learning is a concept that depends on both the learner and the instructor in terms of human psychology and interpersonal communication. The important factor in language learning is not high intelligence values; it is being Emotionally Intelligent, which is, having the ability to recognize, employ, comprehend, and manage emotions. Emotional Intelligence is a type of Social Intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide ones' thinking and actions. Only 2% of the population of human society have an IQ level of 130 or above and it is observed that most of these people tend to be clumsy, shy, and suffer from social maladjustment with peers (Ozlem, 2006).

As was mentioned in data analysis, the first null hypothesis was rejected and it was proved that intermediate EFL learners with a high degree of Emotional Intelligence achieve greater listening comprehension ability. It was shown in data analysis that the degree of p-value in correlation between these two variables calculated as $p = 0.0001$. According to this assumption, if we consider $\alpha = 0.05$ and if $p\text{ value} < \alpha = 0.05$, we can conclude that there is a statistical relationship between the variables. It means that, increasing one variable, we can expect that the other increases too. In this case, the result statistically indicates a meaningful relationship between two variables. After calculating the correlation coefficient between EQ and listening comprehension, the researcher confirmed a regression for supporting this hypothesis.

According to the next hypothesis, the researcher examined the relationship between components of Emotional Intelligence and listening comprehension to achieve better results. Regression between components of EQ and listening comprehension indicated that among all of these cases, there were meaningful traces of relationship with listening comprehension except empathy as a branch of interpersonal intelligence. Empathy is the ability to be aware of, understand, and appreciate the feelings of others. It is "tuning in" (being sensitive) to what, how, and why people feel the way they do. Being empathetic means being able to emotionally read other people. Empathic people care about others and show interest in and concern for others. They also show keen ability to understand and respond to the issues and concerns behind others' feelings. Empathy is a combination of emotion and act and was associated mostly with social relationship, leadership... Yet as noted by Goleman (1995), empathy does not require sharing other's feelings exactly, but an ability to understand or take others' views into perspective. That is to say, to some extent you have an ability to enter the others' world, whether or not your feelings or perspective matches the other persons'. Empathy requires some emotional distance, and calls on "thinking" as well as "feeling" skills. To attempt to construct something close to another persons' perspective requires effort, observation, listening, and imagination. According to Goleman (1995), people with this competency are attentive to emotional cues and listen well, show sensitivity, and understand others' perspectives.

In several researches, components of EQ, especially interpersonal intelligence were correlated with some skills such as speaking. In some of them, researchers could find meaningful and positive relationship between EQ and the items; for instance, regarding speech act, Mazaheri (2007) could reject the null hypothesis that claimed there was no relationship between interpersonal and speech act. According to Bar- on 1997, girls have more advantages over boys in this category, because they are more sociable than boys, moreover, in that research, the number of girls were more than boys (they allocated 85 percent of the population to themselves) which could be an obvious reason for finding a relationship between this variable and speaking act. In contrary, regarding intrapersonal aspect, boys could show themselves more effective than girls, but in that study, they were included in the minority of the population, then it was obviously expected that the researcher could not reject the null hypothesis. He noted that people high in interpersonal intelligence constrain emotions whilst discussing a certain sensitive issue and know how to deal with the feelings that arise in difficult situations instead of being overwhelmed by them. People who are more in tune with their views and emotions as well as others' views and emotions will be

more equipped to set up boundaries in their lives. As mentioned in the research, in the current one, the case of empathy was faced with such cases similar to the previous one. In some researches such as those carried out by Baron (1997), it was proved that some features or characteristics are more powerful in one sex rather than the other; for example, the interpersonal feature was stronger among men rather than women. In light of this finding, the degree of empathy (one of the components of EQ) is greater in men than women and in regard to this matter that the number of girls was more than boys in this research; it was not improbable that the researcher could not find any relationship between these two variables.

Finally, the role of gender was considered to examine whether it has any effect on this relationship. Considering gender through this process, many interesting results were obtained. These results indicated that in both sexes, there was a meaningful relationship between EQ and listening comprehension, but it was stronger in males than females. In other researches, similar to this one, it has been proven that in some components of Emotional Intelligence such as flexibility, reality testing, emotional self actualization, and self regard, the degree of p-value in females was calculated to be much lower than males, which means that the relationship between components of EQ and listening comprehension in females was more powerful than males. As shown in data analysis, the degree of correlation coefficient between the two variables in female society was calculated as 0.3248 and in male society as 0.4793. Referring to these results, it could be concluded that the degree of relationship between listening and EQ was higher in male society than female one. One of the reasons for this conclusion may be because of some of the females' characteristics; for example, males have more potential in taking part in social activities such as communicating with other persons, and this feature may be weaker in comparison to their female counterparts. However, Daniel Goleman (1998) asserts that no gender difference in emotional intelligence exists, admitting that while men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence, their overall levels of EQ are equivalent; which can be seen in studies by Mayer and Geher (1996), Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999), and more recently Mandell and Pherwani (2003) who have found that women are more likely to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men, both in professional and personal settings. There are some other investigations about effects of gender on learners' emotional intelligence. King (1999) and Sutarso (1999) found females to have higher emotional intelligence than that of males. However, studies by Chu (2002) revealed that males have a higher level of emotional intelligence than that of females. The probable reason for these findings might be due to the fact that emotional intelligence

primarily deals with managing and expressing one's emotions as well as social skills. Since females tend to be more emotional and intimate in relationships as compared to males, so their emotional intelligence ought to be higher than that of males. This is perhaps because of society, which socializes the two genders differently as has been found in studies by Duckelt and Raffalli (1989) and Sandhu and Mehrotra (1999). Moreover, higher emotional intelligence among girls can also be explained in terms of some of their personality characteristics. Similar findings were reported in a study conducted by Tapia. He observed that girls score higher in regard to empathy, social responsibilities, and interpersonal relationships than boys. They are more sensitive towards their relationships with parents, friends and siblings.

Eventually, many findings through this research turned out to be quite congruent with those of Golman (1995), Salovey, Mayer and Bar-on studies, and findings led the mentioned scholars to believe that people specially learners with high degree of EQ, are more successful in different carriers, learning processes, life and education. Mentioned results indicate that considering and improving learners' emotional intelligence (EQ) and solving problems relating to this issue, instructors can originate and use many effective and powerful methods in teaching that could be beneficial for learners regarding their achievements through learning process.

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Title

The Impact of the Contexts on Language Learning Strategy use and on Academic Achievement in EFL Settings

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Abstract

The present study deals with the impact of the classroom structure types on the realization of language learning strategy and frequency of strategy use and on academic achievement of EFL learners (120) in EFL settings. At the outset, the learners were randomly divided into two groups (cooperative and non-cooperative classroom type as experimental and control group, respectively), taking the homogeneity of the EFL learners and an interview regarding Language Learning Strategy use into account. Viewed statistically, the data resulted from Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, the achievement tests and interviews were

analyzed through running Chi-Square and t-tests and concept mapping technique, respectively. The findings indicated that there is no difference in Iranian strategy use and their academic achievement in the two settings. On the contrary, in terms of the frequency of strategy use, statistically significant differences in cooperative and non-cooperative classroom settings were observed. The implications of the investigation suggest that classroom structure types can contribute to both strategy development and language proficiency enhancement.

Keywords: Cooperative learning, conventional learning, classroom structure, learning strategy

1. Introduction

The old saying runs that learning never takes place in vacuum. But rather, learning occurs within a variety of overlapping contexts, some of which are more conducive to the process of cognitive, affective, moral, and social development than others (Williams & Burden, 1997). Then, the importance of the appropriate environmental conditions for learning can not be underestimated to the extent that Williams and Burden (1997) quote from Robert Sternberg, a cognitive psychologist, that “We can not judge the intellectual quality of any behavior outside of the context in which it occurs” (p.188). At the next level, a country’s educational system seems to frame the learning environment. At another level, the immediate physical environment of the classroom and the nature of personal interactions which occur within it will have profound influence upon whether, what and how any individual learns a language. At a more basic level is classroom structure type, i.e. either cooperative or non-cooperative type (Ames, 1984), being of the major tenets to be tackled in the present investigation. Within the Cooperative environment which has been named as an efficient way in promoting the cognitive and linguistic developments of learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Kagan, 1995; Johnson et al. 1995), students work together (Richards et al, 1985) and use learning strategies to accomplish shared learning goals (Johnson & Johnson, and Stanne, 2000). But the non-cooperative environment and atmosphere is other way round, in which there little satisfaction, positive self-perception and finally no room for group work and collaboration.

Besides the role of classroom structure types, language learning strategies in different classroom structures seems to affect learning and teaching. Defined by Oxford and Green (1995) as “Specific actions or techniques that students use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing L2 skills” (p. 262), language learning strategies have been also the focus of an increasing number of L2/FL studies since the late 1970s and their investigations have advanced

our understanding of the processes learners use to develop their skills in a second or foreign language (Lee, 2003). Basically, these studies are pedagogically-oriented because it is believed that language teaching would be more effective if we, as teachers, know language learning strategies in different contexts, if teaching is based on what learners actually do while learning the language and if we help less successful learners acquire the strategies employed by their successful peers. However, as learning does not take place in vacuum, learning strategies do not seem to be realized unless there is an appropriate context. Due to this, it was felt that very few empirical studies have been conducted as to the types and frequency of learning strategies in the classroom. The present research, hence, is an attempt to explore the impact of the classroom structure types on the realization of language learning strategy and frequency of strategy use and on academic achievement of EFL learners in EFL settings.

2. Review of related literature

2.1. Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning has a rich history. Slavin (1995) states that “Cooperative learning is not new in education, it can be traced back as far as seventeenth century”. It also has been received much attention, from early 70s. It has had potential in decreasing the identified problems of EFL teaching is cooperative learning (CL). Some of the problems in English teaching originate from teacher-centered nature of over-crowded classes. In Iran, like many other places around the world, the teacher is restricted in time and energy to cope with so many students on an individual basis. For language learning context, cooperative learning is broadly defined as an approach to organize classroom activities so that students are able to learn from and interact with one another as well as from the teacher. Students in the cooperative learning classroom structures can deal with a learning task in a variety of ways. Since cooperative learning classrooms are prearranged to embrace learners who epitomize the full range of intelligences, they are particularly appropriate for language teaching (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

2.2. Comparison of conventional and cooperative learning classroom environment

Conventional learning and cooperative learning classroom environment are different in principle. Researchers, Johnson and Johnson (1994), Slavin (1995), and Smith (1995) described the differences between these two learning classroom structures. According to Smith (1995) conventional learning classroom has only individual accountability, while cooperative learning classroom not only has individual accountability, but also group accountability. In such a class learners hold themselves and others accountable for high quality work. Conventional learning

classroom has low interdependence, learners take responsibility only for self, and their focus is only on their own performance, while cooperative learning classroom has a high positive interdependence, learners are responsible for their own and each other's learning, and their focus is on the group performance. Conventional learning classroom has no group processing of the quality of its work, and individual learners' activities and endeavors are rewarded, while in cooperative learning classroom quality of work and how effectively members are working together are rewarded and group improvement is emphasized. In conventional learning classroom group work skills are overlooked, while in cooperative classroom group work skills are emphasized, and learners are trained and expected to use cooperative skills. Assignments in conventional learning classroom are discussed with little commitment to each other's learning, while in cooperative learning classroom learners promote each other's success, doing real work together, and supporting each other's efforts to learn. In conventional learning classroom there is little or no attention to learners grouping, while in cooperative learning classroom teacher forms groups and distributes learners randomly based on their knowledge, experience, and interest (Smith, 1995).

2.2. Language learning strategies

Evidently language learning strategies enjoy rich, if not old, background in the related literature. Chamot (2004) describes language learning strategies as "Thought and actions that individuals use to accomplish the learning goal and to help learners improve their knowledge and understanding of a target language. They are the conscious thoughts and behaviors used by students to facilitate language learning tasks and to personalize the language learning process" (Chamot, 2004, pp. 14-26). Cohen (2003) defines language learning strategies as:

Oxford (1990) has categorized language learning strategies into six distinct categories: cognitive, memory, metacognitive, compensating, social, and affective. Cognitive strategies usually involve the identification, or retrieval of words, phrases, and other elements of the target language (e.g., using prior knowledge to comprehend new language material, applying grammar rules to a new context, or classifying vocabulary according to topic). Memory strategies usually involve the retention, storage, or retrieval of words, and phrases. Metacognitive strategies deal with pre-planning and self-assessment, on-line planning, monitoring, and evaluation, as well as post-evaluation of language learning activities (e.g., previewing the language materials for the day's lesson, organizing one's thoughts before speaking, or reflecting on one's performance). Such strategies allow learners to control the learning process by helping them coordinate their efforts to plan, organize, and evaluate target language performance. Social strategies include the actions that learners select for interacting with other learners, a teacher, or with native speakers (e.g.,

asking questions for clarification, helping a fellow student complete a task, or cooperating with others). Affective strategies serve to regulate learner motivation, emotions, and attitudes (e.g., strategies for reducing anxiety, for self-encouragement, and for self-reward) (Oxford, 1990).

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The sample from which the subjects of the present study were drawn includes 120 university male and female students at IAU university in Hamedan province in Iran. They were assigned randomly into two conventional as control groups and two cooperative groups as experimental groups. The subjects of the study were also homogenized on the basis of a placement test. The test was administered to a large number of students, then based on the normal distribution curve, they were divided into three groups; percentile ranks on the curve, under -1SD, between -1&+1SD, and+1SD. Those who standing under -1SD were selected as homogenized participants of the study.

3.2. Instrumentation

For the purpose of the study some instruments including an interview (tape-recorded), a placement test, teacher-made achievement pre-test and post test were employed. Furthermore, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) including six parts which examined the frequency of the strategy use for L2 learning by learners' self-rating scales (from 5 with "almost always" to 1 with almost never). The SILL also has high reliability and validity (Oxford, 1990 and Oxford and Nyikos, 1986).

3.3. Design and procedure

This study was conducted on the basis of an ex post facto design, the choice of which was determined on the basis of the research questions in which the distinction between the dependent and independent variables appeared to be arbitrary rather than rule-governed. On the other hand, according to Hatch and Farhady (1982) "whenever the researcher does not have control over the selection and manipulation of the independent variables" (p. 26), ex post facto design is advised. The procedure follows that after subjects selection (and categorization into experimental and control group), based on the normal distribution curve, they were divided into three groups; percentile ranks, on the curve, under -1SD, between -1&+1SD, and+1SD. Those standing under -1SD were selected an homogenized participants of the study. To test the subjects' achievement in both settings, a test was given as per-test at the beginning of the study.

In the cooperative class type, the *Jigsaw II Strategy* was used, the strategy which was an adaptation of Elliot Aronson's Jigsaw technique. The subjects were randomly assigned into five–

member cooperative teams along the line of cooperative principles, as suggested by Johnson and Johnson (1985, 1997) and Aronson (2005). Then, the interviews were conducted by the researcher himself after the 10th session of the instructions for the experimental and control groups and the SILL was administered at the end of the course to all the groups. Finally, an achievement test as a post-test was given to both groups to test their achievements. As a result, SILL and interview were compared to determine the efficiency of cooperative and conventional classroom structure types and subjects' language learning strategies.

4. Research questions

To the objectives of the study, the following research questions are tackled:

1. Do Iranian EFL learners use different learning strategies under Cooperative and Conventional settings?
2. Does Iranian EFL learners' academic achievement differ significantly under Cooperative and Conventional classroom settings?
3. Does the frequency of language learning strategy use differ in Cooperative and Conventional classroom settings?

5. Data analyses and findings

5.1. Problem 1

For the purpose of the first problem, an independent samples t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the subjects' language learning strategies in cooperative and conventional settings. The findings appear in [Table 1](#) below.

Table 1: Independent t-test of Learning Strategies in two Settings

LLS	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Conventional Control	60	173.53	22.79642			
Cooperative Experimental	60	170.38	19.06909				

The statistical data reached a non-significant difference ($t = .821$, $P = .413$) between the variables, i.e., t-observed value is .821, and ratio of t-value at 118 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical t-value, i.e. 1.96 and $P (= .413)$ is also higher than .05. Tangibly put, the mean scores, clearly, for the conventional and cooperative settings stood at 173.53 and 170.38, respectively. The statistical conclusion, thus, is that Iranian EFL learners at pre-university schools do not use different learning strategies under cooperative and conventional

settings, namely, the setting type does not have any significant effect on the language learning strategy use.

5.2. Problem 2

To tackle the second research question, an independent samples t-test was also run and the findings appear in [Table 2](#) below:

Table 2: Independent t-test of Academic achievement in two Settings

	Achievement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Groups	Conventional Control	60	17.4167	2.74505	1.020	118	.310
	Cooperative Experimental	60	16.9500	2.24307			

According to Table 2, the run t-test reached a non-significant difference ($t = .821, P = .310$), with the mean scores standing at 17.41 and 16.95. Building on the available statistics, it can be concluded that the setting type does not have any significant effect on the academic achievement of the EFL learners.

5.3. Problem 3:

In order to find out “whether frequency of language learning strategy use differs significantly in cooperative and conventional classroom settings”, a chi-square was run and the findings appear in [Table 3](#) below.

Table 3: Chi-Square for total frequency of LLS in the two Settings

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson the chi-square	10.839(a)	4	.028
a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26.50.			

For the comparison of frequency of learners’ language learning strategy use between cooperative and conventional classroom settings, the chi-square observed value is 15.74. This amount of the chi-square value is greater than the critical value of the chi-square at 4 degrees of freedom, i.e. 9.49. Thus, it can be concluded that, contrary to the findings reported in the previous research questions, frequency of language learning strategy use differs in cooperative and conventional classroom settings.

5.4. Interview

The second instrument used in the present study was a structured interview. Forty pre-university students, twenty males and twenty females, learning in both cooperative and conventional classroom structure types were randomly chosen and interviewed to explore the interaction between and classroom types and language learning strategies. Learners answered six items, each exploring one category of different categories of language learning strategies, namely memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensating strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Their answers were tape recorded. All the data gathered through the interview were analyzed in term of the frequency of sub categories of each item.

Given the first item addressing use of memory category sought through, “*What do you do about a new word / language point (e.g., grammar, etc.) and what you already know when learning it?*” as the table 4 shows, the subjects expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various strategies in experimental and control groups enjoy the following distribution:

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics on the First Item of the Interview

Experimental groups		Control groups	
Strategy type	Percentage	Strategy type	Percentage
Memory	%25	Memory	%75
Cognitive	%25	Cognitive	%25
Compensating	%10	Compensating	%5
Metacognitive	%5	Metacognitive	%0
Affective	%0	Affective	%0
Social	%35	Social	%0

Then, it can be claimed that the subjects in cooperative class type tend to use social strategies more than those learning under conventional classroom type. Similarly, the subjects in the conventional classroom type tend to use memory strategies more than those learning under cooperative classroom type. As a result, as far as the strategies at work are concerned, the claim is made that classroom type, depending on its nature, atmosphere and conduct plays a differentiating role in the realization of strategy type, and frequency of use. The findings contribute to, and to some extent, correlate with those achieved through the SILL used in the study.

Given the second item, addressing use of cognitive category sought through, “*How do you practice learning a new word, expression or learning point?*”, as the table 5 shows

the participants expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various strategies in the experimental and control classroom enjoy the following distribution:

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics on the Second Item of the Interview

Experimental groups		Control groups	
Strategy type	Percentage	Strategy type	Percentage
Memory	%20	Memory	%45
Cognitive	%15	Cognitive	%30
Compensating	%25	Compensating	%25
Metacognitive	%10	Metacognitive	%5
Affective	%0	Affective	%0
Social	%30	Social	%0

Then, it can be claimed that the subjects in cooperative group tend to use social strategies more than those learning under conventional classroom type. Similarly, the subjects in the conventional classroom type tend to use memory and cognitive strategies more than those learning under cooperative classroom type. As a result, as far as the strategies at work are concerned, the claim is made that classroom type, depending on its nature, atmosphere and conduct plays a differentiating role in the realization of strategy type, and frequency of use. The findings, to some extent, do not correlate with those achieved through the SILL used in the study.

Given the third item, addressing use of compensating category sought through “*How do you try to guess the meaning of a new word, grammar point when you do not understand it?*” as the [table 6](#) shows the subjects expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various strategies in the experimental and control classroom enjoy the following distribution :

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics on the Third Item of the Interview

Experimental groups		Control groups	
Strategy type	Percentage	Strategy type	Percentage
Memory	%15	Memory	%25
Cognitive	%10	Cognitive	%10
Compensating	%35	Compensating	%30
Metacognitive	%15	Metacognitive	%15
Affective	%0	Affective	%0
Social	%20	Social	%10

Then, it can be claimed that the subjects in cooperative class type tend to use compensating and social strategies under cooperative setting more than those learning under conventional classroom type. Similarly, the subjects in the conventional classroom type tend to use memory strategies more than those learning under cooperative classroom type. As a result, as far as the strategies at work are concerned, the claim is made that classroom type, depending on its nature, atmosphere and conduct plays a differentiating, if not statistically significant, role in the realization of strategy type, and frequency of use. The findings contribute to and to some extent correlate with those achieved through the SILL used in the study.

Given the fourth item addressing use of metacognitive category sought through “*How do you try to understand when someone is speaking in English? (e.g., concentrate, take note, pay attention to the topic, etc)*”, as the [table 7](#) shows all subjects expressed their views. In terms of percentage, the use of various strategies in the experimental and control classroom enjoy the following distribution:

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics on the Fourth Item of the Interview

Experimental groups		Control groups	
Strategy type	Percentage	Strategy type	Percentage
Memory	%20	Memory	%45
Cognitive	%10	Cognitive	%15
Compensating	%20	Compensating	%10
Metacognitive	%15	Metacognitive	%15
Affective	%0	Affective	%0
Social	%35	Social	%15

Then, it can be claimed that the participants in cooperative class type tend to use social strategies more than those learning under conventional classroom type. Similarly, the participants in the conventional classroom type tend to use memory strategies more than those learning under cooperative classroom type. As a result, as far as the strategies at work are concerned, the claim is made that classroom type, depending on its nature, atmosphere and conduct plays a differentiating role in the realization of strategy type, and frequency of use. The findings, to some extent, do not correlate with those achieved through the SILL used in the study

Given the fifth item addressing use of affective category sought through “*What do you do whenever you feel anxious in using English language for any purpose?*” as the [table](#)

8 shows the participants expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various strategies in the experimental and control classrooms enjoy the following distribution:

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics on the Fifth Item of the Interview

Experimental groups		Control groups	
Strategy type	Percentage	Strategy type	Percentage
Memory	%10	Memory	%35
Cognitive	%0	Cognitive	%15
Compensating	%10	Compensating	%0
Metacognitive	%10	Metacognitive	%10
Affective	%30	Affective	%25
Social	%40	Social	%5

Then, it can be claimed that the subjects in cooperative group tend to use social and affective strategies more than those learning under conventional classroom type. Similarly, the subjects in the conventional classroom type tend to use memory strategies more than those learning under cooperative classroom type. As a result, as far as the strategies at work are concerned, the claim is made that classroom type, depending on its nature, atmosphere and conduct plays a differentiating role in the realization of strategy type, and frequency of use. The findings, to some extent, do not correlate with those achieved through the SILL used in the study.

Given the sixth item addressing the use of social category sought through “*What do you usually ask the speaker to do when you do not understand him?*”, as the [table 9](#) shows all subjects expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various strategies in the experimental and control classrooms enjoy the following distribution:

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics on the Sixth item of the Interview

Experimental groups		Control groups	
Strategy type	Percentage	Strategy type	Percentage
Memory	%15	Memory	%25
Cognitive	%10	Cognitive	%25
Compensating	%20	Compensating	%5
Metacognitive	%15	Metacognitive	%10
Affective	%0	Affective	%10
Social	%40	Social	%15

Then, it can be claimed that the subjects tend to use compensating and social strategies more than those learning under conventional classroom type. Similarly, the subjects in the conventional classroom type tend to use memory and cognitive strategies more than those learning under cooperative classroom type. As a result, as far as the strategies at work are concerned, the claim is made that classroom type, depending on its nature, atmosphere and conduct plays a differentiating, if not statistically significant, role in the realization of strategy type, and frequency of use. The findings contribute to and to some extent correlate with those achieved through the SILL used in the study.

Considering the data analyses of the SILL and interview parts, the third hypothesis was rejected, but it is too difficult to reject the first and second hypotheses just on the basis of statistical and quantitative justifications. In other words, EFL subjects' LLS use and their academic achievements do not generally differ significantly depending on the type of the class, but in certain aspects and sub-categories of LLS there are differences in frequency of sub-strategy use which can not be easily taken for granted. Based on the above mentioned data it can be claimed that there is not much difference between participants' language learning strategy use in cooperative and conventional class types, but there is much difference in the frequency of subject's language learning strategy use in different categories of language learning strategy. The subjects in cooperative class type used social and compensating strategies more than learning in conventional class type and the subjects in conventional class types used memory strategies more than learning in cooperative class type. More over to some extent, the finding of the qualitative approach, interview, did not contribute to the findings of quantitative statistical analysis. Thus, it can be claimed that conventional quantitative statistical analyses relying on just statistical significance cannot be convincing enough in exploring the construct of cognitive phenomena as those of the interview and the SILL do not match in certain areas, if not contradictory.

5. Conclusion

The descriptive analysis of participants' attitudes obtained from the SILL and structured interview showed that the subjects did not use different language learning strategies in different contexts .e.g., cooperative and conventional classroom structure types, but the frequency of learners' language learning strategy use showed to be different between groups. Moreover, to some extent, the finding of the qualitative approach, interview, did not contribute to the findings of quantitative statistical analysis. Thus, it can be claimed that conventional

quantitative statistical analyses relying on just statistical significance cannot be convincing enough in exploring the construct of cognitive phenomena as those of the interview and the SILL do not match in certain areas, if not contradictory. On the other hand, the achievement test indicated that there is not any significant difference between the cooperative and conventional classroom structure on the academic achievement. In other in-brief word, this study proved that, learner's language learning strategy use and their academic achievement do not significantly differ depending on the type of the class, but the frequency of learner's language learning strategy use differs significantly depending on the type of the class or sub-categories of macro-strategy type.

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Title

Consciousness-Raising and Noticing: A Study of EFL Learners' Grammar Test Performance

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Abstract

According to theorists and researchers in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), consciousness-raising (C-R) at the level of noticing is effective for enhancing the learners' attentional resources in order to promote their knowledge about grammatical structures. To investigate the nature of such effect, grammar consciousness-raising tasks in form of episodic dialogs were developed and used as treatment in this study. The testing points included preposition, pronouns, present perfect tense and passive verbs. The results indicated that task performance was effective in the promotion of subsequent significant amounts of noticing, as compared with the noticing produced by the control group. Also, the differential effect of treatment on learning these grammatical structures was examined.

Keywords: Focus on form, Consciousness-raising, Input enhancement, Noticing hypothesis

1. Introduction

One of the controversial issues in applied linguistics concerns the role of conscious and unconscious processes in second language learning. On the one hand, there are many who believe that conscious understanding of the target language system is necessary if learners are to produce correct forms and use them appropriately. For example, Bialystok (1978) has provided a theoretical frame work that allows a role for conscious knowledge, and Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) have argued that "consciousness-raising" drawing learner's attention to the formal properties of language facilitates language learning.

On the other hand, others firmly believe that language learning is essentially unconscious. Seliger (1983) has claimed that "it is at the unconscious level that language learning takes place" (p.187). Krashen (1981, 1983, and 1985) has elaborated a theory that rests on a distinction between two independent processes, genuine learning, called "acquisition", which is subconscious, and conscious learning, which is of little use in actual language production.

Schmith (1990) argues that the most influential argument against any role of consciousness in behavior and learning were originally put forth by behaviorists, who were committed to elimination of the concept from psychological explanation. The basic behaviorist position is that consciousness is epiphenomenal, playing no causal role in human life. Behaviorists argued consciousness is a meaningless, pre-scientific term and cannot be scientifically investigated (Rey, 1983).

Nevertheless, the time may be right for serious reconsideration of the phenomenon of consciousness and the role it may play in language learning. Schmith (1990) also states that in psychology, the decline of behaviorism was associated with widespread recognition that consciousness is an important concept for the explanation of psychological phenomena and has important role in cognition and learning. The mainstream point of view in current cognitive psychology does not support the position that subjective awareness is epiphenomenal, and it is frequently claimed that learning without awareness is impossible (Brewer, 1974; Dawson and Schell, 1987; Lewis & Anderson, 1985). In addition, recent years have seen a growing concern with the role of conscious processes in second language acquisition (SLA). This concern is frequently centered on the Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1990; 1993a; 1994; 1995a; 1995b; Schmidt and Frota, 1986), which has been adopted by a large and probably growing number of researchers who advocated its role in interlanguage development (e.g., Ellis, 1993; 1994b; Fotos, 1993; 1994; Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Harley, 1993; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Long, 1991; Robinson, 1995; 1996; Zalewski, 1993).

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Noticing in Second Language Learning

Addressing the Input Hypothesis and regarding the unconscious acquisition of language, Schmidt (1990) summarily states that "subliminal language learning is impossible" (p. 56). His noticing hypothesis is a claim about how input becomes intake – that part of the input that is used for acquisition. It claims that conscious awareness (noticing) of grammar plays an important role in the process and 'noticing' or 'focal awareness' of a feature is an initial

predecessor to acquisition, especially for adults whose attention tends to be focal not dissimilar to a spotlight in the dark. He proposes that the difference between 'input' and 'intake' lies here; *intake* is what is noticed. In the strong form of the hypothesis, favored by Schmidt (1990; 1993a; 1994; 1995b), noticing is a necessary condition for learning. It has been suggested (Schmidt and Frota 1986) that two kinds of noticing are necessary conditions for acquisition:

1. Learners must attend to linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to, without which input cannot become 'intake'.
2. Learners must 'notice the gap', i.e. make comparisons between the current state of their developing linguistic system, as realized in their output, and the target language system, available as input.

'Matching' is the term used by Klein (1986) for this second type of noticing: "the learner must continuously compare his current language variety with the target variety" (62). Ellis (1995) prefers the term 'cognitive comparison', since this "better captures the fact that learners need to notice when their own output is the same as the input as well as when it is different" (p.90). Thornbury (1997) states that noticing operations occupy a key role in Ellis's model of second language acquisition, facilitating the process whereby explicit knowledge becomes implicit knowledge.

In the classroom, the first kind of noticing is customarily promoted through activities and procedures involving input enhancement (Sharwood Smith 1993), whereby targeted features of the input are made salient in order to facilitate their becoming intake. Thornbury (1997) notes that the presentation stage of the traditional Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) model of instruction is designed to do just that. However, he refers to Allwright (1979) who puts the effectiveness of this kind of approach under question on a number of grounds,

"...not least because, given the current state of our knowledge of acquisition order, this kind of pre-emptive strike on targeted forms 'could only be appropriate by chance" (p.170).

Chaudron (1988) asserts that the second kind of noticing is traditionally mediated through corrective feedback. Evidence suggests, however, that, when it comes to correction, there is a considerable mismatch between teacher intentions and learner outcomes, he mentions that "the greatest error teachers make may be the assumption that what occurs as 'correction' in classroom interaction automatically leads to learning on the part of the student" (152).

Given, then, the somewhat hit-and-miss nature of both presentation and correction, Thornbury (1997) believes some tasks like reformulation and reconstruction provide

opportunities for noticing and allow the learner to devote some attentional resources to form, and, moreover, provide both the data and the incentive for the learner to make comparisons between interlanguage output and target language models. However, he states that opportunities for noticing alone are not enough if the learners lack the strategies to take advantage of them. Since noticing is a conscious cognitive process, it is theoretically accessible to training and development. This suggests that the teacher's role is to develop noticing strategies that the student can apply independently and autonomously.

2.2. Consciousness-raising: Theoretical Assumptions and Practical Application

Consciousness-raising is a psycholinguistic concept related to the widely debated question of how second languages are learned and is specifically concerned with the cognitive question of how students' minds work. It is a term first introduced by Sharwood Smith (1981), who defines it as deliberate attempts on the part of teachers (or researchers) to raise learners' consciousness of the formal features of the target language with a view to promote the development of their L2 knowledge. The definition implied that learning is a result of direct manipulation of learners' mental state. Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) later renamed it as *input enhancement*, which expanded the meaning of consciousness-raising, which mainly concerns the manipulation of learners' mental state, to the external manipulation of the input or instruction. Therefore, noticing was not limited to direct manipulation of learners' mental state as it had been first defined. *Noticing* was also termed as *focal awareness* (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968), *perceived input* (Gass, 1988), *input enhancement* (Schmidt, 1983, 1990, 1991, 1993, 1994), *input processing* (VanPatten, 1993, 1996). Whatever it was termed, these theorists agreed that noticing played an important role in second language acquisition (SLA).

Sa-ngiamwibool (2007) equals consciousness theoretically to awareness, consisting of three levels: perceiving, noticing, and understanding. He states that consciousness-raising is the attempt to increase the ability to consciously perceive and notice information in order to turn it into knowledge which is called understanding or learning.

On the other hand, Walsh (2005) asserts that what is termed a 'consciousness-raising' (C-R) of language features is useful in that it draws attention to forms, which can aid the learner in forming initial hypothesis about meaning-form relationships, or enable a conscious practice to take place which may help the learner build implicit knowledge. Even more tenable than this, however is the hypothesis that C-R will aid the learner's noticing of targeted features in further input where a more natural acquisition of the form can begin to take place. In this way C-R differs from traditional grammar instruction in terms of expectations, and as such, application within a methodological framework.

Similarly, Skehan (1998, p.64) sees consciousness-raising as ‘tasks that draw attention to a particular form, but give no explicit information’ and Ellis (1992, p.138) defines it as ‘a type of form-focused instruction designed to make learners aware of a specific feature’.

Willis (1996, p.64) says consciousness-raising occurs when:

....students are encouraged to notice particular features of the language, to draw conclusions from what they notice and to organize their view of language in the light of the conclusions they have drawn.

Regarding the principal assumptions on which a general conception of C-R operates Sugiharto (2006) believes that formal instruction is deemed important and even desirable as it can help facilitate the acquisition of grammatical knowledge—that is declarative or explicit knowledge. Proponents of C-R might argue that the exposure to comprehensible input is necessary, but not sufficient to bring about successful acquisition (Yip, 1994). In this case, C-R is often claimed to hold a ‘middle-ground or weak-interface position’ (see Ellis, 1994) between two extreme approaches to teaching L2 grammar: those who adopt a noninterface position (Krashen, 1981; Hulstijn, 2002; Zobl, 1995) and those who argue for interface position (Sharwood-Smith, 1981). It is also claimed that C-R is something of a compromise between the grammar-translation and communicative language teaching (Yip, 1994, p. 124).

Sugiharto (2006) notes that another principal that underlies C-R is that it is more effective to develop awareness of specific grammatical structures at the level of understanding than to spontaneously require the learner to produce them in communication. As Ellis (2002) put it: “The aim of this kind of grammar teaching (C-R) is not to enable the learner to perform a structure correctly but simply to help him/her to ‘know about it’” (p.169). In a similar vein, Rutherford & Sharwood-Smith (1985, p. 280) states “C-R is considered as a potential facilitator for the acquisition of linguistic competence and has nothing directly to do with the use of that competence for the achievement of specific communicative objectives, or with the achievement of fluency”. The ‘delayed production of language’ is in fact one of the striking features that distinguishes C-R from the grammar translation.

In its practical application C-R activities can be carried out either using deductive or inductive approach. In the former, the learner is provided with explicit explanations of grammatical structure. In the latter, the learner is provided with language data and is then asked to discover or construct the grammar rule for themselves. In an attempt to distinguish C-R tasks from other form-focused tasks, Ellis (2002, p. 168) lists the main characteristics of the former as the following:

1. There is an attempt to isolate specific linguistic features for focused attention.
2. The learners are provided with data which illustrate the targeted feature and they may also be supplied with an explicit rule describing or explaining the feature.
3. Misunderstanding or incomplete understanding of the grammatical structure by the learners leads to clarification in the form of further data and description or explanation.
4. The learners are expected to utilize intellectual effort to understand the targeted feature.
5. Learners may be required (although this is not obligatory) to articulate the rule describing the grammatical structure.

C-R task is defined by Ellis (1997) as “a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic property or properties of the target language (p. 160). According to Ellis (2003), C-R should consist of (1) data containing exemplars of the targeted feature and (2) instructions requiring the learners to operate on the data in some way. Data option can include authentic vs. contrived, oral vs. written and gap vs. non non-gap, while operation types can include identification (underlining the target structure in the data), judgment (responding to the correctness or appropriateness of the data), and sorting (classifying the data by sorting it into defined categories) (Ellis,1997).

Related to the C-R application Sugiharto (2006) asserts that teachers are not expected to demand students’ mastery or accurate production of the target structures immediately upon instruction. Unlike other form-focused activities that encourage immediate language production, C-R de-emphasizes learner production, and is not intended to lead to correct use of the targeted feature in spontaneous language use directly following task performance (Ellis, 1997).

For consciousness-raising to work Jeffery (2003) believes teachers need to close the gap between realistic English (saying something to use English), and real English (using English to say something) by using language learning (formal study) as a springboard for acquisition (spontaneity). In this way teachers can draw students’ attention to prominent characteristics of the target language and let this learning process facilitate acquisition. It is the cognitive capacity of the students that is most important in this respect, rather than mere memorization and regurgitation as in realistic English. Consciousness-raising requires second language acquisition to not be simply the accumulation of one isolated grammatical entity upon another, but rather the acquisition of new language skills upon pre-existing knowledge, through attention to form rather than merely on memorizing details. Consciousness-raising is

also an invisible process, in that it need not be realized immediately in conversational output, but is, at the same time, also a process making fairly significant changes in the mind of the student. The student begins to remember and understand grammar forms, and through this awareness they become inculcated as part of the overall study process.

Suter (2001) believes that learners of a foreign language who are taught grammar by consciousness-raising activities may have to cope with some of the following:

- They must be ready to challenge their (possible) expectations of language learning activities and/or lessons
- They must share the view of language learning proposed by Rutherford as cited above and not expect to be able to learn in an additive way
- They must accept that the learning of a foreign language is a process without a definite ending or a final state of perfection
- They must have a considerable amount of confidence in their teacher's professional skills because they will rarely be able to experience short-term success
- They must take a larger responsibility² for their own learning because the method implies that neither the teacher nor the learner can evaluate immediately the outcome of a lesson
- They must show a high degree of motivation and active collaboration during the lessons to be able to 'catch' the suitable information for their individual level of learning progression.

2.3. History of Research on Consciousness-Raising and Noticing

In the last two decades a number of studies provide evidence in support of the need for learners to be exposed to explicit use of the target language through consciousness-raising and noticing activities as opposed to implicit exposure. Some of these studies compared the effect of direct and indirect consciousness-raising. For example, Fotos and Ellis (1991) compared the effects of direct consciousness-raising by means of grammar explanation and of indirect consciousness-raising by means of a C-R task on Japanese learner's ability to judge the grammaticality of sentences involving dative alteration. They found that both methods of consciousness-raising resulted in significant gains in understanding the target structure. Shen (1992) compared direct and indirect consciousness-raising in a six-week beginner's French course for Japanese, finding that students in the two groups did equally well in a written post-test of the structure taught. Mohamed (2001) found that indirect consciousness-raising was more effective than direct consciousness-raising when applied to high intermediate ESL learners from mixed L1 background but not to low intermediate learners, suggesting that the proficiency of learners can determine the effectiveness of C-R. To ascertain student preferences for C-R versus deductive instruction methods and to collect and interpret their

views on this question, as well as related questions about the perceived importance and efficacy of productive language practice Ranalli (2001) prepared two questionnaires. The results revealed that most of the learners favored deductive approach.

As for the C-R tasks which can be deductive and inductive, Mohamed (2004) examines learners' perspectives of the effectiveness of such tasks. The findings indicate that learners have no strong preference for a particular type of task over the other. They view the tasks to be useful in assisting them to learn new knowledge about language. The finding suggests that C-R tasks (both deductive and inductive) are effective learning tool and can therefore be used to raise learners' awareness of linguistic forms. Some other researchers do not consider these tasks as deductive and inductive. They put them on a continuum and examine the degree of focus. In this regard, Fotos (1993) conducted an experimental research to investigate the amount of learner noticing produced by two types of grammar consciousness-raising treatments: teacher-fronted grammar lessons and interactive, grammar problem-solving tasks. Involving 160 Japanese college students of English, Fotos designed her research by dividing the subjects into three different treatment groups, which were taught indirect object placement, adverb placement, and relative clause usage in communicative input. The findings revealed that the two types of grammar consciousness-raising are effective in promoting significant level of noticing the target language structures in subsequent communicative input.

Another study investigating the effectiveness of consciousness-raising was carried out by Yip (1994). In an attempt to probe the benefit of C-R, Yip conducted a study on English *ergative*—verbs, which she observed, posed a logical problem of acquisition that cannot be resolved by positive evidence. Using a judgment task, Yip found that many of her students, even the advanced students, rejected good ergative as acceptable constructions and they judge these constructions to be ungrammatical. Alternatively, the students corrected the constructions using their own version. However, after undergoing C-R session class, her students showed dramatic improvement in that they were sensitive to the misapprehensions about the ergative construction in English. Based on this finding, Yip concludes that C-R can be effective, at least in the short term, in directing learner's attention to the ill-formedness of the grammatical features of the target language.

Sugiharto (2006) was another researcher in favour of using consciousness-raising tasks in grammar instruction. He investigated Indonesian students' ability in understanding the simple present tense rules, which often pose a problem for the students. Using a grammatical judgment test, Sugiharto compared the results from students' pre-and post-test, and found that

students performance significantly better on the post-test. This study indicated that C-R is effective in helping students develop their explicit knowledge of the simple present tense. On the other hand, Sa-ngiamwiboo (2007) also, tried to show that consciousness-raising at the level of noticing is effective for enhancing Thai students' writing achievement. This study employed a pre-test post-test experimental design. The testing points, based on the Structure and Written Expression in the TOEFL test, included noun, pronoun, article, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, subject-verb agreement, infinitive and gerund, word order, parallel construction, adjective clause, adverb clause, comparative, and superlative. The results revealed that C-R instructions had significant effects on students' writing achievement.

Some other researchers believe that computer can serve as a consciousness-raiser by highlighting and correcting student's errors and giving them explanatory feedback. For example, Nagata (1995) investigated the effectiveness of two types of computer feedback; traditional feedback that indicates only missing or unexpected words in the learner's response, and intelligent computer feedback that provides further information about the nature of the errors in the form of metalinguistic rules. The study found that intelligent computer feedback is more effective than traditional computer feedback for investigating the learners' grammatical proficiency in the use of complex structure of the target language.

Other studies have focused on the role of consciousness-raising and noticing as corrective feedback. Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis suggests that negative feedback helps learners to notice the gap between inter-language forms and target forms, and noticing the gap has been hypothesized to assist inter-language development. In addition, Naeini (2008) focused on the role of error correction as an indication of consciousness-raising. The aim of her study was to explore the effects of form-focused instruction and feedback type on learning. The learners in treatment group received corrective feedback in the form of prompts, including clarification requests, repetitions, elicitations, and meta-linguistic clues while the learners in the control group received the same instruction as the experimental group without any kind of feedback. The analysis of the data indicated the outperformance of the participants in experimental group over the performance of the participants in control group.

On the other hand, consciousness-raising at the level of noticing has been the interest of the researchers who were interested in the using L1 in the classroom to facilitate L2 acquisition. For example, Scutt and Fueute (2008) designed a study to examine how students use the L1 when they are asked to work collaboratively on form-focused tasks. The findings

from this study indicated that learners use the L1 even when they appear to be operating exclusively in the L2. The students' reflections from the stimulated recall sessions indicated that when they are required to use the L2 during a collaborative consciousness-raising, form-focused task, they talk to themselves in the L1 as they translate the text, recall grammar rules, review the task, and plan what to say in the L2. In addition, the findings suggested that exclusive use of the L2 during consciousness-raising, form-focused tasks may impose cognitive demands on learners that may have a negative impact on the allocation of cognitive resources for the task. Moreover, Scott (2008) conducted a research on the role of the first language (L1) when pairs of intermediate-level college learners of French and Spanish were engaged in consciousness-raising, form-focused grammar tasks. Using conversation analysis of audio taped interactions and stimulated recall sessions, she explored the ways students used the L1 and their second language (L2) to solve a grammar problem. Findings invited teachers to tackle the "problem" of the L1 in the foreign language classroom.

Finally, Abdolmanafi (2010) investigated the effects of such focus on form instruction by comparing the short-term benefits of two focuses on form techniques in enhancing noticing, Grammar Consciousness-Raising and Textual Input Enhancement on the learning of relative clauses to emphasize the role of attention and focus on form approach in language teaching. This study supported the conclusion that the attentional function called noticing is related to components of successful grammar learning, and that these considerations can be utilized by language teachers using FonF to promote noticing of grammatical forms. Also, more noticing is more facilitative in SLA than less noticing.

Collectively, all these research studies focus on how consciousness-raising enhances learners' structural knowledge and written expression skill via input such as instruction and task. However, bearing testimony to pedagogical benefits of C-R problems remains. One of the biggest problems concerns the generalizability of the findings. As all studies reviewed above focused on certain specific target structures, the findings are not necessarily conclusive and any attempts of generalizing them are not warranted. Thus, a C-R task which has been proven effective in facilitating the acquisition of one linguistic feature may not necessarily be effective when applied to other linguistics features. The problem is that different linguistic features have different degree of linguistic complexity and different frequency of occurrence in communication. The target rules that are less complex and have frequent occurrence in communication tend to be easier to learn and internalized, and grammar instruction is more likely to have an immediate effect; the target rules that are more complex and have less frequent occurrence in communication tend to pose learning difficulty, and grammar

instruction seems to have a delay effect. Therefore, the need of more research on different linguistic features and target structures is sensed. Present study is significant in that it has combined the effect of C-R tasks with the Oller's (1983) Episode Hypothesis. He believed that text will be easier to reproduce, understand and recall to the extent it is structured episodically. To do so all of the dialogues were prepared in episodic manner and learners could follow the rest of the story in each session. No study has used the C-R tasks in this manner yet. On the other hand, in most of the mentioned studies only one linguistic structure is presented through C-R tasks. Maybe learners can acquire one target structure regardless of different instructions that are used for its presentation; therefore, four different target structures have been used in this study.

2.4. The study

Given the importance of raising the learners' consciousness and the outcomes in language learning, this study aimed to examine the effects of consciousness-raising tasks on EFL learners' grammar test performance and the following research questions were raised:

1. Do consciousness-raising tasks at the level of noticing have significant effect on improving grammar test performance of EFL learners?
2. Does this effect vary with different grammatical structures?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

This research project was conducted throughout the spring semester of 2010 and the treatment was presented to learners in 9 weeks. Participants were 60 female students in pre-intermediate level of language proficiency with different field of studies (Management, Accounting, and Computer Sciences) who were selected randomly out of 90 learners taking a general English course at one of the branches of Islamic Azad University in the center of Iran. All of these students had at least a-three-year English education during their high school education and their ages ranged from 18 to 35. In order to ensure their homogeneity regarding language proficiency a Language Proficiency Test was carried out and the subjects were homogenized based on their scores. Then, they were divided randomly into control and experimental groups. Both groups in this study were on 45-hour courses which met once a week for 180 minutes (9 weeks). In order to determine the homogeneity of the subjects in these two groups an independent t-test was run. The results show no significant differences between the groups prior to the treatment.

TABLE 1

Descriptive statistics for Nelson scores				
Variables	Number of cases	Mean	Std. dev	Std. error mean
Experimental groups	30	29.30	7.405	1.352
Control group	30	28.43	7.959	1.435

TABLE 2

independent t-test for the Nelson- test			
t-observed	Degree of freedom	t-critical	
0.43	58	2.000	
		P<.05	0.43<2.0

3.2. Instrumentation

Three instruments were employed. Firstly, a standard language proficiency test was used. This test consisted of 50 multiple-choice items of knowledge of English structures. The time allocated to the subject to answer the test was 50 minutes. Secondly, a grammar test consisted of 20 multiple-choice items was used as pre-test. In this test, each 5 items were allocated to one grammatical point including preposition, pronouns, present perfect tense and passive verb. The allocated time was 20 minutes. Finally, another grammar 20-multiple-choice test which shared the same characteristics in terms of question type and duration with the pre-test was carried out.

3.3. Pilot study

A pilot study was performed to estimate the ‘reliability’ and the validity of the pre test and post-test. To conduct the study 25 female students were selected. Firstly, the items of these tests underwent an item analysis process. Then the reliability of both tests were estimated through the Kurder- Richardson 21 (KR-21) method. The results were 0.74 and 0.78 respectively. The validities of both tests were estimated through correlating their scores with the Nelson language proficiency scores. The results were 0.76 and 0.80 respectively.

TABLE 3

Descriptive statistics for the results of the pilot study						
Tests	Mean	Std. deviation	variance	Reliabilit y	K	N
Nelson	30.14	7.10	50.43	0.80	50	25
T1	26.69	5.72	32.82	0.74	40	25
T2	28.04	5.48	30.04	0.78	40	25

TABLE 4

Matrix of correlation-validity		
	T1	T2
Nelson	0.76	0.80

3.4. Procedure

In order to test the research questions of this study, 60 homogenous subjects in terms of

language proficiency were chosen out of 90 female students based on their performance on Nelson test. Then, they were divided into two groups as; control group and experimental group. Four structures under question selected from the subjects' textbook were presented for both groups through teacher fronted grammar lessons. The structures varying in difficulty and their presentations were sequenced accordingly. Before starting treatment, a pre-test was administered to groups simultaneously in a makeup class; therefore, the content of the test was new for both groups. The results indicated that the groups enjoyed the same level of performance in these structures prior to the treatment. (4. Results **and discussion**

Findings of this study substantiate the importance of using C-R tasks as an effective way to improve students' grammatical knowledge. After examining the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups before treatment through administration of the Nelson language proficiency test (TABLE 1 & TABLE 2), a grammar test was administered as a pre-test to both groups to ensure their homogeneity regarding their knowledge of grammatical structures. Then, an independent t-test was run between mean scores of both groups (**Error! Not a valid bookmark self-reference.** &

TABLE 6).

TABLE 5).

The main distinction between the subjects in the two groups was the nature of exercise used after instruction. The instructional procedure went on during the term before post-test was carried out and students typically engaged in group activities on a weekly basis. One teacher instructed both groups. In these sessions control groups worked just on the exercises of their textbooks and their work were checked by teacher and errors were corrected in the same way reactively. Most of these exercises were isolated sentences and they lacked communicative context.

On the other hand, the students of experimental groups were divided into small groups and worked on consciousness-raising tasks (see Appendix). A story was distributed among them in form of episodes. In each session, subjects received one of these episodes in form of the short incomplete dialogs. These dialogs were a kind of conversation among the characters of the story who were family members. These tasks were prepared based on the identifying and consolidating patterns of usage in Wills and Wills (1996) classification of consciousness-raising tasks. The students had two choices for completing the deleted parts. Then members of each group played the different roles of their episodes and received feedback from their classmates. They had to identify the correct grammatical structures.

The teacher's error correction was offered in students' L1 when it was necessary and only for the four selected structures. After each episode the members of the groups and teacher discussed about the grammatical rules collaboratively and finally one volunteer explained the rules explicitly. All kind of errors that were not related to the planned structures were not observed. On the other hand, in case of the focused structures first students and then teachers offered some explanation, although no error was happened. And finally at the end of these sessions the post-test was carried out to both groups simultaneously again in a makeup class.

4. Results and discussion

Findings of this study substantiate the importance of using C-R tasks as an effective way to improve students' grammatical knowledge. After examining the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups before treatment through administration of the Nelson language proficiency test (TABLE 1 & TABLE 2), a grammar test was administered as a pre-test to both groups to ensure their homogeneity regarding their knowledge of grammatical structures. Then, an independent t-test was run between mean scores of both groups (Error! Not a valid bookmark self-reference. & TABLE 6).

TABLE 5

Descriptive statistics for the pre-test				
Variables	Number of Cases	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean
Experimental group	30	12.78	3.423	.625
Control group	30	12.14	4.145	.574

TABLE 6

Independent t-test for the pre-test		
t-observed	Degree of Freedom	t-critical
.53	58	2.000
P< .05		.53<2.000

As

TABLE 6 indicates, the observed value for t is .53, which at 58 degree of freedom is much lower than critical value, i.e.2.000. Therefore, two groups were at the same level of grammatical knowledge concerning structures under question before treatment. After treatment sessions, another independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' performance in the post-tests (TABLE 7 & TABLE 8).

TABLE 7

Descriptive statistics for the post-test				
Variables	Number of cases	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error mean
Experimental Group	30	14.35	2.274	.415
Control Group	30	13.04	2.793	.510

TABLE 8

Independent t-test for the post-test			
t-observed	Degree of Freedom	t-critical	
3.70	58	2.000	

P<.05

The post-test was administered to determine probable discrepancy between the two groups regarding their improvement in grammar test performance. As observed value for t is 3.70 which is greater than t-critical, the difference is significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that Iranian EFL learners can improve their grammar test performance, when they use C-R tasks. And, the first null hypothesis was rejected.

In order to investigate the second research question, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) for repeated measurement was conducted (TABLE 9).

TABLE 9

MANOVA test for different grammatical structures					
	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	sig
Structure	22.33	3	7.444	7.835	.000
Error (structure)	42.66	47	.950		

TABLE 9 illustrates that there is a significant difference between the improvement of students in various grammatical structures. This result can provide an answer to the second research question and reject the second null hypothesis about the probable effects of C-R tasks on improving grammar test.

Due to the statistically significant difference in TABLE 9, it was necessary to run a Scheffe test to locate the exact point of differences in this study (Error! Not a valid bookmark self-reference.).

TABLE 10

The Scheffe test for comparing the effect of C-R tasks on four grammatical structures				
	Prepositions <i>X</i> = 4.86	Passive verbs <i>X</i> = 1.43	Present perfect tense <i>X</i> = 3.83	Pronouns <i>X</i> = 4.23
Prepositions		*2.90	0.87	0.53
Passive verbs			*2.03	*2.73
Present perfect tense				0.33
Pronouns				

P<.05

t-critical 1.99

Based on this comparison, it can be observed that using grammar consciousness-raising tasks

has different effect on various grammatical structures. There is a meaningful difference between their effect on prepositions and passive verbs (2.90). And also there is a meaningful difference between the effects of these tasks on learning passive verbs versus present perfect tense (2.03). The difference between learning passive verbs and prepositions is meaningful too (2.73). Moreover, this table indicates that the differences in effect of treatment on the processes of learning some grammatical structures like prepositions versus present perfect tense (0.87), preposition and pronouns (0.53), and present tense versus pronouns (0.23) is not meaningful. This shows that using C-R tasks have significant effect on learning how to use preposition, passive verbs and present perfect tense. But this way is not so effective for learning passive verbs. It can be indicated that learners need deductive methods and more explicit explanations for learning passive verbs that requires another research.

The data generated in this study suggest that implementing consciousness-raising tasks at the pre-intermediate level of English language instruction can help EFL learners improve their grammar tests performance. Although both the experimental and the control groups received similar instructions, the experimental group revealed higher improvement and their mastery of the grammar structures was gained merely from performance of consciousness-raising task activities. Therefore, one can argue that C-R tasks cause such a progress.

Consciousness-raising tasks are not aimed at developing immediate ability to use the target focused structures but rather attempt to call learners attention to grammatical features, raising their consciousness, and consequently facilitating their subsequent noticing of the features in communicative inputs (*Fotos, 1994*). Researchers have also maintained that integrating grammar instruction within a communicative framework has considerable effect (*Dikins & Woods, 1998; Green & Hetch, 1992; Fotos, 1994; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Collentine, 2000; Mohammed, 2004*). For instance *Ranalli's* study on teaching grammar by form-focused consciousness-raising tasks (2001) report that students preferences for C-R instruction is higher than deductive instruction and linking C-R and practice within the same lesson leads to higher level of attainment. The results of present study also show that learners exposure to grammar through these tasks and formal instruction tend to consolidate their accuracy. Thus these tasks engage EFL learners in a kind of interaction which helps them develop their grammar test performance.

The single most conclusive result is that the inductive way under incidental learning condition, in many cases, does not facilitate acquisition. The experimental design used in this study allowed for the investigation of the C-R tasks characteristics and controlling of extraneous variables. The results may be of relevance to task designers and teachers in better

understanding the potential contribution of the role of noticing and consciousness-raising tasks and their accompanying instructions to both immediate task performance and their learning outcomes. More broadly, these findings call into question the usefulness of providing input only, with minimal pedagogic interventions, for the purpose of acquisition. Because of the role of grammar in achieving learning goals in EFL context, selection of appropriate materials receives importance. As Kenneth (1994) states, developing pragmatic competence in learners is a need. In ESL settings, learners have a target community to practice with. However, in EFL settings, for most learners are not clear whose pragmatic system should be served as a model. As a result, EFL teachers need to use the appropriate materials to sensitize learners to context-based variation in language use and it seems feasible to adopt a consciousness-raising approach.

5. Conclusions

Research on the general nature of learning, including work on its relations to attention and awareness, constitutes an important source of information and ideas, a source that SLA theory cannot afford to ignore. Advocates of noticing have done a service to the field by giving this work a prominent place in discussions of language acquisition. Present study has been motivated by theories of SLA that emphasize the importance of attention to form in the context of meaning-centred activity. To date, most of teachers and educators have concentrated on reactive focus on form as the main discourse mechanism for achieving such attention during instruction. On the basis of the study reported here, we wish to argue that using consciousness-raising and noticing activities may be just as important. Because of this importance, selecting appropriate materials is very crucial. In this study consciousness-raising tasks were proposed to improve grammar test performance of pre-intermediate university students. The subjects who took part in this study were divided into experimental and control groups. Both groups received a proficiency test, a pre-test and a post-test, but the experimental group worked on episodic dialogues with consciousness-raising nature while the control group did not. The results showed that students who performed different roles of the episodic dialogue and solved their problems in small groups gained better scores in grammar tests. The research questions of the present study can be answered in ways which support the use of grammar C-R tasks as one possible method for the development of knowledge of problematic structures through communicative activities. Therefore, C-R tasks can be recommended to the field of language teaching as useful pedagogy at a time while many teachers are seeking acceptable ways being formal instruction on grammar back into

their communicative classrooms. Based on the results of this limited investigation, we can perhaps draw one cautious conclusion: to the degree that form-focused instruction through C-R activities forego or radically de-emphasized forms of productive practice, students may indeed respond negatively to classroom where consciousness-raising is the sole means of grammar instruction.

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Appendix

Dialog 1 (A Meeting on the Street)

Mr. Richard Norris ("Dick") runs into an old friend, Edward Nakamura ("Ed"), on a street in Washington, D. C. The two men have not seen each other for five years— not since Mr. Nakamura moved to New York. Peggy is Mr. Norris' wife

ED: Dick Norris!

DICK: Ed, old friend! How are you?

ED: Fine. How are Peggy and the children?

DICK: Just fine. What are you doing *at/in* Washington?

ED: Oh, that's a long story.

DICK: Well, I want to hear all about it.

ED: Do you have a luncheon date?

DICK: No, I don't. Do you like seafood?

ED: Yes, I do. I love it.

DICK: Great. Let's go to Captain John's *by/with* taxi. It's *at/on* Main Street the children and I usually go there *in/on* weekends. TAXI! TAXI!

DICK: (to cab driver) Captain Johns' on/ in main Avenue.

(to Ed) Do you still work for the government?

ED: No, I am with the International Health Institute now. How about you?

DICK: I'm with Carroll's Office Center.

ED: Do you own the company?

DICK: No, far from it! I am sales manager

ED: Where is your office?

DICK: *IN/ON* 49th Street. Here is my card.

ED: And here's the restaurant, too. Let me pay the driver.

Title

Patterns of ICT Use by Iranian EFL Teachers at Home/School

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Biodata

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Abstract

This paper reports the results of the first phase of a two- phased study aiming at exploring the patterns/frequency of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) use by Iranian EFL teachers and the factors affecting ICT integration in Iranian high schools. A sample of 120 teachers is approached for the purpose of conducting the quantitative phase of this research through distributing a questionnaire. Out of 120 questionnaires including items on demographic information, ICT use at home and school, 56 are returned that is appropriate for the purpose of this study. The results reveal a limited use of most ICT applications among teachers at school though almost all applications are reported as being used by them at home/school. It is also revealed that though most teachers use computers at home/school nowadays , only limited number of applications are used by them on a daily or weekly basis, with the rest being limited to monthly, yearly or rarely used categories

Keywords: Patterns, ICT, EFL teachers, Computer use, Home/ School

1. Introduction

1.1 Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Education

Technology is arguably part of our modern life in today's world and one cannot think of many aspects of our lives that do not rely on technology. Not too long ago, computers were merely used for analysis of large set of data by specialists. Nowadays, however,

people from university professors to school kids have access to computers and should somehow be conversant with them (Cooper, 2006).

The use of computers in education is also steadily increasing with the governments emphasizing integration of technology in classrooms more and more. The Iranian government is not an exception to this and has made some attempts to introduce technology in education hoping for greater improvement in the quality of teaching and learning. However, studies such as Zamani's (2010) and Shahamat and Riazi's (2009) have shown that in spite of the well-known benefits of ICT use in teaching and the efforts made by the Iranian government to integrate ICT in education, the process of integration by teachers is very slow and demands more attention on the part of both teachers and the ministry of education.

To count some of the advantages of using ICT, it should be mentioned that through using technology, teachers and students will have an array of tools available for acquiring knowledge, critical thinking and communicating with other colleagues and classmates and therefore more chance of being successful learners. Studies have shown that access to technology encourages more collaboration rather than isolation of learners as compared to traditional classrooms. It also engages learners more as they gain more knowledge and necessary skills to generate ideas and produce results. Over time they also develop positive attitudes toward themselves and their abilities. The classes in which technology is implemented can also accommodate different learning styles and encourage learner-centeredness in comparison to traditional classrooms in which teachers play the role of lectures and source of knowledge (Fisher et al, 1996) provided that they are in good hands and are used according to the appropriate learning and teaching theories.

Therefore, as mentioned above, integrating information and communication technology in education for the purpose of enhancing the quality of learning/ teaching has been of high status and subject of much research in many countries including Iran. One of the Iranian Ministry of Education's central objectives is to address the question of how ICT can be used to enhance teaching and learning. Existing research in this area in Iran points to the failure of the programme in achieving its purpose that is promoting learning and teaching through ICT usage the reason for which is attributed to teachers' lack of use of the implemented facilities (Zamani, 2010; Shahamat and Riazi, 2009).

1.2 ICT in Iran

Governments of all countries all over the world including developing countries have made attempts to introduce ICT in education in the hope of attaining the goal of a more effective and improved quality teaching/learning. The Iranian government is not an exception to this undertaking. In fact, the implementation of computers in Iranian society started in 1988 with a fast growth that resulted in diffusion of this innovation in Iranian high schools, though this latter is a relatively new phenomenon in Iranian context (Zamani, 2010). This computer diffusion began gradually starting as a pilot project in the big cities and for the purpose of teaching Mathematics major students in high schools some IT skills. The long-term intention was to implement IT courses for students of all majors. It is worth mentioning that since 1993 computers have been used in Iranian schools for administrative purposes (Zamani, 2010).

As a part of the government's plans to integrate ICT into education, all highschools were equipped with computer rooms and in some cases internet connections. Teachers of all subjects have also been required to take part in in-service trainings to prepare for integration of the new innovation in education. In-service training opportunities for many teachers in different subject areas have been provided with the hope that teachers' use of technology in education would improve the quality of teaching and learning, and increase their technological skills. Pertinent to this objective, annual national competitions on preparing ICT-based teaching material are also held to encourage integration of ICT in education among teachers. However, the results were not satisfying as expected. To investigate the reasons, this study is meant to explore the patterns of ICT use by Iranian EFL teachers at home and school in the first phase and the factors affecting ICT use by teachers in the second phase which will be reported in another paper. The following questions are addressed here:

1. How frequently do Iranian EFL teachers use particular tools of ICT at home?
2. How frequently do Iranian EFL teachers use particular tools of ICT at school?
3. What is the impact of gender on Iranian EFL teachers' access to technology at home/school?

2. Review of the Related Literature

Previous researches show that patterns and frequency of ICT use by teachers vary depending on the context in which they work and the particular type of tool they use. Hung et al (2007) found that 80% of teachers in their study asked their students to search the Internet for information but only 10% of them used computers for collaborative projects meaning that they were more keen on using computer based technology for teaching to supplement instruction rather than enhancing students' learning through higher-level cognitive tools. In primary schools applications used quite frequently were drill and practice exercise, games or adventures, problem-solving applications, word processing. In secondary schools, the only application used quite frequently was word processing drill and practice exercises (Smeets et al, 1999).

A decade later, the most commonly applications used by teachers in their first year of teaching were identified as word processing, Power point and the World Wide Web by Hammond et al (2009). Only few teachers had experience of using interactive whiteboards. Findings of a longitudinal study by Zamani (2010) revealed that in spite of increasing number of computers in schools since 1995-2005, a limited number of teachers, mainly IT teachers, use them for educational purposes. The reasons for this low rate of computer usage were identified as fear of breaking them and the subsequent cost of repairing, lack of relevant software, inadequate IT knowledge and competence of teachers, and limited support from the head-teachers. Zamani(2010) also reported the "language ability "of teachers as another important factor that hinders teachers from using computers in their teaching though she does not specify the subjects taught by those teachers or their major. Considering the fact that teachers are the most important factors affecting the quality of education, vast investment should be done to provide them with practical knowledge necessary to play their part in enhancing the quality of education (Farhady et al 2010) rather than ignoring them and focusing on the learners and their needs in spite of their being interconnected. Farhady et al (2010) point out the paramount role of teachers in language education and their access to educational facilities including new technology as follows:

“The factors influencing language instruction are in close interaction and any reform should encompass as many factors involved in TEFL as possible. For example, training good teachers without providing them with good instructional materials along with technological facilities would not do much of good for language instruction. Nor would having acceptable materials within the access of

unqualified teachers help improve the process. Therefore, the variables involved in language education should be taken into account within the context of a particular educational community” (p. 16).

Furthermore, the problem investigated in this study originates from an earlier study by Shahamat and Riazi (2009) with the purpose of finding out about the use of educational technology by English teachers in Iranian highschools as compared to private language institutes. Results of this study revealed that the uptake of ICT in teaching language is much lower than that of private institutes and most means of technology are rarely or almost never used/ heard of. The results of studies by Zamani (2010) and Shahamaat and Riazi (2009), however, points out that the uptake of ICT in teaching language is much lower than that of private institutes and most means of technology are rarely or almost never used/ heard of and that a limited number of teachers, mostly IT teachers, use them for educational purposes.

3. Method

This study is a descriptive study of exploratory nature with the first phase aiming at finding out about patterns of ICT use by Iranian EFL teachers at high school level.

3.1 Research site

This study was conducted in the highschools and pre-university institutes in Kermanshah in the western part of Iran. As mentioned before the reason behind selecting these schools rather than primary and junior secondary school was their access to computer rooms which are not present in other levels.

3.2 Participants

The participants in this study were Iranian EFL teachers of three different districts of Kermanshah where the researcher used to be an English teacher for over 10 years. EFL teachers were selected as the subjects of this study because of their familiarity with English as the main language of computer and software. Previous studies had also reported language ability of teachers of other subjects as one of the factors hindering them from using computers in their teaching (Zamani 2010).

As the population size of EFL teachers in this level in the city where this study was conducted was limited, about 120 teachers, men and women, the population and the sample were the same.

3.3 Data Collection

To collect data for the purpose of the first part of this study, a questionnaire was developed by the researcher which included three sections on demographic information, ICT use at home and ICT use at school. The questions in the second and third parts were based on a six-point Likert scale ranging from daily use to never use of some application identified as common and not specialized uses of computers/Internet.

3.4 Pilot Study

The first draft of the questionnaire was revised by the research supervisor and after the necessary amendments which mainly included the Likert-scale, the synergy between instructions in different sections and the overall structure of the questionnaire, it was reviewed by another person experienced in developing questionnaires in a think- aloud protocol to allow for verbalizing thoughts by the reviewer and providing the opportunity for the researcher to make the related revisions accordingly. Following the think- aloud protocol, the questionnaire was revised as some statements were reported as being ambiguous and difficult to understand. In the last part of the pilot stage, the questionnaire was sent as an email attachment to 12 teachers that is 10% of the whole population of English teachers in the city where the study was going to be carried out. 8 out of 10 questionnaires were returned along with some feedback via email or phone which provided useful information.

4. Results

To analyse the quantitative part of the questionnaire, some data-processing facilities such as computers and software packages such as SPSS (version 16) and Word were used. The questionnaires including missing data were also analysed by giving a value to the missing data in SPSS. As the respondents were not required to write their names, their identity remained anonymous. Therefore, each respondent was given an identifying case number. The closed questions were given a code including all variables of the questionnaire and the open ended questions were treated like interview data and analysed qualitatively.

4.1 The respondents

The respondents were male and female Iranian EFL teachers teaching at the highschools and pre-university institutes of a city called Kermanshah in the West part of Iran where the researcher used to be a teacher herself. Of 56 respondents 83.3 % (40) were female as compared to 16.7% (8) male teachers. There were 8 missing data regarding the gender. The largest number of the respondents were aged between 36- 40 (34.7%) and were

mostly from district 3 as this educational district covers vaster area of the city thus accommodating for more schools and therefore more teachers. The large majority of the respondents (36%) had between 11- 15 years experience of teaching and they mainly hold BA in TEFL that is 80%. About 73.3% of the teachers had IT training out of which 52. 8% had more than 30 hours training in IT through in- service courses.

Overall 94.6 % had access to computer at home as compared to 88.7 % at school out of which 87.5 % and 68 % were connected to the Internet respectively. This was close to Ravitz et al's finding (1999 in Hung, 2007) that more than 80% of all teachers were using computers at home or school in America in 1999 but far from the figure reported by the US Department of Education in 2005 (in Jenkins et al 2009) which announced 99% access to Internet at schools. It is worth mentioning that according to the US report within those individual schools 87% of individual classes had access while this figure is 0% for the individual classes in this study.

4.2 Male versus female access to Computer/Internet

Of the entire 40 female respondents 37(92.5%) had access to computer and 35 (87.5%) were connected to the Internet at home as opposed to all 8 (100%) male respondents with computer and 7(87.5%) with Internet access which is in line with findings of some studies such as Losh (2004) indicating that the gendered digital divide is diminishing. This is, however, in contrast with Cooper's (2006) viewpoint that refers to the existence of such type of divide in terms of computer ownership. Other studies which underrepresent women in their computer use and ownership are Yelland&lloyd, 2001; Wilson et al, 2003; Pinkard, 2005 (in Cooper, 2006).

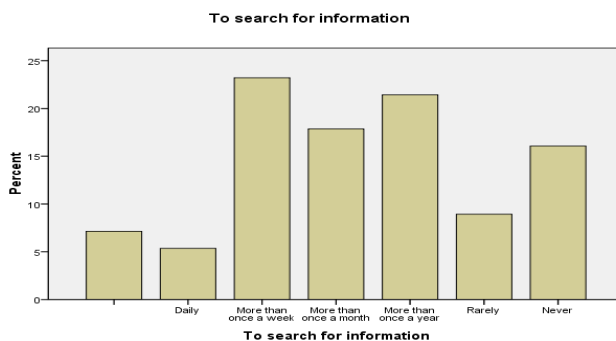
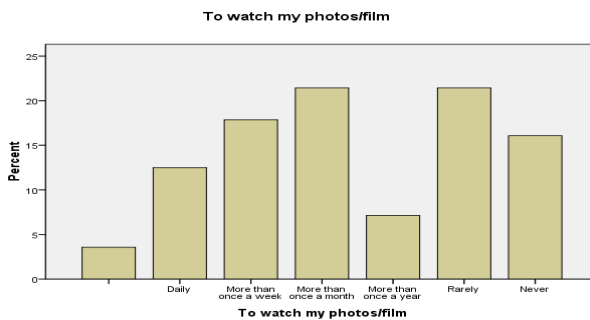
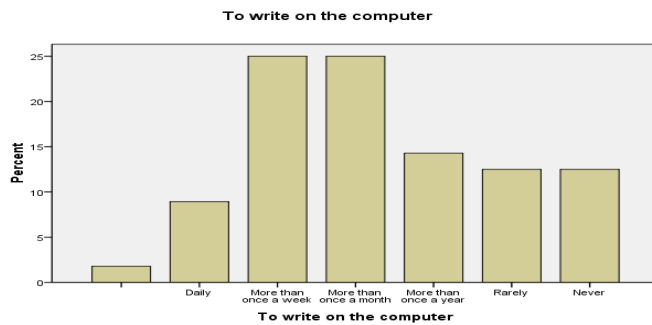
Considering Computer/Internet access at school 33 out of 40 (82.2%) female teachers had access to computer out of which 23 were connected to the Internet (57.2%). This ratio was 6 out of 8 computer (75%) and 6 (85.5%) cases of Internet access for men out of 7 given data (in one case the information regarding the internet access of men was not provided).

4.3Pattern of ICT use by Iranian EFL teachers

Results of the study by Shahamat and Riazi (2009) had indicated that most means of technology are rarely or almost never used/ heard of in public schools. It is worth mentioning that the respondents in their study were students rather than teachers. However, the results of the present study indicated that all applications are used at school/home to some extent though the frequency of use may not be high. This can be supported by the fact that none of the applications were reported as zero per cent use at school or home.

4.3.1 Patterns of ICT use at home

As the bar charts provided in this section indicate of the 26 activities included in the questionnaire in home use section, writing on computers emerged as the activity used by most teachers (with over 85% use out of which 9% was daily use and 25% weekly and the rest monthly, yearly or never use) followed by watching DVDs (82%), watching photos/films, using educational CDs and searching the Internet for information (80% each), making/using tables or charts and organizing computer files/folders (75% each).



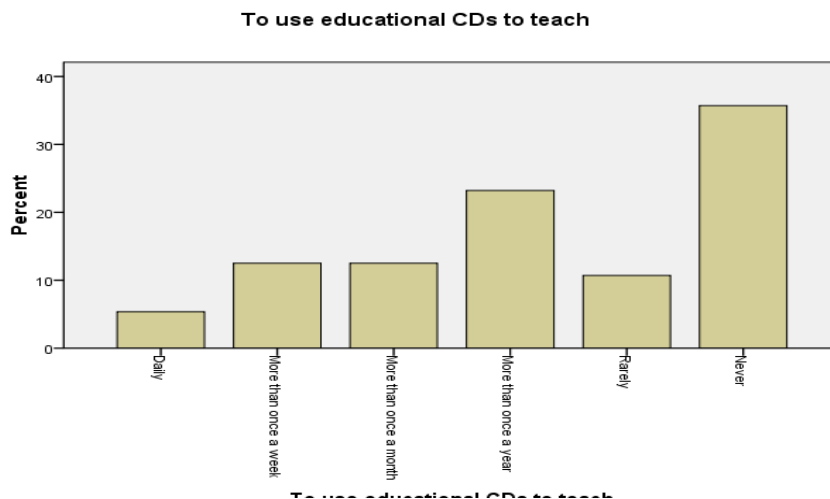
Using the Internet for watching TV was the activity used least (18%) followed by tweeting (26%), Internet shopping (28.5%), booking hotels (30%), using face book (33%), booking online tickets (34%) and keeping a blog (36%).

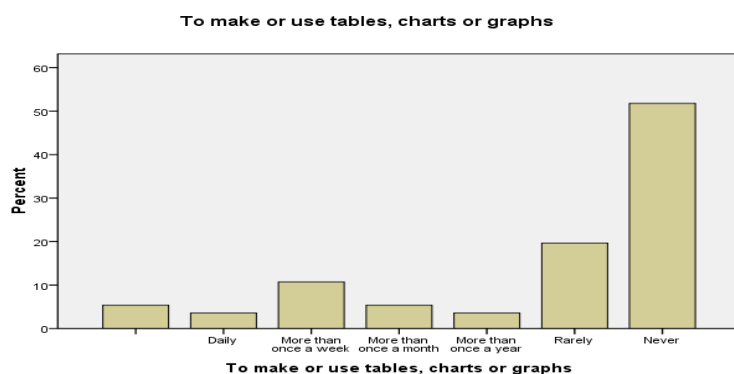
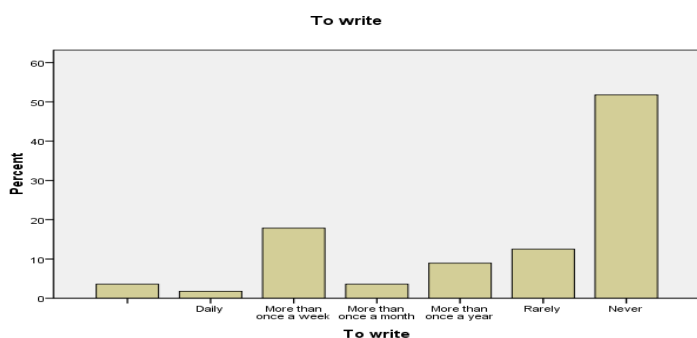
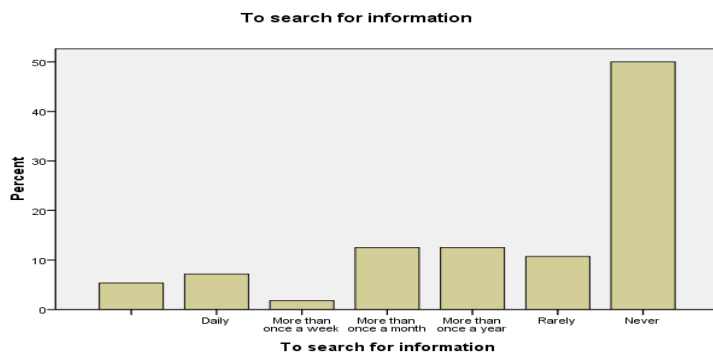
The findings of this part of the study led the researcher to conclude that as the main applications used are those that do not require Internet connection, Internet speed and bandwidth is the main reason preventing most teachers to use it at home and as explained later in school.

4.3.2 Patterns of ICT use at school

It is important to note that number of the activities included in the school section of the questionnaire were less than those in the home section as they were considered as not relevant to teaching and school use. Examples of such activities are booking hotels/tickets, and shopping. Therefore, of the 21 activities in the school section the following patterns emerged.

Using educational CDs was the activity mostly used (64.5 % out of which only 5% was daily use and about 13% weekly). This was in contrast with the findings of Hung et al' s study (2007) in a developed country probably with high quality Internet connection that showed 80% of teachers in their study asked their students to search the Internet for information. In their study searching the Internet was the main activity used in the classroom. Word processing was the application used substantially more often than the other types of applications listed in Smeets' study (2005) rather than educational CD. Using educational CD was followed by searching the Internet for information (45%), writing on computer, making tables/charts and playing DVDs (44% each) and installing software (41%).





The activities used less at school were getting the students to use facebook (7%), getting students exchange emails or tweet (11%), getting students chat with others (12.5%), getting students keep blogs (17%) and getting students read others' blog (21%).

4.3.3 Internet versus computer use at home/school

In both home and school the first five applications used largely by the respondents were mainly from the computer uses along with some of the Internet uses. These included writing on computer as the first priority at home (85%) as expected compared to the most used application at school that was using educational CDs (64.5%). Other highly used computer activities were making tables/charts, watching photos, and organizing computer files/folders. Regarding the Internet use, searching information on Internet and installing

software were among the first three priorities in schools while only searching for information came among the first five at home.

5. Discussion

The research objectives of this phase of the study were: 1) to explore patterns of ICT use by Iranian EFL teachers at home/school and 2) to find out about the effect of gender on computer access and ICT use. Therefore, the report in this section is based on a subset of questions in the survey which asked the EFL teachers in the related context to state how often they carried out a certain set of activities ranging from typing on computer to Tweeting on the Internet. The respondents were asked to tick their answers on a six- point Likert scale for ICT use at home/school ranging from daily use to never.

5.1 Question 1: How frequently do Iranian EFL teachers use particular tools of ICT at home?

Writing on computers was the activity used mostly (85%) by the largest number of teachers at home with the purpose of typing the exam questions as mentioned by the respondents in the open -ended questions of the questionnaire. Out of this 85% use 9% was daily use and 25% weekly with the rest being monthly or yearly. Writing on computers was followed by the following applications: watching DVDs (82%), watching photos/films, using educational CDs and searching the Internet for information (80% each), making/using tables or charts and organizing computer files/folders (75% each). Using the Internet for watching TV was the activity used least (18%) followed by tweeting (26%), Internet shopping (28.5%), booking hotels (30%), using face book (33%), booking online tickets (34%) and keeping a blog (36%). Frequency of use of each activity was mostly about once or more than once a week or a month (between 20-25%) with a daily use of less than 10% for each.

5.2 Question 2: How frequently do Iranian EFL teachers use particular tools of ICT at school

Using educational CDs was the activity reported as mostly (65%) used at school (out of which only 5% was daily use and about 13% weekly, 35% never use and the rest monthly or yearly). Using educational CD was followed by searching the Internet for information (45%), Writing on computer, making tables/charts and playing DVDs (44% each) and installing software (41%).

Regarding the frequency of use, each of the above-mentioned applications was reported as never being used at school by between 40-60 percent of the respondents. They were mostly used on a yearly basis or rarely.

The activities used less at school were getting the students to use Facebook (7%), getting students exchange emails or tweet (10%), getting students chat with others (12.5%), getting students keep blogs (17%) and getting students read others' blog (21%).

5.3 Question 3: What is the impact of gender on Iranian EFL teachers' access to technology and their ICT use?

92.5% of the female teachers had access to computer and 87.5% were connected to the Internet at home as opposed to all 100% male respondents' access to computer and 87.5% Internet connection among them. Regarding computer access at school 82.2% of girl schools had access with 57% of them connected to the Internet. This was 75% computer and 82.5% Internet access in the boy schools.

6. Applications and Implications

As the results revealed a limited use of most ICT applications among teachers at school were reported as opposed to almost all applications as being used by them at home/school. It was also revealed that though most teachers use computers at home/school nowadays, only limited number of applications are used by them on a daily or weekly basis, with the rest being limited to monthly, yearly or rarely used categories.

In fact, teachers will be more able to fully integrate technology into their classrooms when the barriers are addressed through a top-down process. According to Warschauer's ICT Access Model, "ICT use is a social practice involving access to physical artefacts, content, skills, and social support" (2003, p, 46). Physical resource includes access to computer and Internet connection. Digital resource is the digital material, that is text, video, audio,... that is put up in www. Human resources concern the literacy/skills required for using computer/Internet and social resources refer to community, institutional, organizational and societal structures supporting ICT use.

"On the one hand, each resource is a *contributor* (originally Italic) to the effective use of ICTs. In other words, the presence of the resources helps ensure that ICT can be well used and exploited. On the other hand, by using ICTs well, we can help extend and promote these resources. If handed well, these resources can thus

serve as a virtual circle that promotes social development and inclusion”
(Warschauer, 2003).

Therefore, according to the findings of this study regarding factors affecting ICT use by teachers and the importance of each of these contributors it is the responsibility of those in charge to set the grounds and provide the required facilities for teachers to help them integrate ICT in their teaching. As the results of this study and many of the other studies conducted in this area has indicated head teacher and school staff support is among the main factors contributing to ICT use by teachers. As mentioned above, Warschauer (2003) also referred to human support as one of the contributors to the effective use of computers. Thus, school staff, especially, the headteachers should provide teachers with their ongoing support regarding ICT use and encourage teachers to embark on the process of ICT integration in teaching.

Senior teachers in educational districts of each city in Iran are responsible for arranging meetings and inviting people expert in the field to give speeches and present their achievements or findings of the related studies conducted. Therefore, it would be a good idea if they arrange for speeches or demonstrations by some teachers who have experience in teaching with ICT (role models) to make other teachers aware of the benefits of ICT in enhancing teaching and learning and encourage them to use it in their teaching as much as possible.

The size of the population in this research includes just EFL teachers from Kermanshah thus excluding those teaching in other cities or those teaching other subjects which by itself minimizes the chances of generalizing the result to other teachers in the country. Therefore, other researchers can include teachers of other subjects or teachers from across all cities in the country to see how the patters of ICT use by them may change.

Secondly, as this study was a small scale MA dissertation, the only personal characteristic of teachers that was considered in cross referencing was gender and its relationship with access to computer/Internet. Other characteristics such as age, experience and amount of training can also be taken into account for cross referencing in other studies. The relationship between gender and the pattern and the frequency of use can also be part of other studies conducted in the future.

Lastly, in addition to using questionnaire and interview for data collection, observation of teachers' classes and their extent of ICT use is recommended in future studies. This is because observation gives us more insight into what is actually going on in classes.

7. Conclusion

The goal of this study was to gain more insight into the patterns of ICT use by the Iranian EFL teachers at home/school through administering a self-developed questionnaire (see appendix A). 56 out of 120 EFL teachers filled in the questionnaire which included three sections on demographic information, ICT use at home and ICT use at school. The questions in the second and third parts were based on a six-point Likert scale ranging from daily use to never use of some application identified as common and not specialized uses of computers/Internet.

The findings of the study revealed that though most teachers use computer at home/school nowadays, only limited number of applications are used by them on a daily or weekly basis, with the rest being limited to monthly, yearly or rarely used categories. The reasons behind this limited usage were investigated in the second phase of this study which is reported in another paper.

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Appendix A: The Questionnaire



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Survey Questionnaire

Dear colleague,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to examine the patterns of information and communication technology (ICT) use by Iranian English teachers. The questionnaire consists of four sections. Each section begins with some directions related to that part only. As you begin each section, please read the directions carefully and provide your responses in the format requested. I would like you to answer all the questions. Your participation will be anonymous and all your answers will be treated confidentially. It will only take you 10-15 minutes to complete as most of the questions can be answered by ticking a box.

Thank you for your help with this study.

SoroorAshtarian

TESOL & ICT student

ICT Questionnaire



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This questionnaire has four sections.

Section 1: This section asks general questions about you. Please indicate your response to the following questions by ticking (✓) in the appropriate boxes:

1. Are you male or female? Male Female

2. How old are you?

25 or less 26-30 31-35
36-40 41-45 46 or more

3. In which educational district (Nahyeh), do you work?

1 2 3

4. Including the current year, how many years have you been teaching?

1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 Over

5. What is your highest academic degree?

Bachelors Masters PhD

6. Have you participated in any IT training / workshops? Yes No

If “**Yes**”, how many hours of training have you had?

10hs or less 11-20hs 21-30hs More than 30hs

Section (2): This section is about your computer access. Please indicate your response to the following questions by ticking (✓) in the appropriate boxes:

7. Please identify where you have access to computer in the following contexts:

(a) At your home Yes No

If you have access to computer at home, is it connected to the Internet? Yes No

(b) At school Yes No

If you have access to computer at school, is it connected to the Internet? Yes No

Section (3): This section is about your computer use at home. Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by ticking (✓) the box that represents your level of computer use at home. Make sure to respond to every statement.

8. How frequently do you use computer for each one of the following purposes **at home**?

I use computer <u>at home</u> for the following purposes:	Daily	More than once a week	More than once a month	More than once a year	Rarely	Never
I write on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use computer to watch my photos/film from my digital camera	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I play games on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I draw/paint on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I make or use tables ,charts or graphs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use educational CDs to learn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I organise the computer files/folders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use computer to edit my photos (Photoshop)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I watch DVDs/videos on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the computer to keep a record of my students' grades	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use computer to prepare power point presentation (slide)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I install software/programmes on computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I download software from the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I watch TV on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I listen to radio/music on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to look for my salary slip paper	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to read official letters like Bakhshnameh	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to search for information	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use Twitter on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use Facebook on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I keep a blog (Weblog)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I read other people's blogs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to chat to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I shop on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I book train or airplane tickets on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I book hotels on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If you use computer/ the Internet **at home** for any other purposes, please use the space below to name them.

.....

Please use the following space to write any comments you might have about computer/ Internet use at home.

.....

Section (4): This section is about your computer use at school. Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by ticking (✓) the box that represents your level of computer use at home. Make sure to respond to every statement.

9. How frequently do you use computer for each one of the following purposes **at school**?

I use computer <u>at school</u> for the following purposes:	Daily	More than once a week	More than once a month	More than once a year	Rarely	Never
I write on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I make or use tables, charts or graphs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use educational CDs to teach	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the drawing/painting part of the computer in my classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use computers to keep a record of my students' grades	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I organise the computer files/folders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students play game on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I play DVDs/videos for my students on computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use power point presentation to teach	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students make power point	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

presentation						
I install software/programme on computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to search for information	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to look for my salary slip paper	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exchange e-mails with my students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students exchange e-mails with students in other schools	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use the Internet to read official letters (Bakhshnameh)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I download software from the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students chat to others on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students use Twitter on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students use Face-book on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students keep a blog (Weblog)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get my students read other people's blogs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If you use computer/ the Internet **at school** for any other purposes, please use the space below to name them.

.....

Please use the following space to write any comments you might have about computer/ Internet at school.

.....

Thank you very much for your time

Appendix B: Number of respondents according to their personal characteristics

Characteristics		N	%
Gender	Male	8	16.7
	Female	40	83.3
	Total	48	100
Age	25 or <25	3	6.1
	26-30	5	10.2

	31-35	12	24.5
	36-40	17	34.7
	41-45	10	20.4
	46 or more	2	4.1
	Total	49	100
Educational district	1	6	13
	2	19	41.3
	3	21	45.7
	Total	46	100
How many have you been teaching?	1-5	6	12
	6-10	6	12
	11-15	18	36
	16-20	15	30
	Over 20	5	10
	Total	50	100
Qualification	Bachelors	36	80
	Masters	9	20
	Total	45	100
IT training	Yes	33	73.3
	No	12	26.7
	Total	45	100
Hours of training	10hrs or less	4	11.1
	11-20hrs	4	11.1
	21-30hrs	9	25
	>30hrs	19	52.8
	Total	36	100
Access to computer at home	Yes	53	94.6
	No	3	5.4
	Total	56	100
Connect to the Internet at home	Yes	49	87.5
	No	7	12.5
	Total	56	100
Access to computer at school	Yes	47	88.7
	No	6	11.3
	Total	53	100
Connect to the Internet at school	Yes	36	68
	No	17	32
	Total	53	100

Appendix C: Patterns of ICT use at home

I use computer at home for the following purposes:	Daily	More than once a week	More than once a month	More than once a year	Rarely	Never
To write on the computer	5(8.9%)	14(25%)	14(25%)	8(14.3%)	7(12.5%)	7(12.5%)
To watch my photos/films	7(12.5%)	10(17.9%)	12(21.4%)	4(7.1%)	12(21.4%)	9(16.1%)
To play games	0(0%)	5(8.9%)	1(1.8%)	3(5.4%)	14(25%)	28(50%)
To draw/paint	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	5(8.9%)	4(7.1%)	18(32.1%)	26(46.4%)
To make/use tables, charts	1(1.8%)	4(7.1%)	10(17.9%)	16(28.6%)	11(19.6%)	11(19.6%)
To use education CD to learn	3(5.4%)	7(12.5%)	14(25%)	10(17.9%)	8(14.3%)	9(16.1%)
To organise the computer files/folders	3(5.4%)	8(14.3%)	8(14.3%)	7(12.5%)	16(28.6%)	11(19.6%)
To edit my photos	0(0%)	5(8.9%)	6(10.7%)	3(5.4%)	15(26.8%)	24(42.9%)
To watch CDs/Videos	4(7.1%)	12(21.4%)	12(21.4%)	8(14.3%)	10(17.9%)	8(14.3%)
To prepare power point presentation	2(3.6%)	1(1.8%)	5(8.9%)	9(16.1%)	14(25%)	23(41.1%)
To install software/ programme	1(1.8%)	5(8.9%)	9(16.1%)	4(7.1%)	9(16.1%)	23(41.1%)
To download software	3(5.4%)	6(10.7%)	6(10.7%)	10(17.9%)	5(8.9%)	22(39.3%)
To watch TV/ Internet	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	9(16.1%)	42(75%)
To listen to radio/music on Internet	0(0%)	4(7.1%)	3(5.4%)	5(8.9%)	12(21.4%)	29(51.8%)
To look for salary slip paper	0(0%)	2(3.6%)	7(12.5%)	8(14.3%)	13(23.2%)	24(42.9%)
To read official letters	2(3.6%)	1(1.8%)	7(12.5%)	6(10.7%)	10(17.9%)	25(44.6%)
To search for information	3(5.4%)	13(23.2%)	10(17.9%)	12(21.4%)	5(8.9%)	9(16.1%)
To Twitter	1(1.8%)	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	3(5.4%)	8(14.3%)	34(60.7%)
To use face book	1(1.8%)	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	5(8.9%)	10(17.9%)	32(57.1%)
To keep a blog	0(0%)	6(10.7%)	3(5.4%)	4(7.1%)	7(12.5%)	34(60.7%)
To read other blogs	1(1.8%)	7(12.5%)	9(16.1%)	5(8.9%)	9(16.1%)	23(41.1%)
To chat	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	3(5.4%)	5(8.9%)	12(21.4%)	31(55.4%)
To shop	0(0%)	2(3.6%)	1(1.8%)	3(5.4%)	10(17.9%)	38(67.9%)
To book tickets	1(1.8%)	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	3(5.4%)	14(25%)	33(68.9%)
To book hotels	1(1.8%)	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	6(10.7%)	9(16.1%)	36(64.3%)

Appendix D: Patterns of ICT use at school

I use computer at school for the following purposes:	Daily	More than once a week	More than once a month	More than once a year	Rarely	Never	No Response
To write on the computer	1(1.8%)	10(17.9%)	2(3.6%)	5(8.9%)	7(12.5%)	29(51.8%)	2(3.6%)
To make/use tables, charts	2(3.6%)	6(10.7%)	3(5.4%)	2(3.6%)	11(19.6%)	29(51.8%)	3(5.4%)
To use education CD to teach	3(5.4%)	7(12.5%)	7(12.5%)	13(23.2%)	6(10.7%)	20(35.7%)	
To use the drawing / painting part in class	0(0%)	3(5.4%)	5(8.9%)	1(1.8%)	13(23.2%)	33(58.9%)	1(1.8%)
To keep records of my students' grades	2(3.6%)	2(3.6%)	3(5.4%)	3(5.4%)	6(10.7%)	37(66.1%)	3(5.4%)
To organise files / folders	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	4(7.1%)	4(7.1%)	10(17.9%)	32(57.1%)	3(5.4%)
To play DVD / Video for students	2(3.6%)	2(3.6%)	4(7.1%)	7(12.5%)	10(17.9%)	29(51.8%)	2(3.6%)
To use power point presentation	2(3.6%)	1(1.8%)	4(7.1%)	6(10.7%)	8(14.3%)	33(58.9%)	2(3.6%)
To get student make power point presentation	1(1.8%)	0(0%)	3(5.4%)	5(8.9%)	5(8.9%)	40(71.4%)	2(3.6%)
To install software	1(1.8%)	5(8.9%)	4(7.1%)	3(5.4%)	10(17.9%)	30(53.6%)	3(5.4%)

To search for information	4(7.1%)	1(1.8%)	7(12.5%)	7(12.5%)	6(10.7%)	28(50%)	3(5.4%)
To look for salary slip papers	1(1.8%)	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	3(5.4%)	11(19.6%)	35(62.5%)	3(5.4%)
To exchange emails with students	0(0%)	2(3.6%)	4(7.1%)	1(1.8%)	10(17.9%)	37(66.1%)	2(3.6%)
To get students exchange emails	0(0%)	2(3.6%)	4(7.1%)	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	44(78.6%)	3(5.4%)
To read official letters	1(1.8%)	3(5.4%)	3(5.4%)	4(7.1%)	13(23.2%)	30(53.6%)	2(3.6%)
To download software	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	1(1.8%)	4(7.1%)	8(14.3%)	35(62.5%)	5(8.9%)
To get student chat with the others	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	0(0%)	2(3.6%)	4(7.1%)	46(82.1%)	3(5.4%)
To get students use Twitter	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	5(8.9%)	44(78.6%)	6(10.7%)
To get students use face book	0(0%)	0(0%)	1(1.8%)	0(0%)	3(5.4%)	49(87.5%)	3(5.4%)
To get students keep blogs	1(1.8%)	1(1.8%)	2(3.6%)	1(1.8%)	5(8.9%)	41(73.2%)	5(8.9%)
To get students read other blogs	0(0%)	2(3.6%)	2(3.6%)	2(3.6%)	6(10.7%)	40(71.4%)	4(7.1%)

Title

A Survey on the Impact of L1 Grammar Negative Transfer on L2 Writing Skill in Iranian EFL Students in Rudsar City

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Biodata

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Abstract

This study aims to find out why some Persian learners have problems in learning certain structures of English language. To answer, a general proficiency test was administered to a total of 140 female and male junior high school students, with the same level and age, out of which 52 participants whose scores ranged from 45-70 out of 80 were chosen as the Intermediate Level. The instruments used consisted of a researcher-made Opinionaire with reliability of 0.82 administered to 30 L2 teachers, Translation-Recognition test with reliability of 0.94 administered to respective university instructors and L2 teachers and finally the respective participants' PET scores. To end this, the translation-recognition tests administered to the participants contained one aspect of grammatical errors which were predicted to be problematic parts of learning. That is, the participants were required to translate 20 Persian sentences into English and in recognition test, the participants were asked to read 20 English sentences and recognize the erroneous part. To determine the level of difficulty of using English 11 grammatical items namely, verbs (trans- intrans), linking verbs, tenses, articles, auxiliaries and etc, for Iranian Intermediate participants, a hierarchy of difficulty was developed. In doing so, the number of errors on each grammatical item in both tests was counted. Then descriptive and inferential statistics (Independent Samples Ttest, Pearson correlation and Friedman

test) were applied to analyze. The findings indicated that L1 grammar negative transfer does affect on L2 writing skill on Iranian EFL learners. In conclusion, the study demonstrates that by applying CA in EFL classes, of course from guidance schools, drawing the EFL learner's attention to those problematic areas of L2, increasing the time of teaching hour and above all assigning a trained teacher for the respective classes, We would probably be able to increase the L2 writing skill of Iranian EFL learners and in this line, L1 negative transfer would be, to some extent, decolorized or diminished. In addition, the findings reveal that those who take this process into account, especially L2 teachers, can probably be successful in their teaching and can have successful learners as well.

Keyword: Contrastive analysis, Researcher-made Opinionaire, problematic parts, Translation-recognition test, Grammatical errors, Negative transfer, Trained teacher

1. Introduction

As a matter of fact, learning a foreign language (namely, English) is a life-time procedure which needs years of constant attempt and especially interest. It is by no means a straightforward process which can be mastered quickly, because there are always new areas, aspects, and registers and so forth in target language (TL) for the EFL learner to master in it. Among these numerous areas some are prioritized that the learner should take them due to the differences between linguistic/grammar systems of two languages into account. Namely, verbs (trans-intrans), linking verb, subject-verb agreement, (relative) pronouns, preposition, adjectives, tenses, word order, articles, etc which may cause problems owing to interference. Different reasons have been put forward for the considerable emphasis on this issue: the importance of the copula or LV, word order, subject-verb agreement and etc, and the difficulty of mastering this kind of item.

To diagnose such problems, in spite of many criticisms, contrastive analysis as a branch of linguistics was and still is a relatively sound basis. A brief description (see also Devos, 1995; Mukattash, 2001) of the field is given by Schackne (2002).

Contrastive Analysis, a comparative analysis of two languages, their similarities and their differences, was thought by many in the 1940s, 50s, and 60s to be a useful predictor of where EFL learners would likely encounter problems in learning a foreign language. It stood to reason that if certain elements of a target language differed greatly from the student's native language (mother tongue), that student would likely encounter difficulties.

In the words of Lado, (1961): "The view of grammar as grammatical structure opens the way to a comparison of grammatical structure of the foreign language with that of the native language to discover the problems of the students in learning the foreign language. The result of such comparison tells us what we should test and what we should not test. It helps us devise test items and techniques that also look quite acceptable from a common sense point of view, and this is the important consideration- we can test the control of language on the part of student."

Contrastive Analysis, popularly, is a method of analyzing the structure of any two languages with a view to estimate the differential aspects of their systems, irrespective of their genetic affinity or level of development. Contrastive analysis of two languages becomes useful, when it, for instance, adequately describes the sound structure and grammatical structure of two languages, with comparative statements, giving due emphasis to the compatible items in the two systems.

As an immediate offshoot of contrastive studies, a learner's first language was considered to be a hindrance to acquisition of a foreign language (Hayati, 1997; Keshavarz, 2003). More importantly, the committed errors may block the communicative purposes. Such problems may arise from L1 grammar negative transfer such as the categorization of LVs, subject-verb agreement, preposition, word order, adjective collocation, relative pronouns and etc., and misuse of which may cause serious misunderstanding on the part of native listeners and readers of the foreign language. Moreover, it is clear that the grammatical system in general, and these categorizations in particular, are not totally similar in any two languages, especially when they come to be affected by cultural issues.

In helping facilitating Iranian EFL learners to have better performance in speaking and especially in L2 writing, many teachers prioritize students' writing problems in syntax, lexis and discourse aspects. However, some teachers neglect the problem of students' native language and culture interfering in written English. Even though, L1 interference is not a new trend in studies on foreign language learning. As indicated in the researcher's pilot study, it is undoubtedly an important factor to be considered in EFL writing instruction in the pedagogical system of Iran. L1 interference with regard to the terms 'cross-linguistic and language transfer' refers to the influence of native language structures on students' performance (spoken and written) and development in the target language (Hashim, 1999). When EFL students are writing in the target language, some of their L1 characteristics show up in their writing. This issue should be considered in teaching of EFL writing.

1.1 The statement of problem

This study is an attempt to provide insights into the extents of why some Persian learners have problems in learning certain structures of English language. The question this study tries to answer is whether there is a relationship between learning a foreign language (English) and Persian by using contrastive analysis or not. Due to the existence of L1 grammar negative transfer, EFL learners will make mistake in producing L2 sentences / will have problem with learning L2 and this is because of L1 grammar negative transfer. That is, they will use structures of their L1 in the structure of L2 unconsciously during learning foreign/ second language. So, the utterance will gradually be fossilized in learners' mind, but it seems that it is possible to solve this problem by using contrastive analysis. It has been assumed that the structure of L1 will cause interference in the structure of L2 during learning and most importantly, this negative transfer (interference) will lead learners to learn ungrammatical structure and the learners will consider them as correct structures. Generally speaking, L1 learners' writing skill (translation) is weak due to having probably little knowledge about TL (target language). From the point of the researcher's view they are not good at converting the sentences into L2 and producing TL structures properly. The researcher believes that this can be due to the impact of L1 grammar negative transfer (interference) on the L2 writing skill, which is resulted from different factors that the researcher found out about according to the ex-researcher's findings (Yarmohammadi 2002, Keshavarz 2003, Mirhassani 2004 and Ziahosieni 1985) and some grammarians and also based on a pilot study (using a researcher-made Opinoinaire administered on 30 English teachers ' female and male' of ministry of education of Iran in Gilan province. The finding of this research indicated that more than 27 out of 30 teachers agreed on the negative transfer that the researcher has done during his teaching and research and also other factors involved are as follows: 1) the amount of learners' L2 knowledge base is not adequate. 2) The differences between L1 writing systems (SOV) with L2 writing system (SVO). 3) L1 learners translate for example the preposition of some verbs based on their L1 knowledge/language structure. 4) They don't know how to use the correct form of collocation of words, verbs, etc. 5) while translating; L1 learners make mistakes between formal and informal sentences because they are not aware of the concept of the sentences or utterances owing to having little information. 6) Their knowledge of idioms, expressions, proverbs, etc. is not rich, so they don't know how to use the correct equivalent. More explanations will be presented in this field. Finally, the aforementioned items will probably lead to negative transfer. In order to solve the problem, the researcher will develop two tests (translation and recognition tests) which can probably be applicable. That is,

according to the ex-researcher's findings and also the researcher's pilot study and educational experiences, a set of certain structures and words (utterances) predicted to be problematic parts of learning are selected based on the subtle differences between two languages and administered. It must be mentioned that those kind of subtle and invisible problems cause such mistakes and learners internalize the ungrammatical learned utterances which are wrong because they have learned them unconsciously and little by little, these ungrammatical structures become fossilized. So, in order to prevent such a problem, we can use CA.

Another problem can be "lack of competence". That is, the learners' linguistic competence and language knowledge about the TL is not enough to adapt themselves to L2 and because of inadequate knowledge towards L2 they will probably have problems with translation (L1 into L2) and also with recognition of ungrammatical structure. Of course, it is possible that participants may recognize or translate the sentences incorrectly. This cannot be only due to interference of mother tongue but it has also got other reasons like:

- a) The rate of education which they had seen.
- b) The sex (male and female) and a set of emotional attitude of the students/learners towards the language (foreign language).
- c) Tiredness during examination, and
- d) Also considering the test as an unimportant matter by participants during answering, so the researcher can take into account the above items as the restrictions of this study.

The test will be administered for (3rd year of high-school) students who have fully developed their mother tongue (L1) at high-school level and started to learn L2 approximately at the same age. So, the result of this experiment is only related to this groups which the members have good competence and performance in L1. This leads to negative transfer which will certainly have negative effects on learning L2. Moreover, they are living in the society of their L1 (that is, in their mother language environment) and deal with English only when they are in educational settings. In the sense they learn English in the limited educational hours. As a result, the interference of L1 in learning L2 is inevitable. The result of this study is related to these kinds of groups not the other groups like learners who are learning L2 or those who are living in the society of TL and learning the language (L2).

2. Review of the Related Literature

In spite of the many theoretical and methodological problems and the criticism expressed against contrastive analysis, many classroom teachers still claim that CA has been useful to

them for instructional purposes, Aid (1974). Based on the ex-researchers' studies and findings and also the researcher's pilot study (Opinionaire) and teaching experience, there are some Persian structures (grammatical structures), words and etc, which are different from English ones, which make it more difficult for EFL learners to learn English. If a teacher can predict those areas of target language which will cause most difficulty for the learners, then by focusing the learners' attention on those conflicting points, the learning process will be facilitated.

The predictability of CA has been discussed by Ferguson (1965), Rivers (1970), and Dipietro (1971). They all reached surprising similar conclusion: CA can predict certain errors and points of difficulty applicable for foreign language instruction. This predictability of CA is convincingly supported by certain experimental studies undertaken by Nickel and Wagner (1968) and Moody (1971). I also came to this conclusion by this experimental study. These linguists found that by means of systematic comparison of two languages we can predict the potential sources of errors or the areas that are going to cause most difficulty for the learners, they examined the potentials and limitations of contrastive analysis and found that it can predict the conflicting points between two languages and can give us insights into the nature of the conflict.

Oller (1972) reviewed a large body of psycholinguistic research which suggested that factor of predictability has the effect of accelerating the learning process. In a report presented to the "Pacific Conference on Contrastive Linguistics and Language Universal" he showed that the importance of predictability of CA had been well established in the literature. Although, he viewed CA as a research technique rather than a basis for the development of materials for teaching languages; he maintained that at present CA does not have validity as a device for predicting some of the errors that a second language learner will make.

Brown (1967), Dahlstedt (1972) and et al. believe that teachers of English can improve their teaching strategies through the implications of CA for their foreign language programs. Krzeszouski (1967) is of the opinion that surface features seem much more important to the language learner than any possible similarities and differences in deep structure. Following this view, purposeful contrastive investigations can only be carried out on the basis of a structural approach.

The examination of the potentials and limitations of pedagogical use of error and contrastive analysis indicated in this investigation will demonstrate that while error analysis can, to some extent, be applicable in an ESL course. Contrastive Analysis, if designed with the pedagogical intent, can more appropriately meet the needs of EFL programs. Error

Analysis in such curricula can only overcome the limitations of contrastive investigations and extend their power of prediction and pedagogical applications.

According to the ex-researchers' studies and findings and also the researcher's pilot study and educational experience, a set of grammatical errors (ungrammatical structures) have always occurred which is likely to be due to negative transfer of the learners' first language structural elements; therefore, in order to show the importance of this matter the researcher will take two tests (translation and recognition tests) into account which include a number of Persian sentences which were thought (and has previously been observed) to be in conflict with their English equivalents were chosen will be given to a group of 52 students to answer the questions.

Accordingly, in this study, the researcher attempted to investigate the impact of L1 Grammar Negative Transfer on L2 Writing Skill in Iranian EFL Students in Rudsar City. To this end, the following research question and hypotheses were proposed:

Does learner's L1 (grammar) have any effect on learning L2 (writing)?

- 1) L1 grammar negative transfer does not affect L2 writing skill in Iranian male learners of English.
- 2) L1 grammar negative transfer does not affect L2 writing skill in Iranian female learners of English.

3. Method

3.1 Participants of the study

In order to provide the required empirical data for this present study, a General English Proficiency Test was administered to a group of 140 female and male students of the same age '17 years old' and level '3rd grade of high school' as EFL learners with the same high school background for homogeneity, though the participants use Persian and English interchangeably every now and then, Persian, being the mother tongue dominates their daily communication, both at home and at school. Most of the participants have good proficiency in their mother tongue. Selected randomly from non-governmental school in Rudsar city of Gilan province in Iran. After administering the proficiency test 'PET' Cambridge preliminary English Test, (Brown, 2005) designed by 'UCLES' University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, and correcting the whole participants' answer sheets, the participants' scores were ranked and from among them, 52 students whose scores were ranged between 45-70 out of 80 were chosen as the main participants namely, 'intermediate

level' for the present study. That is, 50% of the participants are female and 50% are males. (Table 3. 1)

Table 3.1 Distribution of Participants According to Gender

		Number	Percent
Valid	male	26	50%
	female	26	50%
	total	52	100%

3.2 Instrument of the study

In the present study, the researcher utilized three main instruments which are as follow:

- a) Participants' Proficiency test scores (PET)
- b) The analysis of participants' papers as Translation and Recognition test scores
- c) An Opinionaire (the researcher-made opinionaire of the pilot study)

The second one related to their production and reception skill. That is, writing skill.

3.3 Procedure and the Reliability of the study

In this present study, the researcher divided the procedure into three phases. In the first phase, the researcher administered a proficiency test and in order to tap and measure the participants' general proficiency in English and to insure that they all belonged to the same population. The proficiency test 'PET', the first instrument utilized in this study, consisting of two parts was administered. The first part contained 55 items on Reading and Writing Test and the second part consisted of 25 items on Listening Test done by the researcher as an intermediate level for the present study. (Table 3.2)

Table 3.2 Distribution of items According to proficiency test (PET)

	Section	Items
Part 1	Reading and Writing Test	55
Part 2	Listening Test	25
Total		80

Then, in the second phase, in order to check the participants' performance on English grammatical structures, the researcher used another test consisted of two parts, "translation (Production) and recognition (Reception) tests 'as writing'". One of these tests, the Production (translation) part, consisted of 20 Persian sentences in each of which there was one error". That is, all tests consisted of one aspect of ungrammatical structure, which were predicted to be problematic parts of learning, and it was also assumed that the EFL learner would have problem with the translation of L2 due to L1 grammar negative transfer, which had previously been observed, administered to the selected participants. Then, the participants were asked to translate all of the items into English. Putting the finger on the validity and reliability of a test, it is worth mentioning that the translation test sentences, thought to be the problematic sentences for the respective Iranian EFL learners, were chosen based on the

researcher's intuition and years of teaching experience and due to the content validity first, the sentences of the translation test were evaluated by some respective university instructors and L2 teachers and based on their comments, few of them revised by virtue of being relevant to the context of the present research and due to the reliability of the test, the obtained answers were calculated and then plugged into **spss** (version 16) and a Cronbach alpha (α) was calculated and based on the statistical result, the reliability coefficient was 0.94. . The second test, the Reception (recognition) part, was composed of 20 English sentences which were taken from PET (Brown, 2005), 'Cambridge Preliminary English Test' with the same grammatical problems and the aforementioned assumption that, by and large, impede learning, the participants were required to read and recognize the erroneous part in them. Doing this, the participants were asked to answer all the questions in their allocated time 48 minutes. That is, 30 minutes for translation and 18 minutes for recognition test. (Table 3.3) The objective of the second phase was to find the problem if there was/were any error commitments due to L1 grammar negative transfer and also owing to no L1 evidence for corresponding by virtue of this case the learners had no option but to resort to their own background knowledge to produce L2 structures. Generally speaking, These two test types were conducted to see whether the participants' mother tongue or any other factors influenced their recognition/production of L2 grammatical/syntactical structure in different patterns and in relation to other sentence elements or not. The data was collected from the aforementioned instruments after correcting and analyzing the participants' responses in order to identify the kinds of grammatical errors made by the participants and these two phases aimed to find out the influence of learners' L1 on their L2 writing skill. Finally, a contrastive framework was also provided for all the aforementioned patterns of all ungrammatical structure, and the results of the errors made were tabulated and categorized according to linguistic/grammatical items. (Table 4.12)

Table 3.3 Distribution of items According to Production & Reception test

Part	Item	Percent
Translation	20	50%
Recognition	20	50%
Total	40	100%

As far as the third phase is concerned, another data was also collected from the researcher's pilot study 'a researcher-made Opinionaire in Likert scale format with ten items'. After piloting the respective questions of researcher-made opinionaire akin to the present research question, hypotheses and the context of the present study from 30 (male and female) English teachers of ministry of education of Iran in Guilan province (Table 3.4), first the

content validity of the Opinionaire was evaluated by some respective university instructors and based on their comments, 4 items were omitted for being ,to some extent, irrelevant to the context of the present research and due to the reliability of the items, the obtained answers were calculated and then plugged into spss (version 16) and a Cronbach alpha (α) was calculated and based on the statistical result, the reliability coefficient was $\alpha=0.82$ and whose omission increased total alpha were omitted. This pilot study a validated Opinionaire' implemented by the researcher during the present study in order to support and confirm the study.

Table 3.4 Distribution of L2 respective teachers According to Gender

	Number	Percent
Valid	Male	15
	female	15
	total	30

3.4 Statistical collection

The participants' writings and responses 'translation and recognition test respectively, were carefully and thoroughly analyzed to detect the errors made and were tabulated accordingly to form a corpus. The researcher read meticulously and underlined the errors (negative transfer) and tabulated them according to their linguistic/grammatical categories and showed the percentage.

3.5 Statistical procedure

The statistical procedure is based on computer-assisted programs spss (version 16). The Data analysis is a process of gathering, modeling, and transforming data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making. Having administered the instruments for this research, the responses were collected and interpreted. The data gathered in this study was analyzed through **T-Test** 'Independent Samples T test, Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) and Friedman Test using the spss analysis method.

3.6 The design of the study

The design of the study is based on pre-test and post-test design and the schematic representation is as follows:

Group 1	T1	T2
Group 2	T1	T2

4. Results

4.1 Data description

Prioritizing the importance of the answer of the research question, the researcher intent to draw the reader's attention to the researcher-made Opinionaire done in the pilot study which

related to the answers of the Opinionaire consisting 6 questions was administered to 30 (male and female) English teachers of ministry of education of Iran in Guilan province. This was to know and assess their idea about the impact of L1 grammar negative transfer on L2 writing on Iranian EFL learners. The answers to the questions clearly showed that the L2 teachers agreed on the existence of negative influence of mother tongue in the writing of L2 because the performance of the respective participants showed that the participants thought and visualized things in their mother tongue before they started writing in L2. This can probably be due to their L1 grammatical features and syntactical structures or above all their L1 knowledge and also were not aware of the linguistic differences between their L1 and the target language (English) and those problems which elaborated in chapter one caused this. This kind of perception and thinking contributed to grammatical/syntactical disorder in L2 writing as there were significant differences between the Persian language syntactical order and the English language syntactical order as elaborated earlier in the first chapter. By and large, there was a unanimity among the L2 teachers who believed the participants first think in Persian and then e.g. for every English word translate in Persian and vice versa. The respective teachers agreed on the use of CA in their teaching and believed that predicting and comparing L1 and L2 linguistic systems and knowing those problematic areas which impede learning before teaching facilitated teaching and learning and generally speaking both the teacher and the students would get the beneficial use of CA. And as can be seen in the teachers scored the questions based on the Likert Scale Format from strongly agree to strongly disagree levels, and as also shown in table 4.1 and 4.2, the results of final analysis showed the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the Translation-Recognition questions and the Opinionaire were $\alpha = 0.94$ and $\alpha = 0.82$ respectively, which are very close to number 1. That is, whatever the number is too close to number 1, it would be better and this indicates that the content validity of the questions of these two research instruments is at high level that leading to apply CA in teaching.

4.2 Reliability

Table 4.1 The Reliability Statistics of The Translation-Recognition Test

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.947	40

Table 4.2 The Reliability Statistics of The teacher-made Opinionaire

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.822	6

Therefore, from the Opinionaire answers given it can be concluded that the learning of L2 in Persian schools is seriously influenced and affected by the students' mother tongue. By and large, most of the L2 teachers gave the same answers and there was also unanimity among the L2 teachers to use CA in their teaching. In addition, the L2 teachers reached to this agreement that a teacher would not be disappointed if applying the principles and techniques included in CA e.g. prediction, selection, comparing and description in class, both teaching and learning would probably be facilitated and also both the teacher and the students would enjoy being together. Doing this, students would probably be motivated and interested in learning a new language and the L1 grammar negative transfer in particular and mother tongue interference in general would probably lose the impeding effectiveness step by step. Finally, the respective L2 teachers believed that 'the better the learner is at overcoming language interference, the more diluted that blend will be.

4.3 Descriptive

Table 4.3 Descriptive Statistics of both genders' test scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Males' translation	26	2	17	8.27	4.486	.462	.456
Males' recognition	26	3	17	9.08	4.408	.500	.456
Females' recognition	26	3	17	8.46	4.254	.747	.456
Females' recognition	26	2	18	9.27	4.904	.404	.456
Males' pet	26	9.0	17.5	12.731	2.7721	.313	.456
Females' pet	26	9.0	17.5	13.404	2.9224	-.082	.456
Valid N (listwise)	26						

Table (4.3) shows the descriptive statistics of the aforementioned tests' scores based on the participants' answers to the respective tests. As for the data analysis stage, the Translation, Recognition and Pet tests were scored and the results for the 52 participants of the two groups (female and male group EFL learners) were tabulated.

Since the Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of males' T= 8.27, SD=4.48, R= 9.08, SD=4.40 and P=12.73, SD=2.77 and the Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of females' T=8.46, SD=4.25, R=9.27 SD, 4.90 and P=13.40, SD=2.92 of learners were not that different, the two groups were regarded as homogenous groups. Table (4.3) indicates that the differences between the two groups on the tests are not significant. That is, the Std. Errors of

Skewness (0.45) and Kurtosis (0.88) of the two EFL learners groups' test scores are the same and also clearly shows that the female EFL learners did a little bit better and the Means of female EFL learners' test scores had relatively minor increase which could probably be due to the effect of motivation or their attitudes towards L2. Generally speaking, both genders had inevitable problem/s in producing L2 correct sentences and recognizing L2 erroneous structures due to the L1 grammar negative transfer.

4.4 Data analysis

T-Test

Inferential statistics is concerned with the relationships between the analyses and changes in variables. In order to examine the hypotheses of the present research and to administrate the four aforementioned administrating methods, Independent Sample Ttest and Pearson Correlation test have been used. To reject or accept the hypotheses of the present research, the obtained information from statistical Ttest table have been used.

Do the scores of translation and recognition tests of male EFL learners prove the hypothesis of the present study or not?

Table 4.4 Group Statistics of the first hypothesis related to the Males' Translation-Recognition Test

	Males' group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	1	26	8.27	4.486	.880
	2	26	9.08	4.408	.865

Table 4.5 Independent Samples Test of Male EFL learners

Male	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances not assumed	.655	49.985	.516	.808	1.233	3.285	1.670

The first Ttest table 4.4 is Group Statistic and it includes descriptive information of the two tests that is, number 1, 2=26, 26, mean 1, 2= 8.27, 9.08, standard deviation 1, 2= 4.48, 4.40 and standard error mean 1, 2=0.88, 0.86 respectively.

The second table 4.5 is Independent Sample Ttest, the information of this table which is related to male's group using the significance (sig) statistics. That is, ' the level of significant'. ($t= 0.65$, $df= 50$ and $sig. (2\text{ tailed}) = 0.51$. As we observed:

Sig (2-tailed) = $0.51 > 0.05 \rightarrow$ accept H_0

So, the hypothesis of L1 grammar negative transfer on L2 writing skill in Iranian male EFL learners is accepted. That is, there is a negative transfer in Male EFL learners which postponed L2 writing skill.

Do the scores of translation and recognition tests of female EFL learners prove the hypothesis of the present study or not?

Table 4.6 Group Statistics of the second hypothesis related to the Females' Translation-Recognition Test

Females' group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Female	1	26	8.46	4.254	.834
	2	26	9.27	4.904	.962

Table 4.7 Independent Samples Test of Female EFL learners

Female	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances not assumed	.634	49.024	.529	.808	1.273	3.365	1.751

As can be seen in table 4.6, it includes descriptive information of the two tests that is, number 1, 2=26, 26, mean 1, 2= 8.46, 9.27, standard deviation 1,2= 4.25, 4.90 and standard error mean 1, 2=0.83, 0.96 respectively. And also table 4.7 shows the obtained information related to the females' translation-recognition test scores, that is, ($t= 0.63$, $df= 50$ and $sig. (2\text{ tailed}) = 0.52$. We also observed:

Sig (2-tailed) = $0.52 > 0.05 \rightarrow$ accept H_0

So, the hypothesis of L1 grammar negative transfer on L2 writing skill in Iranian female EFL learners is accepted. That is, there is a negative transfer in Female EFL learners which postponed L2 writing skill.

Evaluating the relationship between translation test scores with recognition test scores (correlation) in male and female groups separately.

Correlations

Table 4.8 The Correlations of Male EFL Learners' Translation and Recognition tests

		Translation	Recognition
Male's translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.939**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	26	26
Male's recognition	Pearson Correlation	.939**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	26	26

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.9 The Correlations of Female EFL Learners' Translation and Recognition tests

		Translation	Recognition
Female's translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.977**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	26	26
Female's recognition	Pearson Correlation	.977**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	26	26

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Now, In order to evaluate the relationship between translation test scores and recognition test scores in male group, we can see the first Correlation table 4.7. The Pearson Correlation between these two variables is 0.93 and this is too close to number 1 and it indicates that there is a very high relationship between them.

So, there is a positive, direct and strong relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the hypothesis of the lack of existence relationship between these variables ($H_0: \rho=0$) using the correlation Sig (significance level) is rejected.

Sig (2-tailed) = 0.00 < 0.05 → reject H_0

So, we can see a strong relationship between these two variables (that is, the translation-recognition test scores) and are at the very high level.

The subsequent Correlation table 4.8 is related to the relationship between translation and recognition test scores in female group. Again we can observe that the Pearson Correlation between these two variables is 0.97 which is too close to number 1 and this indicates a very strong correlation/relationship between these two variables. So, there is a positive, direct and strong relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the hypothesis of the lack of existence relationship between these variables ($H_0: \rho=0$) using the correlation Sig (significance level) is rejected.

Sig (2-tailed) = 0.00 < 0.05 → reject H_0

So, we can see a strong relationship between these two variables (that is, the translation-recognition test scores) and are at the very high level. The next correlation tables indicate the strong relationship between PET scores with the average of translation-recognition test scores of both groups.

Evaluating the relationship between PET test scores with translation-recognition test scores (correlation) in male and female separately.

Table 4.10 The Correlations of Male EFL Learners' PET score

		Male's pet	Male's mean
Male's pet	Pearson Correlation	1	.985**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	26	26
Male's mean	Pearson Correlation	.985**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	26	26

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.11 The Correlations of Female EFL Learners' PET score

		Females' pet	Females' mean
Females' pet	Pearson Correlation	1	.963**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	26	26
Females' mean	Pearson Correlation	.963**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	26	26

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation table 4.9 indicates the strong relationship between PET scores with the average of translation-recognition test scores of male's group. The Pearson correlation coefficient between these two variables is Mean= 0.98 which is very close to number 1 and this indicates a very strong relationship. So, there is a positive, direct and strong relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the hypothesis of the lack of existence relationship between PET test scores and the average of translation-recognition test scores (Ho: $\rho=0$) using the correlation Sig (significance level) is rejected in male's group.

Sig (2-tailed) = 0.00 < 0.05 → reject Ho

The next correlation table 4.10 indicates the strong relationship between PET scores with the average of translation-recognition test scores of female's group.

We can also observe that the Pearson correlation coefficient between these two variables is Mean=0.96 which is very close to number 1 and this indicates a very strong relationship. So, there is a positive, direct and strong relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the hypothesis of the lack of existence relationship between PET test scores and the average of translation-recognition test scores (Ho: $\rho=0$) using the correlation Sig (significance level) is rejected in female's group.

Sig (2-tailed) = 0.00 < 0.05 → reject Ho

4.5 The Analysis of Linguistic Items

The grammatical errors gradation

Friedman Test was administered to grade the number of errors of the 11 linguistic items of each group 'female and male EFL learners' (refer to appendix E).

Friedman Test

Table 4.12 The grammatical errors gradation of both genders

English grammatical items	Mean
1. Misuse of verbs (trans/intrans)	7.77
2. Misuse of tenses	7.35
3. Misuse of linking verbs	6.90
4. Misuse of article	6.77
5. Misuse of auxiliary	6.63
6. Misuse of preposition	6.35
7. Misuse of (relative) pronoun	5.79
8. Misuse of adjective	5.56
9. Misuse of sub- verb agreement	5.19
10. Misuse of singular/plural noun	4.58
11. Misuse of word order	3.12

Table 4. 13 Friedman Statistical Test of grammatical errors gradation of both genders

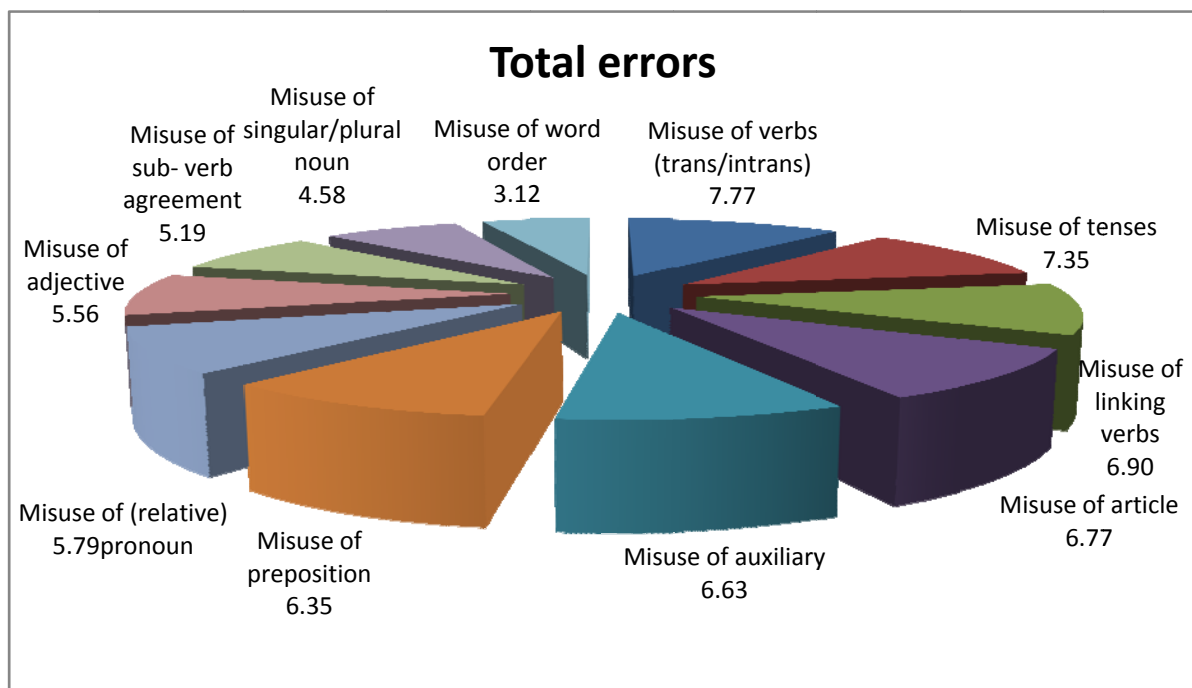
No	26
Chi square	46.555
Df	10
Sig	.000

As can be seen in table 4.12, the errors related to verbs 'trans and intrans' (Mean= 7.77) and word order (Mean= 3.12) in column 1 and 11 had the most and the least grammatical errors gradation respectively, and as table 4.12 shows, the hypothesis of equality of the means of the 11 grammatical errors is also rejected and these grammatical items do not have the same Mean. (df=10 and sig=.000) So, Sig=0.00 < 0.05 → Reject H0

It is quite obvious from the data collected and from the statistic findings that L1 grammar negative transfer (mother tongue) did take place in the translation - recognition test of the Iranian EFL learners. Different linguistic items were transferred negatively as evident from the participants' performance. From the above chart, it can be observed that the eleven linguistic items were mainly transferred negatively, (arranged according to the mean obtained).

According to the respective L2 teachers, the students are already having linguistic problems with their L1 especially in high school. Therefore, learning L2 with limited teaching hours is sure to limit their learning. Hence, from the obtained data, it can be concluded that the learning of L2 in Persian schools is seriously influenced and affected by the students' mother tongue. By and large, most of the participants gave the wrong answers.

Breakdown of the Linguistic Items-Interference in L2 writing



The total number and percentage of errors committed by **both genders** of Iranian EFL learners in translation - recognition tests, indicated the most frequency of misused items.

As shown in breakdown figure, the differences and comparison of grammar 'linguistic systems' of the two languages 'L1 and L2' were checked. The number and the percentage of the errors are given in this figure indicated that the Iranian EFL learners had more perceptible problem due to L1 interference in column one with 'verbs' (transitive and intransitive). That is, 7.77 in translation-recognition test and less in 'word order'. That is, 3.12 respectively. As indicated both genders performed hesitantly.

4.6 The Summary of the Findings and their Implication on the basis of data analysis

Based on the data collected from the analysis of the participants' translation-recognition answer sheets and the researcher-made Opinionnaire, the aforementioned hypotheses are proved, so it is possible to draw up the following conclusions about the influence of L1 grammatical rules in the writing of L2.

1. Iranian EFL learners should be deductively or inductively taught and informed about the differences of the linguistic items between the L1 (Persian) and L2 (English).
2. In order to improve the standard of L2 in Persian schools, the hour of teaching for the L2 learner should be undoubtedly considered. In other words, according to the L2 teacher, the EFL learners are already many linguistic problems with their L1 especially in high school. Therefore, learning L2 with limited teaching hours is sure to limit their learning.
3. The learners should be more exposed to some kind of contrastive studies not only grammatical items but also L2 culture.
4. Those grammatical items (rules) of the respective L1 classification that were not found in L2 are used incorrectly in L2 writing due to L1 negative transfer.
5. More importantly, the L2 teacher him/herself should be informed beforehand and should be up-to-date from different points of teaching view especially cultural and around the language due to the lack of real L2 situation and in other words, L2 learner is living and learning the language in their native environment.

5. Conclusion

According to the result of the present study, it is obvious that Iranian EFL learners experience difficulty when they tend to use English 'grammatical items' e.g. verbs (transitive, intransitive), linking verbs in their proper patterns and adjectival collocation, tenses, articles, auxiliaries, prepositions, relative pronoun, adjective, sub-verb agreement, singular/plural nouns and word order due to both L1 negative transfer and the linguistic differences (language system) between source language (L1) and target language (L2). Meanwhile; the absence of article 'the', absence of auxiliary ,being null subject, absence of 'to be about to' structure in L1, absence of present and past perfect continuous, differences in noun modifiers, differences in collocations, under differentiation, overgeneralization, etc and other factors like: due to lack of motivation, attitude, exposure, socialization, related writing material, adequate teaching hour and the benefit of good instruction as well as well-prepared teacher

cause difficulties for Iranian EFL learners leading fossilization. As it is believed that 'unlearning is much more difficult than learning.' As a result of these findings, the conclusion is drawn that L1 grammar negative transfer (mother tongue) does affect on L2 writing skill on Iranian EFL learners.

On the whole, the researcher believes that the grammar-translation method could benefit the students in Persian schools to understand the L2 better since both languages can be used actively in classrooms. According to Davis and Pearce (2000), translation is regarded as a very good technique to practice the application of rules and for transformation exercise in order to improve their grammatical performance. In a word, factors like: trained teacher as Brook (1964, p. 63) states; "if a teacher of English as a foreign or second language can acquire a considerable knowledge of two languages, he/ she would be more successful in his job."(see also Hayati, 2005), adequate teaching hour, adequate exposure to good models of language use, encouraging the learner to use English at home with their school –going siblings, alongside their native language, changing the learner's attitude towards L2 and above all, seem to be the most efficient way to help the EFL learners master L2 in general and the L1 grammatical items in particular.

In conclusion, the present research demonstrates that by applying CA (referring to the Opinionaire and literature review) in EFL classes and drawing the learners attention to those problematic areas of L2, increasing the time of teaching hour and more importantly assigning a well-prepared teacher for the respective classes, We would probably be able to increase the L2 writing skill of Iranian EFL learners and in this line, L1 negative transfer would be, to some extent, decolorized or diminished. In addition, the findings reveal that those who take this process into account, especially L2 teachers, can probably be successful in their teaching and can have successful learners as well.

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Title

Measuring Collocational Competence of Iranian Learners by Using C-Test*

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Abstract

One of the most significant current discussions in second or foreign language is collocations as a challenging attribute of second language learning and as a vital element of communicative competence. A crucial part of native speakers' communicative competence is collocational competence which can be defined as native speakers intuitively knowing which words usually co-occur and which do not. Moreover, any speech community has a set of idiomatic ways of stating ideas in certain complete phrases and a great many partly filled phrase-frames. From this it can be inferred that non-native speakers with deficient communicative competence have great difficulty in formulaic language. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to investigate the relationship between the language proficiency of Iranian students and the knowledge of verb noun collocations among Iranian EFL learners. To reach this goal, two tests were administered to Iranian learners, namely a cloze test and a c-test. The language proficiency level of the subjects was scrutinized through their performance on a cloze test. The subjects' collocational competence was calculated through their performance on a 50-item c-test consisting of verb noun collocations in which the verb missing but the first letter/phoneme was provided. The results of the statistical analyses demonstrate that there is a high positive relationship between collocational competence and general language proficiency of learners. Therefore, it can be concluded that the c-test is an effective measurement to assess learners' collocational competence.

Keywords: Language proficiency, Collocation, Cloze test, C-test, Iranian EFL learners

1. Introduction

When native speakers of English speak or write, they use both grammatical rules and collocations. Collocations are words that are present in the memory of native speakers as ready-made prefabricated chunks. Non-native speakers who wish to acquire native-like fluency should, therefore, need to give appropriate attention to collocations in speaking and writing in order to not produce odd sentences. A collocation includes two words that are joined concurrently in the memory of native speakers frequently in both written and spoken discourse. For instance, catch a cold and severe cold are two frequently employed word combinations which are considered as collocations. The noun *cold* repeatedly comes together

with the verb *catch* and the adjective *severe* (Aghbar, 1990; Farghal & Al-Hamly, 2007). As numerous researchers consider that using a word means “knowing its collocations” (Lewis, 2000; Nation, 2001; Nation & Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 2008a, 2008b), they insist that collocational knowledge is a significant matter that is a factor to the dissimilarities between foreign language learners and native speakers (Aston, 1995; Fillmore, 1979; Kjellmer, 1991; Pawley & Syder, 1983). If EFL learners cannot use collocations accurately, it will be a main indicator of foreignness (McArthur, 1992; McCarthy, 1990; Nattinger, 1980; Wu, 1996). Various researchers (Fontenelle, 1994; Herbst, 1996; Lennon, 1998; Moon, 1998) claim that to get overall language proficiency, language learners should achieve collocational competence. The strongest viewpoint stated so far is that collocations are a crucial constituent in the process of second/foreign language acquisition (Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007; Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006; Lewis, 1997a, 2000; Liao, 2010; Liu, 2010; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992).

Native speakers of English use collocations, whether fixed or flexible, habitually (Prodromou, 2003). It is considered that the automation of collocation aids native speakers in conveying their messages fluently as they have organised their messages into “chunks” of language that are ready to be utilised. Nevertheless, second language learners who do not have that knowledge make non-native errors when generating utterances. To have native like fluency and competence, second language learners should know that a significant part of language learning is the ability to understand and to produce collocations as unanalysed chunks.

The present study regards collocations as a challenging attribute of second language learning and as a vital element of communicative competence. They are a sub-category of formulaic expressions which are widespread in language and in the speech of native speakers. Application of collocates in language may also be considered as providing assistance in learning a second language. This is seen in a study by Forster, (2001) where substantial amount in unplanned speech of non-native speakers are non-formulaic language.

Collocations may also be important in furthering effective communication (Hussein, 1990). Kjellmer (1991) states that the more correctly language learners can use collocations, the fewer pauses and hesitations they make through stretched chunks of discourse. This is the reason why it is essential for language learners to be proficient in collocations. So this way, their speech is natural, and is comprehended by native speakers. In addition, Lennon (1998) believes that language learners can utter their thought in different ways when they know collocations.

Similarly, Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1997) have declared that language learners should learn how words collocate with each other in order to use a language with native-like accuracy and fluency in both spoken and written discourse. Hence, their vocabulary and overall language proficiency level expands as their collocational knowledge expands. Thus, a lot of investigators (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Schmidt, 1997; Hill, 2000; Lewis, 2010; McCarthy, 1984; Shehata, 2008) declared that collocational knowledge is the essence of language knowledge. This idea has profound implications on SLA because it is the indication of learners' communicative competence and language fluency.

There are not any definite collocation rules to acquire, thus, it has become the main reason why collocation has become one of the more difficult features in second language learning for students of English. The native English speaker intuitively knows where and when to use the correct collocation rooted in his lifetime's practice of using words in language chunks. The foreign language learner possesses less experience and might often collocate words in such a manner which may seem peculiar to native speakers (Shehata, 2008). There is a need for formal educational systems to devise a plan on making the institutive knowledge of collocations more explicit and available to non-native speakers.

Collocational knowledge can be useful in a foreign language environment like Iran because it helps the students improve their style of written and spoken discourse and helps their speech and writing sound more natural. The Iranian educational system at the university level, however, does not give enough attention to collocations because the main emphasis is on at four skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing. The Iranian university students, therefore, are able to benefit from the advantages of learning collocations as a means to better language proficiency.

2. Statement of the Problem

There are many research studies on the knowledge of collocations for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners who come from different cultural backgrounds in different countries. However, there are few studies that have looked at the collocational knowledge in Iran. Iranian learners of English face problems with the knowledge of verb noun collocations like other EFL learners. The inadequate collocational knowledge of Iranian learners of English may be related to different elements, such as unfamiliarity with the structure of English collocations, and negative transfer from Persian. As most Persian-speaking learners in EFL classrooms do not have numerous chances to come across collocations in their daily lives, it is felt that they normally go to their L1 when they are deficient in collocational knowledge of

English. Furthermore, they usually find it difficult to come across collocations in EFL surroundings, because they learn individual words rather than collocations. They also have less exposure to the language outside of the classrooms that results in errors that distinguish them as non-the university level in Iran, I have observed that teachers do not pay much attention to collocations in class. However, students need to graduate from universities and have a very high capability to communicate or convey their ideas very clearly in English. This ability may be reflected in their ability to use collocations correctly and fluently.

This study, therefore, seeks to recognise learners' collocational competence in an EFL situation. It intends to examine whether collocational competence can be used as an indicator of language proficiency. The study also aims to explain whether Iranian university students may acquire collocational competence implicitly through informal exposure to language during their university years or whether more rigorous focus should be met in collocations.

3. Review of Literature

The term "collocation" is discussed prevalently from three main points of views: corpus research views, sentence- and discourse-building views, and linguistic views. Research on collocations has been influenced by corpus-based research (Aijmer, Altenberg, & Svartvik, 1991; Benson et al. 1997; Miyakoshi, 2009; Kennedy, 1990; Kjellmer, 1991; Liao, 2010; Sinclair, 1991). In his corpus research on collocations, Kjellmer (1991) defines collocations as such sequences of items as are grammatically well formed. This definition adopts a broad interpretation of the term, giving the name to all greater-than-chance groups of words which are grammatically well-formed. Benson et al. (1997) and Kjellmer (1991) adopt a practical operational approach which reflects the procedure they use to extract collocations from language corpora data and study them.

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) take a sentence- and discourse-building view and investigate both the psychological and the distributional phenomena of language. They suggest that lexical phrases are extremely common in fluent speech and writing, and that they are an important source of linguistic material for language learners to analyse and from which to derive syntactic and lexical information.

3.1 Collocation Types

Investigators divide collocations into various types from different point of views. For example, Cowie, Mackin and MaCaig (1983), the compilers of *The Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English*, employ idiomaticity to categorise collocations and idioms into four groups from most to least fixed: pure idioms, figurative idioms, restricted collocations,

and open collocations. Pure idioms are the most fixed and have semantic opacity like *blow the trumpet*. Figurative idioms are more transparent but not quite fixed like *catch cold*. Restricted collocations, like *go under* are collocations that have one element used in its normal meaning and the other used in a non-literal sense. Open collocations can combine together and each component has its literal sense like *nice day*.

Benson et al. (1997) divide collocations into two types by their syntactic nature: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. A grammatical collocation is a content word (a noun, a verb, or an adjective), and a grammatical word like a preposition or grammatical structure, for instance, *go around*, *by chance*, *wait for*. Lexical collocations include diverse combinations of nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs, such as *influence greatly*, *do homework*. There are eight main types of grammatical collocations and seven types of lexical collocations in *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations*. Nevertheless, the authors exclude "free combinations" in their dictionary that are, in fact, limitless.

Lewis (1997), furthermore, categorises collocations into strong and weak ones based on their fixedness and restrictedness, and differentiates collocations between frequent and infrequent ones owing to their frequency of coming together in a corpus. Tightly linked phrases that nearly function like single words are strong collocations like *happily ever after*. Combinations of two common words are weak collocations; however, word can come together with many other words, for example *a nice day* and *a good chance*. He also states that collocations can be any combination of strong and frequent, strong and infrequent, weak and frequent, or weak and infrequent. This study considered verb noun collocations which are the most frequent but difficult to master.

3.2 C-test

There are different tests to measure EFL language proficiency or communicative language usage. In Bachman's view (1990: 166), "the primary interest in using language tests is to make inferences about one or more components of an individual's communicative language ability".

The C-test has been proposed by Klein-Braley and Raatz (Klein-Braley&Raatz, 1984; Klein-Braley, 1935). The beneficial aspects the C-test is that it has an easy to administer test format, is fast as it involves objective scoring, and is highly reliable. The C-test is similar to the classic Cloze test and is based on the principle of reduced redundancy testing (Klein-Braley, 1994; 1997). The numerous empirical evidences back a positive overall evaluation of

C-tests as tests of general language proficiency. For example, in their work on an English C-test, Dörnyei and Katona (1992: 203) pointed out:

The C-test proved to be a highly integrative and versatile measuring instrument, working well in samples of various difficulty and homogeneity levels . . . our conclusion about the C-test is that not only is it a reliable and valid measure of general language proficiency, but it is also one of the most efficient language testing instruments in terms of the ratio between resources invested and measurement accuracy obtained.

Therefore, C-tests require the integration of both skills and knowledge: a core competence in all types of language use. Furthermore, the lexical competence which is needed in the processing of cloze tasks (including c-tests) with both knowledge of individual words and the ability to use contextual clues to find out which word fits a blank (Read, 2000: 113).

In a traditional C-test, the second half of every key word in a phrase is deleted, leaving the first and last sentence of the passage intact. With the C-test, a clue (half the word) serves as a stimulus for respondents to find the other half. In this version of the C-test, only the first letter/phoneme of every deleted word was provided, for instance, "k _____ the ball," "s _____ tea," or "h _____ a flat tire" in order to elicit the specific collocations intended for this research and to lessen the chance of guessing by subjects. In this study, the C-test which was a modified version of Al-Zahrani (1998) used for collecting data.

The test items included only lexical collocations. A distinction has been made between lexical collocations and grammatical collocations (Benson & Benson, 1986, 1997). Lexical collocations do not have a dominant word; they have structures such as the following: verb + noun, adjective + noun, noun + verb, noun + noun, adverb + adjective, adverb + verb" (p: ix). In other words, a lexical collocation is more lexis-oriented but a grammatical collocation is more grammar-oriented. In this study, lexical collocations – verb noun- were measured.

A review of literature shows that there is a lack of empirical research on the relationship between EFL learners' collocational knowledge and their performance on a c-test. However, a number of studies have discussed the relationships between language proficiency and collocational knowledge which is closely related to the topic of this study. Al-Zahrani (1988) found that there is a high correlation between language proficiency and collocational knowledge among EFL Saudi students. Sung (2003) found that a significantly strong

correlation existed between the EFL students' knowledge of lexical collocations and their speaking fluency.

The present study adds to and expands those previous studies, and no study, to the best of my knowledge, has used a cloze test and a c-test to measure the relationship between language proficiency and collocational competence. Hence, the current study tries to fill this gap. It raises the following research question:

- What is the relationship between students' language proficiency and the knowledge of verb noun collocations?

4. Methodology

This study was performed to observe the relationship between students' language proficiency and the knowledge of verb noun collocations. The research design utilised in this project is correlational research which is used "in order to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between or more quantifiable variables" (Gay, and Airasian, 2000, p. 321).

4.1 Participants

The participants in this study were English major students (44 male and 168 female) aged 18-35 in a university in Iran. They participated in a cloze test, and a c-test of collocations. The cloze test was piloted with 30 subjects, but c-test was piloted twice: the first one with the same subjects who participated in the cloze test, the second one with different participants.

4.2 Instrument

The instruments of this study were a cloze test and a c-test to measure the language proficiency and collocational competence of the subjects. The Cloze tests have been used to measure overall ability in a language (Hughes 1989, 62ff.). The cloze test was developed by Suter (2002) was piloted on 30 students in a university in Iran. They were all English major students. The responses attained from the pilot study were cautiously reviewed. It was noted that some items were not in a suitable degree of difficulties for students, so they were modified. The papers were marked by semantically accepted word or SEMAC technique (see Suter, 2002). The reliability for the cloze test was estimated by Cronbach's alpha which was .78. The result shows that the cloze test has a high reliability and can be used to measure students' knowledge of English.

The c-test of this study was developed by Al-Zahrani (1998) and was piloted on the same 30 students. They were all English major students. The responses attained from the pilot study were carefully reviewed. It was found that some items were not too easy or too difficult for students; therefore, they were changed and piloted again on the 30 different students. The

reliability for the c- test was estimated by Cronbach’s alpha which was .87. The result shows that the c-test has a high reliability.

To validate the two modified tests of the study, they were administered to a different group of 30 students in that university in Iran. The item facility and item discrimination were calculated. Items facility for the both cloze test and the test of collocations fell within the range of (.47 and .70 respectively) (cf. Farhady, et.al. 1995).

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to illustrate the relationship between students’ overall proficiency as measured by the Cloze Test and students’ collocational knowledge as measured by the Test of Collocations and to quantify the strength of such a relationship. Table 1 shows the results of the correlation.

Table1: Pearson Correlation of the Dependent and Independent Variables

Test of Collocations	
Cloze test	.532**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen in Table1, the relationship between the language proficiency of students (as measured by the Cloze Test) and the knowledge of collocations (as measured by the Test of Collocation) was calculated at $\alpha = 0.05$. Cohen’s (2000) guideline on the interpreting the strength of correlation considers $r = 0.10$ to 0.29 as small, $r = 0.30$ to 0.49 as medium, and $r = 0.50$ to 1.0 as large. Based on this guideline, we can consider there was a strong, positive correlation between the language proficiency of students and the knowledge of collocations [$r = 0.532$, $n = 212$, $p < 0.01$], with high levels of language proficiency associated with high levels of the knowledge of collocations. To show the linearity, a scatter plot was drawn and illustrated there was a positive linear relationship between the variables. The results also indicated there was homoscedasticity that means an increase in X resulted in an increase in Y because the correlation coefficient is positive. The coefficient of determination was calculated and showed students’ overall proficiency helped to explain 29 per cent of the variance in scores on the knowledge of collocations. Based on the results of the analysis, there is a strong positive correlation between language proficiency and the collocational knowledge of students. This finding supports the findings of Al-Zahrani (1998) and Hsu and Chui (2008) who also obtained similar results for their students.

5. Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

The results of the statistical analyses for the first research question of the present study proved that there was a strong positive correlation between students' knowledge of verb noun collocations and the language proficiency. The results illustrated that the development of collocational competence was in line with language skills. These findings empirically support the findings of Al-Zahrani (1998), BagherzadehHosseini and Akbarian (2007), Gitsaki(1999), Hsu and Chui (2008), Keshavarz and Salimi (2007), Koosha and Jafarpour (2006),Liao (2010), and Liu (2010) that there is a high positive correlation between learners' language proficiency and collocational competence.

The results of Pearson product moment correlation supported the claim that the development of collocational competence was in line with other language skills. It is interesting to note that although collocations are not taught to students explicitly at that university in Iran, students seem to acquire collocations. This situation may make it possible to infer that students learn collocations implicitly through the exposure to English language they receive in classroom and informal situation throughout their four years in the institute.

Based on the findings of this study, knowledge of collocations can contribute to the learners' comprehension and production. It means that a word can be best learned with which it associates because learners can remember the word with its associations or collocations. By memorising the collocations, students become aware of lexical restrictions that help them to use them as pre-packaged building blocks.

Moreover, in vocabulary learning and teaching, the significant role of collocations should be emphasised. Seal (1991) regards collocations as a vital characteristic of vocabulary knowledge and states that what should be offered to students is collocational knowledge not individual words. EFL/ESL teachers should make their students aware of lexical collocations because such awareness has been considered an essential aspect of language learning (Brown, 1974; Coznett, 2000; Lewis, 2000). The present study provides empirical support to this view and also to Sinclair's (1997) idea about the importance of the idiom principle. This leads to the principle of language use which is pedagogically at the heart of teaching and testing of language competence and should be used for the design of appropriate teaching materials and for the methodology of classroom instruction.

The study shows that there is a relationship between the English knowledge and collocational proficiency of Iranian students, yet future bigger scale studies may be necessary to be performed. In this study, the c-test could measure the verb noun collocations, but

another one should be designed to measure not only lexical collocations but also grammatical collocations. Yet much has to be done on the role of collocations in second or foreign language acquisitions, especially on the relationships with other language skills in EFL conditions.

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Title

The Impact of Trilingualism on Spatial Reasoning

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Abstract

Recently, multilingualism as a very important social and cultural norm has been of extensive interest and attention all over the world. Scholars have investigated multilingual individuals and communities from different perspectives to find out how multilinguality affects peoples' cognitive abilities. The present study, in which 105 male and female trilinguals and monolinguals participated, attempted to enter a new arena in multilinguals' abilities which is spatial abilities and find out if there is any significant difference between the tri and monolingual participants in their performance on the spatial ability test. Analyzing the collected data from the groups through the use of spatial ability test battery, it has been revealed that trilinguals outperformed monolinguals in the test of spatial abilities.

Keywords: Trilingualism, Spatial ability, Iran, Multilinguals' cognition

1. Introduction

Most of the world population knows to communicate by means of two, three, or more languages and only a small portion of the world's people are monolingual. Multilingualism as a norm for the majority of people is present in almost every country in all classes and age groups. Commonly, it is difficult to find a society that is genuinely monolingual.

In addition to Singapore with four state languages, today there are 38 countries in which two languages as the state languages and four other countries have three state languages (Kornakov, 1997). As well, countries such as Canada, Sweden, and India are officially bi or multilingual and their speakers "enjoy socio educational benefits provided for them by the central government" (Hameedy, 2001, p.2) without facing any difficulty in regard to their multilinguality. Of course in a considerable number of cases the state language is not the language spoken by the majority of population or multilinguals who live in countries in which everything is at the service of the state language. Thus, most of these individuals usually receive very little or no support in achieving their real multilinguality. In the beginning of the 20th century bilingualism or multilingualism in general was considered as a bad habit, a sign of suffering from a language handicap (Darcy, 1953) or the cause of linguistic and mental confusion (Saer, 1923). However, in recent studies the trend has mostly changed in favor of multilingualism and a number of studies has suggested and proved the opposite and indicated that being a bi or tri or more-lingualism has beneficial effects on the cognitive abilities. A significant books and papers that look deeper into various aspects of multilingualism especially bilingualism and trilingualism have appeared., MacNab (1979) does his research on creative thinking in bilinguals, Cook (1995) on meta-linguistic awareness and multilingualism, Jessner (2006) on language awareness in multilinguals, Cenoz (2009) on multilingual education and some other studies related to the attention system of multilinguals. going through these studies, assumptions such as multilinguals are better language learners than monolinguals, learning a third language has an indirect effect on mental awareness, multilinguals can outperform their monolingual peers in an IQ test, have been discussed, proved and disproved. Meanwhile, there are still plenty of myths about the negative effects of this phenomenon on children's mental development and capabilities and surprisingly some educators caution against the use of two or more languages in children, claiming that knowing two or more languages causes cognitive, social, and emotional damage to children (Hakuta, 1986). These claims sometimes changes the relationship between the multilinguality and cognition to a real dilemma and make it so tremendous that even today it

captures the attention of scholars, scientists, psychologists, and even policy makers more than before. However, in our country, contrary to its high diversity this phenomenon has not been studied appropriately so far. Families in Iran have not been provided with sufficient authentic sufficient information whether multilingualism impacts their children positively or negatively in the field of education.

Therefore, it appears that today studying the effects of multilingualism on individual cognition, intelligent, attention can have far reaching and essential implications for language policy and teaching, especially in our country.

This research was an attempt to find out if trilingualism, which is one component of multilingualism, has a positive or hindering influence on trilinguals. Naturally its findings can help educators and policy makers to decide whether they should provide and promote multilingual education or proficiency in three languages should not be a primary educational goal in the classroom. In fact, in the present paper the state of the art on trilingual development and its consequences for the adults' cognitive development are first reviewed and discussed at some length. We then review the spatial ability in trilinguals.

2. Background of the Study

2.1. Multilingualism

Multilingualism or plurilingualism is a growing phenomenon all around the world and that is because of many reasons. Hary (1992) uses the term polyglossia or multiglossia and says that this term is used in sociolinguistics to refer to communities where a number of languages or varieties are used by some or all individuals within a specified community, where they have different roles: more specific reference may be given as diglossia, triglossia, tetraglossia. As a matter of fact multilingualism is an umbrella term that takes bi and trilingualism under its wing. Dewaele(2002) defines a multilingual person as somebody who has “the ability to speak three or more languages, either separately or in various degrees of code-mixing. He also adds that competence in each language is different and related to such factors as register, occupation, and education. NTSoane (2002) in his thesis states that the word “Multilingualism” consists of three syllables, namely; Multi-, lingual- and -ism. It is possible to attach literal meaning to each syllable, and then combine the literal meanings into a cohesive definition. Thus, the syllables can be understood to have the following meanings: Multi- > many, -lingual > of the language and -ism > pertaining to a movement or an organization. The mixture of the three syllables gives us this cohesive definition that

multilingualism is a movement or an organization that advocates for the use of many or several approved languages. Recent studies, though, show that multilingualism is the ability to use three or more languages to some extent and not being affluent in all the languages. Edwards (2002), for example, in his definition of multilingualism mentions that multilingualism, the ability to speak, *at some level*, more than one language, is a widespread global phenomenon. Lopez & Kattan(2007) argue that becoming a multilingual involves many parameters such as the key term acquisition of linguistic forms in two or more languages, the socialization to the rules and expectations that accompany the usage of those languages, learning the meaning of these forms in a social context, and using those forms to create a meaningful context.

2.2. Movement and Importance

The very start of the phenomenon multilingualism which brings under its wing bi, tri, quad and more languages, according to Edwards (1994), goes back to the Biblical era narrated in the Tower of Babel story, in the book of Genesis, 9:1. It is stated that the divine punishment for human temerity is the creation of a confusion of languages. According to Edwards (1994), it is stated that:

This is remedied, in a curious way, with the glossolalia of Pentecost (noted in Acts) – that intriguing “speaking in tongues” which still finds expression in some religious gatherings, but which is hardly a common language in any ordinary sense .(p.15)

Edwards, too, adds that many linguists and specialists feel that this phenomenon is not a punishment but an important and widespread component in our life as human beings.

Contrary to what is often believed, most of the world's population is bilingual or multilingual Valdes (1989) states that monolinguals are just a minority of the world's peoples. He mentions that there are over 5000 distinct languages spoken in the same small number of nation states. Each of the world's nations (including) Iran has groups of individuals living within its borders who use other languages in addition to the national language to function in their everyday lives. Auer and Wei (2007) talks about the value of multilingualism in the new globalized world:

The value and importance attached to multilingual upbringing is a debated issue and depends on many factors. It is fair to say that a large part of the attention research on multilingualism has received in public is due to the fact that for more and more people living in monolingual societies, it is a pressing issue whether and how their children should be brought up multilingually. Although many multilingual parents want to maintain their children's knowledge in the ‘other’ language (i.e. in addition to the dominant, ambient

language in the society) for reasons of identity (it may be their own mother tongue) and for practical reasons (ability to talk to the people ‘back home’) and professional (better job opportunities), they also fear that learning two languages may put extra stress on their child and might delay or even do irrevocable damage to his or her development and scholastic achievement. (p .4)

Jessner (2006) states that among the different reasons leading to multilingual settings three are dominant, that is (1) the increasing mobility resulting in migratory movements, (2) the role of English as a lingua franca and (3) the presence of former colonial forces. Pai (2005) in an article states that two kinds of multilingualism are available: First, Elite multilingualism which is learning language through a plan and by instruction. Second is Neighborhood multilingualism in which children or adults acquire the two, three or four languages in a natural setting by interaction with other people.

2.3. Components of multilingualism

In our definition of multilingualism we said that it is the speaking of more than one language, therefore it consists of bilingualism, trilingualism, quadlingualism, and more-lingualism. The two phenomena of bilinguality and trilinguality are discussed below.

2.3.1. Bilingualism

The last two decades have seen an increasing interest in acquisition of two languages. It is almost a widespread phenomenon all around the world. Bilingualism, the acquisition of two languages, can occur in a natural setting or learned by instruction. The case when a person uses at least two languages with some degree of proficiency is bilinguality or bilingualism. In everyday use bilingualism is the ability to speak, read or understand two languages equally well (Abutalebi, Cappa, & Perani, 2001). Harley (2008) also says that the definition of bilingualism is a little vague and depends on the meaning of the word “fluent” and defines bilingualism as the ability to speak two languages. He suggests three types of bilingualism, simultaneous (the two languages learned in about the same time), early sequential (L1 is learned first but L2 learned relatively early in childhood), late sequential (L1 learned first but L2 learned in adolescence onwards). Richards and Schmidt (1985) in their dictionary state that bilingualism is the ability of using at least two languages by a person or by a group of people. This brings two sub-categories under the umbrella term bilingualism: a) compound bilingualism which means that the bilingual person has one system of word meaning which is used for the both languages b) Co-ordinate bilingualism which means that the bilingual person has two systems of meaning, one for the first language and the other for the second language. Too, they add that this distinction has not been found useful as a general model of

bilingualism. Hakuta, et.al (1987) description of the term bilingualism, though, is thorough. According to them the concept of bilingualism can be viewed as an “individual-level-mental concept” which is a characteristic of someone who can use two linguistic systems in his mind and called a cognitive bilingual. Too, it can be viewed as a social psychological concept which is a characteristic of an individual. In this concept the bilingual person organize the social word in terms of different groups and social situations related to the two languages. The third concept that they view is that bilingualism is a societal construct which is concerned with between –group interactions in which the two used languages serve as a symbol over which interaction occurs. It means that from this concept language is considered as a signal of membership in a group and serves to maintain the group’s identity and cohesiveness. Most scholars use bilingualism as an umbrella term for multilingualism. Haugen (1956) cited in Jessner (2006) indicates that multilingualism, plurilingualism, and polyglot are subcategories of bilingualism. He uses the term bilingualism as synonym for multilingualism in the sense of learning more than one language.

2.3.2. Trilingualism

As the Thesaurus puts it trilinguality is the ability to use or know three languages with equal or nearly equal fluency. Being trilingual means being able to position themselves within a 'third space' (Bhabha, 1994). This third space is the location in which hybrid identities are formed. The term hybrid refers to the social process of friction and conflict within individuals and among individuals. Just like bilinguals, trilinguals probably acquire their three languages simultaneously or one after the other. Cenoz and Genesee (1998) claim that trilingualism is becoming more and more widespread all around the world but most of the studies concerning this phenomenon are done with individuals who acquire or learn their third language at school. As matter of fact, trilingualism has not been under study as much as bilingualism and that because trilingualism is much more complex than bilingualism.

Most of the studies that have been done till now are done in the domain of bilinguality and there are a few recently published studies on analyzing those with three languages. Hoffman (2001) justifies this fact by saying that trilinguality and processing this phenomenon are still uncharted territory for researchers. That is why we chose the domain of trilinguality for our study rather than the other components of multilingualism.

Trilinguals all around our global world do not learn their three languages in the same ways. It somehow depends on the individual factors and the different learning contexts. Cenoz (2000) describes the various ways of learning three languages.

- 1) acquiring the three language simultaneously;

- 2) acquiring the three languages consecutively, one after the other (the case in the Iranian trilinguals which are the subjects in this study);
- 3) Acquiring two languages simultaneously after the acquisition of the mother language;
- 4) Acquiring two languages simultaneously prior to learning the third language.

2.4. Spatial Abilities

Spatial thinking and reasoning is not simple for every human being. Newcombe & Frick (2010) in their study states that human beings often get lost or give directions which are hard to follow. Since the 1920's many studies have indicated that humans are able to reason using pictures in their minds, for example when finding a direction on a map, or when looking at a complex object in order to work out how something happens. There has been much empirical research trying to establish whether such 'spatial' reasoning really happens or not and also empirical research on whether spatial supports do or do not help with problem-solving, communication or learning. Gardner (1983) calls this skill spatial intelligence and states that it is one of the types of intelligences proposed in multiple-intelligence theory. Halpern (2000) call these abilities "visual-spatial abilities" and argue that this term is not easy to define because it is not a separate concept; it involves different processes in the mind. Ekstrom et al. (1976) generally define this ability as the ability to recognize spatial patterns or to maintain orientation according to objects in space. They conclude that this ability is in line with location, size, distance, direction, shape, movement, etc. Sorby (1999) discusses the difference between "spatial abilities" and "spatial skills." Technically, the former refers to abilities which are innate and the latter abilities which are learned; however, the two terms are often used interchangeably. Sutton and Williams (2008) argue that "Spatial abilities", generally, refer to a collection of cognitive, perceptual, and visualization skills. While lists may differ, considerable agreement exists that spatial abilities involve:

- 1) the ability to visualize mental rotation of objects
- 2) the ability to recognize how objects appear in different positions
- 3) the skill to conceptualize how objects are related to each other in space
- 4) three-dimensional (3D) thinking and understanding

Gardner (1983) follows Thurstone (1938) and suggests that this ability is an important factor for human beings general intelligence. It is different from person to person. According to him there are at least two different spatial abilities in every human being: spatial visualization and spatial orientation.

Linn and Petersen (1985) indicate that spatial ability refers to skill or skills which represent, transform, generate, and recall symbolic, non-linguistic information. They indicate

that there is a significant difference between and males performing spatial skills. In their studies in gender difference in spatial skills they offer the following categories:

- 1) Mental rotation: the ability to decide on the new image of 2D or 3D object which has been rotated from a certain position
- 2) Spatial perception: the ability to identify spatial relationships between two objects, especially between an object and the test subject
- 3) Spatial visualization: the ability to operate on information consecutively and spatially

Maier(1998) in his studies in this field complements Linn & Peterson categorization by adding two other subdivisions: 4) Spatial orientation which is the ability of a person to orient him/herself physically or mentally in space horizontally and vertically and 5) Spatial relations which is the ability to perceive the horizontal and vertical orientation and resulting relationships among objects or parts of those objects.

Proficiency in spatial abilities, in fact, is associated with success in cognitively demanding studies or jobs such as physics, chemistry, medical surgery, engineering, architecture etc. and they are different in individuals. Some individuals experience high visual-spatial imagery. Even the most apparent examination of their lives shows the pervasive influence of such imagery on their style of thinking (Lohman, 1993).

2.5. Cognitive Abilities of Multilinguals

Multilingualism and its relationship to cognition and memory have a long history. Over the years, multilingualism has taken a dramatic turn from being regarded as an undesired outcome which would interfere with L1 learning and lead to abnormal cognition to something much more exciting, valuable, and advantageous in life. A study which is in line with this study to some extent has been done by Bialystok & Shapero (2005). This study which was an attempt to identify the alternative image in a reversible figure suggests that bilingual children were more successful than monolinguals in seeing the other meaning in the images. It has been argued in recent years that L2, L3, or even language learning have positive effects on one's cognition (Cummins, 1991). Leopold (1939-1949) was among the first to mention the favorable effects of bilingualism on mental development in a child brought up in a one-parent one-language, other-parent other language home environment. In another early study Vygotsky (1962) concludes that bilingual children understood the arbitrary nature of form-meaning relationships earlier than monolingual children because he observed that the bilingual child more easily solved the Piagetian 'sun-moon' problem. Bialystok and Majumder (1998). Interestingly, in their study in the area of bilingualism and attention system, it was proved that bilinguals have a better controlled-attention than monolinguals by

helping them pay their attention directly to relevant information under the pressure of interference or distraction (Bialystok and Majumder, 1998). Bialystok (1999) hypothesized that bilingual children might develop enhanced cognitive control mechanisms compared to monolingual children because they are faced with switching and attentional control demands from early on. In fact, they demonstrate that bilingual children might become good at ignoring distractive information and at switching between different cognitive tasks. In a study on third language acquisition by Safont (2003) it was mentioned that bilinguals (Catalan and Spanish) have an advantage over monolingual Spanish speakers in justifying their evaluation of the appropriateness of certain request strategies to particular contexts as well as on their use of request realizations in English which also proves the interactional competence of multilinguals. Hodal (2005) mentions many studies which suggests that bilingual children have linguistic advantages compared to their monolingual equals. For example, bilinguals have been shown to have a much higher level of linguistic awareness, and the cognitive processes that are connected to learning a second language are very similar to the processes connected to third language acquisition, which means that bilinguals should be better equipped for learning their third language than monolinguals for learning their second language (a point which was mentioned by Chastain (1988), too. Trudell (2009) calls multilingualism a gift. He says that use of other languages permit communication with others, broadened access to knowledge outside one's own cultural setting, and participation in civic entities beyond one's own community. Multilingualism contributes to the reinforcement of one's own, local identity in order to permit healthy engagement with the rest of the world, and that is its primary advantage relative to globalization.

On the contrary there are some studies which suggested that there is no benefit of being a multilingual. Stevens (1966) in his thesis study concludes that exposure to two languages has a detrimental effect on intelligence test scores, both verbal and non-verbal. This was a study of fourteen hundred Welsh children having varying degrees of fluency in Welsh and English, from two urban and five rural districts in Wales. He found significant differences between scores on measures of intelligence made by monolingual and by bilingual children, in favor of the monolinguals. In another thesis study Yeas (1975), states that no language effects on divergent scores were found when multilinguals with French and immigrant background and bilinguals and trilinguals were contrasted. He concludes that being a multilingual implies no such effects as obtaining higher divergent scores, or multilingualism is not associated with differences in divergent test performance. Besing & Abrams (2006) compared monosyllabic word recognition in quiet, noise, and noise with reverberation for 15 monolingual American

English speakers and 12 Spanish–English bilinguals who had learned English prior to 6 years of age and spoke English without a noticeable foreign accent. They conclude that significantly poorer word recognition scores were obtained for the bilingual listeners than for the monolingual listeners under conditions of noise and noise with reverberation, but not in quiet. Although bilinguals with little or no foreign accent in their second language are often assumed by their peers, or their clinicians in the case of hearing loss, to be identical in perceptual abilities to monolinguals, the present data suggest that they may have greater difficulty in recognizing words in noisy or reverberant listening environments. Yousefi (1995) does a study to see the role of bilinguality in cognitive development. He found that Iranian bilinguals had not revealed any significant results as far as the means of cognitive development is concerned. He also found that monolinguals outperformed the bilinguals on a foreign language achievement test. Away from the cognitive abilities of multilinguals which are proved through time by different scholars, some other abilities are suggested too. Namazi (2009) in her thesis which involves three studies dedicates her second study to explore the ability of bilingual children to focus their attention on a comprehension task in one language while ignoring the other language. The fact that bilingual children were not any more distracted than the monolingual children by the presentation of a challenging story presented in the other language is in line with the hypothesis that they can successfully ignore simultaneously presented distracting information in the other language. She argues that the bilingual children are actually more successful than the monolingual children. The fact that the bilingual children were as successful as the monolingual children in ignoring simultaneously presented information in the other language may indicate that they were more capable of controlling their attention (Namazi, 2009). As you see, a lot has been done in the area of bilingualism and cognition, and little in the area of trilingualism in the past 90 years. While a review of the literature may not reveal many answers to the questions posed in this research project, it is apparent that a large amount of academic work has been conducted in this subject.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

A hundred and twenty participants took part in this study. They all were tri and monolinguals who educated in social sciences. Twelve participants had not answered or carelessly answered to the test battery and three from the trilinguals did not reach the criteria for the

English proficiency. The data from them were not included in the analyses. Of the 105 participants included in the final sample, 66 were male, 39 were female. 51 of these males and females were trilinguals and 54 were monolinguals (Persian). The ages of participants ranged from 25 to 31 and all of them were at their senior year of college or at the MA level. The researcher used the term trilingual to refer to people who believe in themselves to be trilingual, meaning that they have learned Arabic, Turkish, or Kurdish as their mother tongue or primary language of upbringing, who can speak their mother tongue and who can speak Persian and English, as a result of their academic background and day-to-day interactions. In other words, they know Arabic, Turkish, or Kurdish as their native language, Persian as their second language, and English as a language which they learned at the university (as their major) or in language institutes.

Table 1: number of monolingual and trilingual participants

Ethnic & linguistic background	Male participants		Female participants	
	trilinguals	monolinguals	trilinguals	monolinguals
Persian		29		18
Arabic-Persian-English	32		19	
Turkish-Persian-English	5		2	
Total number of each group	66		39	
Total	105			

3.2. Instruments

a) Demographic questionnaire

All trilingual participants completed a demographic questionnaire which consisted of 8 different questions about their age, sex, and their first and second language etc. participants completed all the items in this part.

b) English language proficiency test

The second instrument was the original Michigan Proficiency test (1988). It was a test of 100 questions, 40 items of grammar, 40 vocabulary items, and 4 reading comprehension passages each with five questions. The time allotted was 100 minutes. The test aimed at controlling the proficiency levels of trilingual subjects whose their third language is English.

c) Spatial ability test

This test is a practice test developed and validated by Newton and Bristoll and downloaded from *www.Psychometric-success.com*. it is a psychometric test which consists of 45 items. The items are two or three dimensional figures (one figure should match the four choices given). The Persian translated form of this test was administered for the monolinguals.

4. Procedure

In the present study, trilingual subjects are considered trilingual with Arabic as their mother language, Persian as the state language whose learning was required to maintain their education and life, and English which is learned in college or in language institutes. Our monolingual subjects were in the same average age, and educational status.

To accomplish the purpose of the study the following procedure was followed:

The Michigan test of English language proficiency (MTELP), a test of grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension was used as the first stage to homogenize the trilingual participants in their level of English. There were one hundred multiple choice items to be answered in one an hour and 30 minutes. This test was employed to homogenize the subjects of the study regarding their proficiency in English. The scores which were between the range of +1 and -1 standard deviation above and below the mean were considered as upper intermediate. Out of 54 trilingual participants who took the test, 51 were able to meet the criteria. Therefore, the three who did not meet the criteria were excluded at the beginning.

After homogenizing the trilingual subjects, a demographic questionnaire was distributed among all the participants to gather some information about the participants. Finally, another battery test, the Spatial reasoning test, was administered to calculate whether there is any difference in the mean scores of two different groups, trilinguals and monolinguals. In each of the above mentioned stages, the incomplete answer sheet and questionnaire were excluded at the beginning. The remaining answer sheets were scored without paying any attention to the subjects' linguistic background. Afterwards, all the responded questionnaires were divided into two categories, and labeled monolingual and trilingual, based on the elicited information included in the demographic part of the questionnaire.

5. Results and Discussion

The collected data were fed into SPSS software to be analyzed considering the scales of measurement of the variables of this study. The following tables show the results.

Table 2: Statistical analysis for group statistics

	multilingual	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean
spacialability	tri	51	59.2941	13.24431	1.85457
	mono	54	51.4815	11.73567	1.59702

Considering the above information in Table 2, the mean scores of trilinguals in spatial ability test (59.2941) is above that of monolinguals (51.4815).

Now, to compare the means of the trilingual and monolingual learners in the field of answering spatial ability test, an independent t-test was conducted. As Table 3 indicates, the results of data analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between trilingual and monolingual participants. The relationship between two groups is significant because $t = 3.203$ and $p < .01$.

Table 3: Independent sample t-test results

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
spacialability	Equal variances assumed	2.027	.158	3.203	103	.002	7.81264	2.43895	2.97555	12.64972
	Equal variances not assumed			3.192	99.850	.002	7.81264	2.44743	2.95691	12.66836

The present study sought to examine the impact of knowing three languages on Spatial reasoning. The effects of trilingual exposure are difficult to examine, as noted in the review of the literature, because they are often clouded by secondary effects from simultaneous socio-cultural variables. An attempt was made to avoid this contamination in this study by selecting trilinguals for the experimental group who had been exposed to a relatively equal and quantifiable amount of trilingual exposure, and who came from similar socio-economic backgrounds. Participants selected for the control groups also came from this socio-economic background. Age, sex, and college education were also matched as carefully as possible to rule out the discrepancies.

As mentioned above the preliminary results of the study illustrated that, generally, trilingualism had positive effect on individuals' Spatial reasoning. The findings of this study add to those that have followed a groundbreaking study associating multilingualism with higher order cognitive ability reported by Peal and Lambert (1962), Bialystok (1999), Bialystok, Craik, Klein, & Viswanathan (2004), Bialystok and Martin (2004), besides many other scholars who worked on the cognition of multilinguals.

Generally, the significance or outperforming of trilinguals can be attributed to their continuous exercise in the field of switching between three languages. Of course, this constant mental flexibility can assist them in performing any cognitive process or action such as spatial ability. To sum up, what we found in this study is that those who possess three languages in Iran were significantly richer in spatial abilities than their monolingual counterparts.

6. Conclusion

In a remarkably multilingual country like Iran with its own cultural characteristics, the findings of the present research can have various direct and indirect pedagogical implications. First, since our analysis illustrated that learning three languages can have a significant effect on cognition generally and attention span especially, this can be a matter of concern to educational officials for fostering and enhancing the education and training dominant in the field of teaching by making it multilingual. One consequence of this phenomenon is increasing linguistic, cultural, ethnic, and religious diversity within our schools. While such diversity may be viewed as a positive consequence from many perspectives, it also presents challenges to teachers and educational systems. Educational and policy decisions about appropriate responses to these challenges require systematic research on the role of language, and particularly the use of multiple languages in cognitive and educational development.

Iran is undoubtedly a multilingual country where a variety of linguistic groups live together. According to different statements the diversity range is too high and people with languages such as Turkish, Kurdish, Arabic, etc. reside in an interwoven society. Although, this diversity is eminent in such a country, we barely see scholastic study on this phenomenon. Families in Iran have not been provided with valid information about the great advantages of being a multilingual and they do not know if they should motivate their children to be bi and trilingual. Many scholars in different parts of the world were interested in multilingualism and focused their studies on the individual differences among multilinguals. One area which has been of importance in many studies in the last two decades was the cognition of those who can live their lives by the means of two or three languages. Indeed, the literature itself is not unambiguous on these points, for research into the effect of multilinguality on children's performance in school and on cognitive tests has yielded conflicting evidence.

In the present study the researchers sought to examine the impact of being a trilingual on spatial abilities. As referred before, the results of the study illustrated that, in general, learning three languages has positive effects on the improvement of spatial abilities in individuals.

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Title

Different Types of Corrective Feedback and the Improvement of the Accuracy in the Use of English Past Simple Tense

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Abstract

This study was undertaken to examine the effect of providing different types of written corrective feedback to learners' written productions over time, that is, a pre test, immediate post test and delayed post test. There was also an attempt to investigate the differential effect of different types of corrective feedback by providing two different types of feedback. There were three groups: one control for which only some content comments were provided and no correction was made regarding the grammar of the learners' compositions, however, for two experimental groups, corrective feedback was provided. One of the experimental groups received corrective feedback in the form of reformulation and the other one received it in the form of reformulation and underlining together which was a new type of corrective feedback devised by the authors of the present study. Final result revealed that the group that received reformulation and underline together improved in accuracy and

was significantly different from the reformulation group at the immediate post test. However, this superiority did not carry over to the delayed post test. The conclusion was that corrective feedback might bring about short term learning but, in long run, does not contribute to real learning, that is, the development of learners' interlanguage system.

Keywords: Corrective feedback, Delayed posttest, Immediate posttest, Past simple, Reformulation, Underline

1. Introduction

Zhang (1995) stated that L2 learners welcome error correction or written corrective feedback (WCF) from the teacher. In Leki's (1991) study, 70% of learners asked for the correction of all their errors. Does this feedback really work? Should English teachers spend hours correcting their students' written productions? Truscott's (1996) answer to this question was a "no answer" since he believed that giving feedback in writing ignores SLA findings regarding the complex and gradual processes of the acquisition of forms and structures and digresses the attention of both teachers and students from more useful aspects of a writing course. He also referred to the teachers' unwillingness to give feedback and the students' reluctance to receive it. In a similar vein, Leki (1990) and Van Patten (1986a, 1986b) found WCF ineffective. A number of other researchers (e.g., Cohen & Robins, 1976; Semke, 1984; Robb, Ross & Shortread, 1986), as well, suggested the futility of WCF. On the other hand, Ferris (1999) published an article in second language writing journal and dissented strongly to Truscott's case against grammar correction. He believed that Truscott dismissed a number of important studies which contradicted his claim and that his conclusions were premature and overly strong. On the other hand, a number of researchers (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1995a; Ferris & Helt, 2000; Laland, 1982; Sheppard, 1992) reported the effectiveness of WCF.

The only two points on which both Truscott and Ferris concurred are "(a) that the research base on error correction in L2 writing is indeed insufficient and (b) that the 'burden of proof' is on those who would argue in favor of error corrections" (Ferris, 2004, p. 51). They both agreed that the present research base is inconclusive and by no means sufficient and more research is necessary.

The controversy over the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of WCF has spurred many researchers to investigate this issue by applying different types of direct and indirect

corrective feedback. Reformulation, first proposed by Levenston (1978), is one of these techniques which refers to the native speaker or teacher's rewriting of the learner's draft while trying to maintain its original content. The rewritten version provides a model so that the learners can compare their version by the reformulated one. In the present article, a novel type of WCF is devised and its effectiveness is investigated. In this study, there is an unprecedented type of WCF in which the reformulated version is enriched by textual enhancement, that is, learners' errors in their original drafts are corrected and the corrected forms of their errors are textually (typographically) enhanced in the reformulated version. This type of feedback which is reformulating and then underlining learners' errors in the reformulated version is called RU hereafter in this study. The researchers hypothesized that reformulation might be more effective provided that learners' errors are made more salient to them in the reformulated text. The researchers underlined the learners' errors in the reformulated version in order to make them more salient and easier to notice.

If this novel WCF technique manages to bring about noticing, then, acquisition might take place and it seems that it will, since it is less probable that a text which is both reformulated and textually enhanced fail to trigger learners' attention and bring about noticing. If the reformulated text is made more salient by textual enhancement, there will be a higher chance of noticing on the learner's part. The researchers, in this study, expected the RU group to enjoy higher gains in post test rewriting task than the learners in the control or reformulation groups. The textual enhancement format chosen to enhance the deviations was underlining. The reason for this was because this study was a third phase of a Ph.D. dissertation in whose previous two phases on textual enhancement in reading comprehension passages, underlining turned out as the most effective format in inducing both noticing and intake of the targeted forms. Therefore, it was conjectured that underlining might also bring about more noticing of students' errors when they are comparing their writing with the reformulated one.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Noticing and WCF

Noticing has received considerable attention from applied linguistics researchers in the past two decades (e.g., Schmidt, 1994a, 1994b; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Sharwood Smith, 1981, 1991, 1993). Qi and Lapkin define noticing 'as the awareness of stimulus via short-term memory.' They refer to stimulus as 'anything that rouses one's attention.' (Qi & Lapkin,

2001, p. 279). They maintain that while noticing in input is vital for learning, noticing in output has also significant role to play. As Swain (1985) argues, when a learner produces output, he experiences some gaps in his interlanguage system and finds it difficult to formulate some linguistic structures and combinations. Later, when he encounters these features in the target language input or different types of direct, indirect or coded teacher's feedback, he is likely to notice them more readily. There is a consensus among applied linguists that attention to form is necessary for the acquisition of form (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Fotos, 1994, 1998; Nassaji, 1999; Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Making a structural feature salient, either by enhancing structural features in the reading texts or giving differing types of corrective feedback to learners' written productions, induces this attention on the part of learners. According to Sharwood Smith (1991), attention is paid to form when the form is made more salient which brings about noticing and subsequent intake of the enhanced form. A number of empirical studies have shown that attention to form can bring about noticing and acquisition (Robinson, 1996; Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Learners notice target language features in input, their output or teacher's feedback through cognitive comparison which, as Ellis (1995) puts it, is the noticing of a linguistic structure in the target language input before the learner compares it with his own interlanguage equivalent of it. That is, they notice a particular target language feature that they would have been unable to produce if they had been supposed to produce it before that encounter. On the other hand, James (1998) introduces the concept of error analysis on the part of learners which moves in the reverse direction of cognitive comparison. In error analysis, learners first realize a difficulty in producing a particular linguistic structure and later encounter this form in target language input and compare it with their own version of it. Reformulation as a type of WCF paves the way for both cognitive comparison and error analysis since it provides learners with native speaker model of his own composition and supplies him with the corrected version of the linguistic features he used wrongly.

WCF is the provision of direct or indirect feedback to learners' written outputs. Studies investigating the efficacy of WCF have mostly employed either direct or indirect corrective feedback. Direct feedback is defined by Bitchener (2008) as 'the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure above or near the linguistic error' (p. 105). He extends his definition of direct feedback as 'crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, or the provision of the correct form or structure' (Bitchener, 2008, p. 105). Indirect corrective feedback, on the other hand, indicates to the learner that an error has occurred in a particular word or phrase, but does not provide

the learner with the correct form of this deviation. In coded feedback, for instance, the location of the error is identified and the type of error is indicated to learners by a set of pre arranged codes, for example, P means that there is an error in the use of preposition.

Among the studies that have compared direct and indirect WCF, Chandler (2003) found positive results for both direct and indirect feedback. Robb et al. (1986) and Semke (1984) reported no difference while Ferris and Helt (2000) and Lalande (1982) came up with better results for indirect feedback type. Some studies (Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) investigated the difference between different types of indirect feedback and found none of them significantly different. Some studies compared the differential effects of different types of direct feedback. Bitchener, Stuart, and Cameron (2005), for example, compared direct error correction alone and direct error correction plus meta linguistic feedback. The direct error correction plus meta linguistic explanation group excelled the error correction alone and control group in past simple and definite article, however, not for prepositions. Sheen (2007) compared the effect of error correction with written meta linguistic explanations. No between group difference was found at immediate post test but at delayed post test, written meta linguistic explanation group outperformed the error correction group.

Those in favor of direct feedback argue that both teachers and students prefer direct, explicit feedback since direct feedback unlike indirect one, does not leave students bewildered as to what the error codes used by the teacher mean. Roberts (1999) believes that with indirect feedback, students often feel that they are not provided with adequate information to figure out how complex syntactic problems should be solved. Direct feedback can also be more conducive and useful to lower proficiency learners who lack ample linguistic background to rely on to figure out the correct form (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). However, those advocating indirect feedback argue that indirect feedback engages learners in problem solving and discovery learning, therefore, helps acquisition in long term (Lalande, 1982; James, 1998).

On the other hand, the research evidence regarding the effectiveness of WCF varies for different types of errors (see Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2000). Linguistic categories, as Bitchener et. al. (2005) put it, are different because they represent different domains of knowledge which are acquired through different processes. There is ample research supporting this view (e.g., Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris & Helt, 2000; Laland, 1982). Some error categories such as verb tense, plural noun endings or the use of possessive adjectives are called treatable because they are rule governed and learners can be taught as how to use them while other types such as problems with preposition use are called

untreatable and are more difficult to teach because they are hardly rule bound and need a body of acquired knowledge on the part of the learner (see Ferris, 1999)

2.2. WCF and Conflicting Results

Up to 1996, the general consensus was in favor of the WCF and the effectiveness of error correction, however, Truscott (1996) revolted against this orthodoxy and claimed that “grammar correction has no place in writing courses and should be abandoned” (1996, p.328). Ferris (1999) objected to the idea by calling Truscott’s point pre mature. He pointed to the ways in which error correction helps at least some learners provided that it is selective, prioritized and clear. In response to Ferris (1999), Truscott (1999), accusing Ferris of misunderstanding and misrepresenting his point, argued that error correction should be abandoned as a bad idea and a futile practice until further research proves its effectiveness.

There is ample evidence (e.g., Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Bitchener, et.al., 2005; Chandler, 2003; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Sheen, 2007) documenting the effectiveness of different types of WCF such as direct or indirect correction of errors, underlining or circling the error without any comment on its correct form, meta linguistic feedback, etc. However, a number of other studies found it ineffective (e.g., Lalande, 1982; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Truscott & Hsu, 2008).

Bitchener, et. al. (2005) found that WCF, when allied with conference feedback, was more effective. However, they did not find any overall effect of WCF. In Fathman and Whalley’s (1990) study, four types of feedback were given to learners. Final results revealed that giving content and form feedback simultaneously was not more effective than giving content and form feedback separately. Robb et al. (1986) compared four different types of WCF and concluded that there is little difference among direct correction and other less direct methods regarding the improvement of learners’ accuracy or fluency. Semke (1984), likewise, compared four different types of feedback but found no difference in terms of improving accuracy. Two other studies by Lalande and Lizotte investigated the effect of error codes on improving accuracy. Lalande (1982) investigated two groups of learners by correcting the errors for one and giving correction codes for the other. He found that the group which was given corrective codes excelled the other group. Lizotte (2001) used error codes indicating the location of the error to the student to self correct. During a semester the number of errors was reduced and students gained in fluency. Cardelle and Corno (1981) reported that criticism of errors is most effective when combined with praise, that is, a combination of criticism and praise produced the best result. Lee (1997) found that students were better at correcting errors which were underlined than errors which were indicated by a

check in the margin or not marked at all. Sheen (2007) claimed that error correction is most effective when it targets a single structural feature while Sheppard (1992) found holistic error correction on meaning more effective. Truscott and Hsu (2008) compared two groups by giving one group corrective feedback by underlining learners' errors and for the other group there was no feedback provided and acted as the control group. The results indicated that the underline group was significantly more successful than the control group; one week later, students had to write a new narrative as a measure of short term learning. On this measure both groups were identical. The conclusion was that fewer errors during revision process was not indicative of learning.

2.3. Reformulation

Reformulation as a form of WCF has been employed by some researchers. It is the rewriting of the learner's composition by a native speaker or the teacher as a result of which a linguistically correct version of the student's draft is given back to him while the content of the original draft is maintained. The learner can compare his version with the reformulated one and figure out how the intended structures are supposed to be used in the target language. While reformulation suffers from some disadvantages, the most important of which is its practicality problem, it has its own advantages. Cohen (1989) believes that it provides deeper feedback for learners than simple correction of surface errors. It also provides target language structures for the given context which learners can appropriate from in similar contexts. Additionally, this type of feedback provides a "balance between focus on form and focus on meaning since it exploits both the meaning-driven and form-focused potential" (Qi & Lapkin, 2001, p. 282). As Johnson (1988; cited in Thornbury, 1997) argued, providing a model (reformulation) for the learners after the event can be more effective than providing this model beforehand, because learners can compare the model with their own version of it and fine tune and simulate their own model to the perfect model and make up for their mismatches with the model.

Allwrite, Woodley, and Allwrite (1988) found reformulation effective in assisting non native learners move nearer to native speaker norms; in their study, reformulation was followed by class discussion. They argued that class discussion which followed reformulation seemed to be more effective than the reformulation itself. Sanaoui (1984) studied the effect of reformulation on her French as second language learners. She reported positive results in a short time especially for discourse functions, markers of cohesion, syntactic structures, and overall organization. Mantello (1996) also obtained similar results with regard to reformulation in a classroom setting. Qi and Lapkin (2001), in their study on two adult

Mandarin speaking English as a second language, found that while promoting noticing in a reformulation task is important, promoting the quality of that noticing is more important in L2 writing..

In this study, however, there is an attempt to investigate the combined effect of two different types of WCF (reformulation and RU applied simultaneously) on the learners' noticing of their errors. Simard (2009) in a similar study on the effectiveness of textual enhancement in inducing the noticing of English plural markers in reading texts applied three cue (bold, capital and underline simultaneously) and five cue (italic, underlining, bold, different color, and capital simultaneously) TE formats. She was curious to find out whether enhancing a particular linguistic feature by more than one cue brings about better noticing. Her results revealed that the number of typographical cues had a differential effect on noticing and subsequent intake. Three cue and capital groups outperformed other experimental groups in post test. By analogy, in this study, we were curious to examine the combined effect of two types of WCF in triggering the learner's noticing of the deviant structures.

What makes reformulation different from other direct and indirect feedback types is that in other types such as underlining the errors, or writing the correct forms under the error, giving feedback in the margin, using different colors to mark different types of errors, etc, there is something added to the learner's original draft by the teacher, that is, there is something for the learner to pay attention to. However, in reformulation, although the learner's draft is totally revised, there is little to be paid attention to or to be noticed on the learner's part compared to other types of corrective feedback. One argument might be that, the learners do compare their own version with the reformulated one and this per se triggers comparison and subsequent noticing. However, the researchers in this study, not refuting this argument, hypothesized that if the forms that learners have used wrongly are made more salient to them in the reformulated version, reformulation can trigger more noticing and be more effective as a type of WCF. Therefore, the researchers tried to answer the following question:

Q: Is underlining learners' errors in the reformulated version more effective than the reformulation alone in improving learners' grammatical accuracy in the use of English past simple tense?

3. The study

3.1. Design

The study consisted of three groups, two experimental and one control. The experimental groups received WCF, but for the control group there was no intervention. The subjects' written productions at pretest were corrected by applying different types of WCF. For the first experimental group the subjects' compositions were reformulated by the researchers. For the second experimental group the subjects' compositions were reformulated and their errors were underlined. However for the control group there was no correction and the researchers, in order to observe the ethics of research, provided some content comments on the equality of their writings. One of the shortcomings of some of the previous researches, as discussed in literature, was that there was no control group and also that the subjects were not asked to rewrite their writings in the post test. In this study, however, there is a control group and the subjects are asked not to revise but to rewrite their compositions both at immediate and delayed post tests. The participants were required to write a 150 word essay about the topic the teacher introduced. Since the participants of this study were high elementary learners of English, the researchers decided that 150 word essay was an appropriate length for them to write and they were hardly able to write longer essays because of their proficiency limitations. The number was also chosen by analogy from IELTS's writing section, task one, where the testees should write a 150 word essay in 20 minutes. The immediate post test was administered next session and the delayed post test a month later. The analysis of the pre test revealed that the participants had some knowledge of past simple (see table1.), however, they were far from complete mastery of this tense and could not apply past simple correctly on all occasions. This was an appropriate point for intervention in order to examine if the provision of different types of WCF can improve their accuracy of the use of past simple at post tests. past simple, a treatable error category (see Ferris, 1999), was chosen because it was easier to elicit from the learners. There was no way to circumvent applying this structure when the subjects were given a topic which asked them to talk about an event in the past.

3.2. Participants

This study was conducted on high elementary EFL learners in Iran language institute (one of the oldest and most famous language centers in Iran). At pretest, the number of participants was 70 (reformulation = 26; RU = 24; control = 20). However, to the researchers' chagrin, because of dramatic absenteeism either at immediate or delayed post tests, this number finally declined to 37 (reformulation = 13; RU = 12; control = 12). In other words, only the subjects who were present at pre test, immediate and delayed post tests were included in the final analysis. The participants were all female and their age ranged between 14 and 31 (mean= 17.43 & SD = 3.01). They had been studying at this institute for one year. All three groups

were the same regarding their proficiency in English since they were all elementary level learners and had studied English for the same period of time in that institute. All students in this institute take placement test and then they are assigned to the appropriate level and in the end of each term there is an achievement test in order to let the eligible ones pass onto the next level. However, in order to verify whether all participants were the same, at least, regarding their knowledge of English past simple tense, a pretest was administered which indicated no significant between group differences.

3.3. Procedure

The teachers who were supposed to carry out this study in their classes were colleagues of one of the researchers, therefore, researchers enjoyed their warm welcome and full cooperation. The teachers were briefed as to the procedure they had to follow in order to collect data at both pre test and posttests. In the pretest, the teachers were required to ask the participants to write a 150 word composition on the topic “how did you spend your *childhood*, did you enjoy it or not, and what did you do as a child?”. The subjects’ drafts at pretest were collected and corrected by the researchers, for scoring the compositions, the number of correct uses out of incorrect uses was calculated and reported as percent of correct use of past simple and was assigned as the final score. For example, if a subject used ten past simple verbs and 5 were correct, his score would be fifty out of one hundred. The same procedure was followed for scoring the pretest and posttests. The pretest was given to three groups on the same day. The participants were asked to write an essay on the topic mentioned above. The subjects completed the essays in 20 minutes. The researchers corrected the essays as follows: For the first experimental group the whole text was reformulated and typed by the researchers. For the second experimental group, the whole text was reformulated, typed and then the subjects’ errors were underlined. For the third group which was the control group, the errors were not corrected and some comments on the content of compositions were given to subjects. The next session, the corrected papers were given back to subjects. They were given 10 minutes to reflect on their writings. after 10 minutes, the teachers in the class asked the subjects to write another 150 word essay on the topic, “ how did you spend your last *holiday*, what did you do?” the subjects were not given the same topic in order to avoid the practice effect at the immediate post test. The researchers also assumed that if subjects were required to write on the same topic in such a short time they would start complaining and there was the possibility that they could have guessed the research purpose of the task. However, the topic was especially designed to elicit the same structure, that is, past simple. The subjects wrote their compositions in 20 minutes. The researchers corrected the

compositions and calculated their scores as the immediate post test result but did not give back the subjects' compositions to them. A month after the pre test had been administered, the delayed post test was given to the subjects. This time they were asked to write on the same topic they were asked to write at pre test, since one month had past and in between they wrote on another topic (immediate post test), therefore, there was little room for practice effect or subjects' complaints. The purpose was to make sure that the subjects were reproducing the same thing they produced at pre test. In 20 minutes, the compositions were completed. The scoring procedure as was mentioned was the same for pre test, immediate post test and delayed post test. Some of the participants were absent at the immediate post test, however they were allowed to take the delayed post test. There were also some participants absent from the delayed post test. These absent participants were all excluded from the final analysis. As a result, unfortunately, the number of subjects declined almost to half.

3.4. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, in the first step, descriptive statistics was run. To ensure the normality of the distribution of the groups, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run. To examine the homogeneity of variances of the groups, the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was conducted. To see the difference of the mean scores among the three groups at pre-test, immediate post-test, delayed post-test and the difference between pre-test and immediate and delayed post-tests, a Kruskal-Wallis and one-way ANOVA tests were conducted to the data. To identify the precise location of the differences, a Scheffe's test was applied.

4. Results

In order to analyze the relevant data in this experiment, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18 was employed. The level of significance was set at 0.05. The descriptive statistics for the three groups at the pre-test, immediate post-test, delayed post-test are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the three groups at pre-test, immediate and delayed post tests

	N	Pre-test		Immediate post-test		Delayed post-test	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
RU	12	51.30	25.94	65.88	27.84	74.70	21.45
R	13	57.12	30.27	49.31	28.66	75.38	26.93
Control	12	62.33	13.31	67.33	15.84	75.11	18.77
Total	37	56.91	23.17	60.84	24.11	75.06	22.38

RU stands for Reformulation-Underline

To ensure the normality of the distribution of the three groups at pre-test, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run. The results revealed that the three groups enjoyed the normal distribution of scores at pre-test. To examine the homogeneity of variances of the three groups, the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was conducted. The results indicated that the three groups did not enjoy homogenous variances ($F(2, 34) = 7.468, p < .05$). Therefore, the researchers decided to use non-parametric statistics. In doing so, to compare the mean scores of the three groups at the pre-test, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. As Table 3 displays, the highest ranking was for the Reformulation group at 20.00; then there was 19.79 for the Control group, and 17.13 for the Reformulation-Underline group (see Table 2).

Table 2. The ranks for the three groups at pre-test

	Group	N	Mean Rank
Pre-test	Control	12	19.79
	R	13	20.00
	RU	12	17.13
	Total	37	

Table 3 shows a chi-square statistic that has a probability of $p = .765$ at 2 degrees of freedom. Consequently, it was concluded that there weren't statistical differences between the three groups at pre-test.

Table 3. Test Statistics for the three groups at pre-test

	Pre-test
Chi-square	.536
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.765

At the immediate post-test, the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that there was a normal distribution of scores in each group. To check the homogeneity of variances of the three groups, the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was applied. The results indicated that the three groups enjoyed homogenous variances ($F(2, 34) = 2.884, p > .05$). Accordingly, to compare the mean scores of the three groups at immediate post-test, a one-way ANOVA was run. The F -observed value and p -value were 2.038 and .146, respectively. This amount of F -value at 2 and 34 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of F and p -value was higher than the significance level of .05 (see Table 4):

Table 4. One-Way ANOVA on the three groups at immediate post-test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2535.315	2	1267.658	2.038	.146
Within Groups	21149.419	34	622.042		
Total	23684.734	36			

Therefore, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups at immediate post-test ($F(2, 34) = 2.038, p > .05$). To investigate the impact of the different types of WCF on the improvement of the accuracy of the use of past simple more precisely, the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test was calculated and the related statistical analyses were conducted to them. The descriptive statistics for the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test for the three groups are illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	12	-16.67	33.34	4.99	15.38
R	13	-38.09	25.27	-7.81	18.57
RU	12	-18.42	57.48	14.58	21.75
Total	37	-38.09	57.48	3.60	20.48

The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that there was a normal distribution of the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test in each group. The Levene's test of homogeneity of variance also showed that the three groups enjoyed homogenous variances ($F(2, 34) = 1.094, p > .05$). Accordingly, to compare the mean scores of the difference of the scores at pre-test and immediate post-test for the three groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. As Table 7 displays, The F -observed value was 4.499. This amount of F -value at 2 and 34 degrees of freedom was higher than the critical value of F (see Table 6).

Table 6. One-Way ANOVA on the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3162.852	2	1581.426	4.499	.018
Within Groups	11949.966	34	351.470		
Total	15112.818	36			

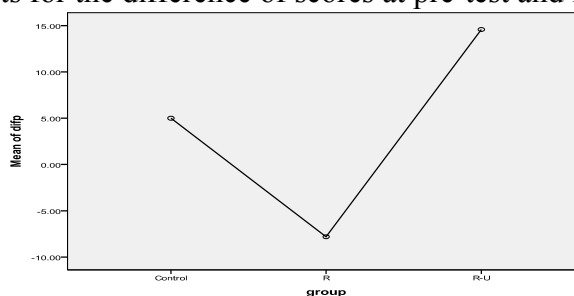
Hence, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the difference at pre-test and immediate post-test for the three groups ($F(2, 34) = 4.499, p < .05$). The effect size, calculated via eta squared, was found to be 0.20. This magnitude points out the degree of connection between the dependent (the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test) and independent (the different types of WCF) variable, which is a large size (Dornyei, 2007). To locate the exact place of differences, a Scheffe's test was utilized. The results indicated that, at the level of 0.05, there was significant difference between the Reformulation and Reformulation-Underline groups (see Table 7).

Table 7. Scheffe's test for the comparison of difference of mean scores at pre-test and immediate post-test for the three groups

(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	R	12.80833	7.50502	.274	-6.4019	32.0185
	RU	-9.58250	7.65364	.465	-29.1731	10.0081
R	Control	-12.80833	7.50502	.274	-32.0185	6.4019
	RU	-22.39083*	7.50502	.019	-41.6010	-3.1806
RU	Control	9.58250	7.65364	.465	-10.0081	29.1731
	R	22.39083*	7.50502	.019	3.1806	41.6010

Figure 1 shows the mean scores of the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test.

Figure 1. Mean Plots for the difference of scores at pre-test and immediate post-test



At delayed post-test, the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated that there was a normal distribution of scores in each group. The results of Levene's test of homogeneity of variance, also, indicated that the three groups enjoyed homogenous variances ($F(2, 34) = .529, p > .05$). To compare the mean scores of the three groups at delayed post-test, a one-way ANOVA was run. The F -observed value and p -value were .003 and .997, respectively. This amount of F -value at 2 and 34 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of F and p -value was higher than the significance level of .05 (see Table 8):

Table 8. One-Way ANOVA on the three groups at delayed post-test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.868	2	1.434	.003	.997
Within Groups	17640.800	34	518.847		
Total	17643.668	36			

Therefore, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups at delayed post-test ($F(2, 34) = .003, p > .05$). Figure 3 shows the mean scores of the three groups at the delayed post-test. The difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test was also calculated and the related statistical analyses were run. The

descriptive statistics for the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test for the three groups are illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9. Descriptive statistics for the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	12	-15.00	43.43	12.77	18.96
R	13	-2.38	56.67	18.26	17.19
RU	12	-10.09	60.14	23.40	21.18
Total	37	-15.00	60.14	18.14	19.08

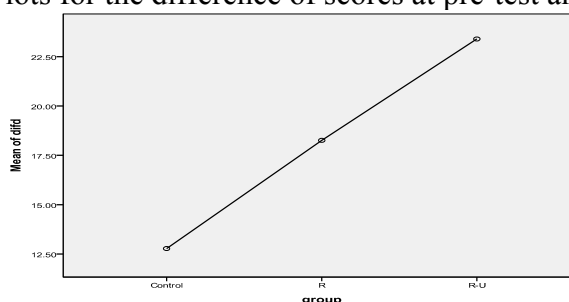
The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that there was a normal distribution of the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test in each group. The Levene's test of homogeneity of variance also showed that the three groups enjoyed homogenous variances ($F(2, 34) = .547, p > .05$). To compare the mean scores of the difference of the scores at pre-test and delayed post-test for the three groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The F -observed value and p -value were .926 and .406, respectively. This amount of F -value at 2 and 34 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of F (i.e., 19.46) and p -value was higher than the significance level of .05 (see Table 12):

Table 12. One-Way ANOVA on the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	677.275	2	338.637	.926	.406
Within Groups	12437.733	34	365.816		
Total	13115.008	36			

Thus, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test for the three groups ($F(2, 34) = .926, p > .05$). Figure 2 shows the mean scores of the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test.

Figure 2. Mean Plots for the difference of scores at pre-test and delayed post-test



5. Discussion

This study was embarked on in order to investigate the differential effect of the new type of WCF devised by the researchers of this study. The results indicated that the WCF was effective in bringing about improved accuracy in the use of past simple in short term, that is,

at the immediate post test but not in long run, that is, at the delayed post test. The RU group's mean score, at immediate post test, was significantly higher than that of the reformulation group but this mean score was not significantly different from the mean score of the control group. At the delayed post test there was no significant difference observed among three groups' mean scores. In other words, the type of WCF was ineffective in bringing about the increased accuracy in the use of past simple at delayed post test. The results of the present study back Truscott's (1996) position in that WCF is ineffective. The findings confirm the findings of some studies such as Lalande (1982), Robb et al. (1986), Semke (1984) and Truscott and Hsu (2008).

The reformulation group's performance deteriorated from pretest to the immediate post test with the mean score of (pre-test: 57.12; immediate post-test: 49.31). In Bitchener, et al.'s (2005) study, likewise, there was not a consistent, upward pattern of improvement on different occasions and the performance of subjects sometimes declined on later occasions. Truscott (1996) explains this by claiming that WCF is not only ineffective but harmful. Semke (1984) and Sheppards (1992) also found error correction not only ineffective but harmful to the learning process. Our result for the performance of the reformulation group at immediate post test in this study might be a confirmation of these findings; however, this does not seem to be the case since the difference is insignificant. However, the reason why the mean score of the reformulation group declined at immediate post test is, as previous research (Ellis, 1994; Lightbown & Spada, 1999) reveals, the fact that learners do not always perform consistently in the process of learning linguistic features, they perform correctly on one occasion but fail to do so on another similar occasion in future. Sociocultural studies (Coughlan & Duff, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994) have also shown that an individual's performance on the same task, as a result of the individual's situational and task factors, might be different on similar occasions.

Regarding the delayed post test, WCF proved ineffective at improving the accuracy of learners' use of past simple tense. There was no significant difference among the three groups at the delayed post test, though, the mean of the three groups improved. Neither reformulation nor RU feedback types were able to improve learners' accuracy over the use of past simple at delayed post test significantly. The findings endorse the findings of Truscott and Hsu's (2008) study in which the number of errors decreased in the revision task but at the post-test a week later, there was no significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

According to the results of the study, there is an ascending trend from pretest to delayed post test in the mean scores of the three groups (see table.1). This increase, though insignificant, should not be interpreted as being the result of the effect of WCF since this increase has also happened for the control group which only received content comments. In Semke's (1984) study, the group which received content comments significantly outperformed the groups that received corrective feedback. She claimed that content comment is more effective than WCF, however, in this study, this does not seem to be the case since all three groups had an ascending trend from pre-test to delayed post-test and this did not happen for control group only. The major reason behind this seems to be the fact that since this study was conducted over time and in three phases, that is pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test, subjects experienced a practice effect; although, they were not told that they would write another similar composition in future neither at pre-test nor at immediate post-test. The same topic was also avoided at immediate post-test in order to thwart the practice effect. It seems that, as a result of this pushed output (Swain, 1985), subjects grew more aware of their deficiencies in expressing themselves with past simple, regardless of the corrective feedback they received. They might have experienced difficulty at relating their past activities. As a result of this pushed output, subjects might have realized their loopholes and have grown more attentive to past simple in future input either in their textbooks or the teacher talk. In simpler term, it is not the type of feedback that brought about better performance at delayed post-test since the control group experienced the same improvement. It seem that asking subjects to write about a topic which makes them use past simple, a structure over which they do not have full command, twice in a row, that is, pre test and immediate post test, made them more aware of their deficiencies regarding the correct use of this structure and made them feel the need for learning and discerning this feature in the future input more easily and more attentively. We reckon that studies that study the effect of WCF over time are prone to the same loophole.

As figure 2 shows, the difference of scores from pre-test to delayed post-test is very high for the RU group. It means that this group's performance over the accurate use of the target structure of this study has improved to a considerable degree. The difference, although insignificant, seems to suggest that this type of feedback was effective in improving learners' accuracy over the use of past simple in long run. However, another explanation for this difference can be the fact that since this type of feedback was new to participants and they had never encountered such a feedback on their compositions before, it made them pay more attention to their errors which were underlined. Subjects might have felt that the teacher was

really serious about correcting their papers since she exerted a good deal of effort correcting, reformulating and underlining their compositions which is almost a huge undertaking on a teacher's part and signifies the sense of responsibility and caring the teacher feels for her students. This fact might have brought about a sense of mutual responsibility and may be some fear in learners which has contributed to their paying attention to their errors in future input.

6. Conclusion

An incessant debate over the (non) efficacy of WCF has emerged since Truscott (1996) mounted a case calling for the extermination of grammar correction. However, after a decade and half, there is still no harbinger of a unanimous settlement on the issue. This can be in part due to the various, and at times, inappropriate research designs (Ferris, 2004) or not testing WCF's efficacy over time (Bitchener, 2008). In this article, there was an attempt to expunge this design predicament, as much as possible, by incorporating a control group and also asking the participants to do rewriting and not a revision task in the post tests. There was also an attempt to introduce a delayed post test into the study in order to investigate the effect of WCF over time. The results revealed that the type of feedback provided, produced differential effect at immediate but not at delayed post test. The conclusion was that the type of feedback might produce short term improvement but does not bring about long term learning.

In L1, as well, there are some studies, for example, Knoblauch and Brannon (1981) and Hillocks (1986, cited in Truscott, 1996) which found that correction had little effect on the improvement of student's writing ability. Regarding L2, a couple of studies (Krashen, 1992; Leki, 1990) have reviewed the evidence and declared that corrective feedback is ineffective. On the other hand, there are some studies which found corrective feedback to be conducive to learning (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Bitchener, et. al., 2005; Chandler, 2003; Hartshorn, 2008; Sachs & Polio, 2007). However, the findings of these studies are open to discussion since, in addition to design issues, most of these studies suffered from, the learning they reported might have been superficial. In the light of acquisition/learning dichotomy, this learning, even if it happened, might have brought about conscious knowledge of rules by which learners embodied a better performance at post-test and was not integrated into learners' mushrooming interlanguage system. Truscott (1996) calls this learning pseudolearning and claims it is of no value and will be forgotten since whatever is learned is discrete pieces of knowledge. Nor can this knowledge be in the service of editing process in

writing, he believes, since “editing actually depends far more on intuitions of well-formedness coming from the unconscious language system than on metalinguistic knowledge of points of grammar” (p. 347). However, whether this knowledge can change into implicit, intuitive knowledge in long run should be subject to further research.

The typical correction view of WCF in most of the studies has considered learning in a very superficial and simplistic manner. The assumption is that learners will see the corrected form and compare it with their own wrongly used form and then will learn it and apply it in future. However, there are some theoretical problems here. The development of interlanguage is a far more complicated process, it is a gradual process and not a sudden discovery (Long, 1991). On the other hand, the failure of corrective feedback in some studies might be due to this mismatch between learners’ developmental stage and the feedback offered to them for which they might not be at the right stage to take in. Therefore, one argument can be that WCF might be effective if the developmental sequences in learning are taken into account (Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974). There is a need for further research to study the efficacy of WCF in the light of the studies on developmental sequences.

The implication for writing classes is that error correction should be suspended as long as there is some new evidence suggestive of its usefulness. Error correction, in addition to theoretical problems mentioned above, suffers from practical predicaments such as waste of valuable class time on composition writing and valuable teacher time on correcting these compositions. Another problem is the tension error correction might produce, for example when a student sees multitude of red marks on her paper. In addition, three studies (Semke, 1984; Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992) found error correction harmful. It should be conceded that refraining from correcting composition errors is so difficult to accept for language teachers since it has been an integral part of many language teaching and learning classes for long. However, in the light of research findings, teachers had better resist the temptation to correct students’ errors and students are advised to suppress the desire for their errors to be corrected until further research evidence proves its usefulness. There is also further need for the studies which examine the efficacy of corrective feedback over longer time spans, for example, a semester or a year. This might produce deeper insights over the role of WCF in learning the structural features. Further research should also examine the differential effect of different types of WCF over different linguistic structures with different proficiency levels.

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Title

The Effect of Cooperative Student-Generated Questions on Their Achievements

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Abstract

The classes are sometimes the sites of passive sitters unwilling to ask than to answer. Teachers are considered angels of knowing, with the divine responsibility of transforming knowledge to the brain banks of the students rather than being a participant with their pupils. This study has raised the issue of cooperative student-generated questions as an active alternative to engage students in their own learning and diminish their anxiety about examination. It was also found that cooperative student-made questions can be a teaching tool for the enhancement of pupils' deeper understanding. Cooperative student generated questions revealed to foster students' independence and confidence for being successful in test making as well as test-taking. Moreover, the study proved that cooperative student made questions is a really rewarding classroom technique improving critical and higher order thinking skills.

Keywords: student-generated questions; cooperative learning; test anxiety

1. Introduction

It is believed that cooperative learning and student-generated questions can be a good pedagogical tool through which students preview and sharpen their thinking, view and analyze the materials and finally review the covered materials by raising deeper questions (Brown, 2002; Backman, 2002; Shohamy, 2002). More important than asking questions by teachers is the questions generated by the students (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000;

Allmond, 2010). Gunning (2000, p.230) also believes in questions generated by students as an affective strategy transforming the students into an active participant and hence decreasing their fear about test-taking.

Ioney, J. & Carter, S. (2006) assert that the questions generated by learners allow them to take responsibility for their own learning turning them into independent learners. Questions raised by the students can be an indicator of their problems (Maskill and Pedrosa de Jesus 1997) or an alternative assessment tool (Chin, 2002) or even an indication of the difficulty of asking abstract questions (Olsher and Dreyfus, 1999).

Many authors have emphasized on the role of student-made questions (Aliakbari, 2006, Chin, 2002). The present study investigates the relationship between cooperative student-made questions and learners' achievement. The author argues that cooperative test-making procedure has the effect of wash back on teaching as well as test coaching for final exam. He also believes that by coaching students write questions, one of the thorny issues of education in level one of high school will be solved-students failure in this grade.

Student-generated questions assess three aspects of student learning. First teachers see what their students consider the most important and memorable content (Chin 2002). Second teachers observe what the learners understand as fair and useful test questions (Dori & Herscovitz, 1999) which can be addressed to solve the raised problem and third, how well they can answer the questions they have posed. (Maskill & Pedrosa deJesus, 1997). By generating test questions students can learn what aspects of the course they understand and what aspects they do not (Elstgeest, 1985). It can also help avoid unpleasant surprises. Students begin to prepare, in useful ways, for the upcoming test by suggesting test questions (Murphey, 1992).

2. Literature Review

2.1. Student-generated questions

Lionel M. Kaufman, (2000) believes that turning the test taker into a test maker can transform the process into an exciting game, which involves both the teacher and the students. Lionel further restates that asking students write their own questions help them to internalize the materials through their own creative involvement.

Numerous studies of student-centered approaches to testing have appeared recently in the second language literature (Kaufman, 2000). In some experiments teachers and

students cooperatively plan and write tests (Murphy, 1991). Further, Murphy (1993) found that one of the most productive alternative assessment devices is the active participation of the students in the test construction process. Murphy also believes that cooperative test making activity motivates the students intrinsically, and stimulates review and integration.

Pizzini (1991), Chin (2002) and Dori & Herscovitz (1999) all agree that student questioning is an important part of problem solving for higher cognitive levels. It is also believed that student-generated questions guide teachers in their help and how the students have related the teachers' explanation to their prior knowledge (Chin 2002; Watts, Could & Alsop 1997, 1992). Students questions may also portray their thinking and conceptual understanding (Maskill & Perdrosa de Jesus 1997). Elstageest (1985) elaborates that students' questions reveals their reasoning. Osborne and Wittrock (1985) relate the idea of student questioning to cognitive and meta-cognitive and also generative learning as mentioned before promoting prior knowledge. Brown and Chin (2000) state that student questions is a generative activity initiating a process of hypothesizing, predicting, thought experimenting and explaining related to critical thinking skills.

Kaufman (2001) believes that students' test-writing process is very useful at two levels. First, for second language learners and second language novice teachers or teacher trainees who are preparing for similar task in the future.

Chin (2002) concluded that by the application of student-generated examination, students were able to study the target structures in greater depth and in a comparative context. Nevertheless, performing the procedure before within or after the teaching process is of challenging issues (Aliakbari, 2006). Some scholars have done momentum questioning; asking students to write questions after each phase of teaching which can highlight learners' future needs (Maskill and Pedrosa de Jesus (1997). Besides, Chin (2002) regards the student generated questions as windows to their minds. Chin also believes that the questions which are asked before teaching can be a springboard for discussion.

Dr. Shohamy (2002) strongly accepts the idea and encourages its' pursuing by the researcher. She believes that this is a purely original topic. Kunnan, Judy Kempt, Brian Lynch, Mary Christianson and Fred Davidson (2002), all agree on student cooperation in test making though they believe that there is no research being done exactly related to this project (at the time of personal correspondence—2002).

It is all agreed that question-making should not be left to chance rather it should be modeled and taught with regard to its linguistic and syntactic aspects (White, 1977, King 1994; Harvey and Goudvis, 2000; Tabaoda & Guthrie, 2006).

Beside the above mentioned values of student-generated questions, Allmond (2010) stresses the limitation of student forming questions resembling those of the traditional word problems.

Again it must be said that questions generated by the students are invaluable (Dillon, 1988); nevertheless, White and Gunstone (1992) as well as Chin (2002) state that few students ask high quality thinking questions. Tisher (1977) has found a correlation between low quality questions and explanation with lower achievement. In this regard Watts and Alsop (1995) further state that student-generated questions are significance of students' thinking and their frame of reference.

3. Methodology

3.1. Subjects

The subjects of this study were 65 male students from two classes at grade one of high school. To confirm groups' homogeneity a pre-test was administered. Having been selected based on their grades in the pretest, there were 33 learners in the experimental and 32 subjects in the control group. After applying the t-test, it was found that no groups had any special superiority over the other as far as their language ability was concerned. The subjects were aged between 13 and 15 who entered grade one of high school in Bojnourd (North Khorasan province: northeastern part of Islamic Republic of Iran). Both groups had the same teacher, and were from the same school. At the post-test two students did not take part in the final exam.

3.2. Materials

3.2.1. Course book

English book one at high school was the main material for teaching and working. This book was published by the ministry of education in 1381 (2002). It had 9 lessons and 130 pages. Just the first five lessons were studied for this project. The specification of the book is given in table below:

<i>Text readability</i>	<i>pronunciation</i>	<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Grammar</i>	<i>Title of Reading Text</i>	<i>Lesson</i>
10.80	<i>lail</i>	On the phonel introducing	Could !had to	The Kindergarten man	1
8.55	<i>I w: I</i>	Finding out about people	It! Should	The Funny Farmhand	2
18.28	<i>I ^ I</i>	Ask about family	<i>As...asl er.. .than!</i>	A Story about Newton	3

10.66	<i>/l/ & /fl:/</i>	Granting a request	... est! bad/many Igc	The School Bus	4
14.4	<i>/u/ & /u:/</i>	Identification by appearance	Word order	earn a Foreign Language	5

3.2.2. Test

In order to make a valid test for the pre and post tests, the researcher first constructed 100 multiple choice items and administered it at grade two of High-school. This test was correlated with Movers Reading & Writing. Then out of 100 items in the pilot study, 50 items were left for the pre and post test of this study. The reliability of this test was computed through (KR-21) formula.

3.2.3. Movers Reading & Writing Test

The scores on this test were used as a criterion test to be correlated with the researcher's constructed test. Spearman Correlation Coefficient formula was used and the observed correlation was 0.419 which exceeded the critical value 0.2500. Therefore, the researcher-designed test enjoyed a high validity. This test, also, had a reliability of 0.78.

3.2.4. Quizzes

There were six quizzes during this course, which were used as progressive achievement tests. Each quiz contained 10 questions. These tests were used as a testing tool for assessing learners' achievement and as an input for test analysis in experimental group. The subjects mean is represented in the following table

Quiz 6	Quiz5	Quiz 4	Quiz3	Quiz 2	Quiz 1	Groups
6.89	6.75	6.38	4.78	5	5.23	Experimental's mean
5	5	5.5	4.75	5.44	5.25	Control's mean

3.2.5. Procedures

To carry out the project certain steps were taken. First, two groups of students entering level one of high school were randomly selected. One of the groups' served as the experimental one (33 subjects), and the other group (32 subjects) served as the control one.

Second, a pre-test was administered in order to capture the initial difference between the groups. After selecting the intended groups, the teacher started introducing and working on cooperative student-made questions. For the first session of the experiment, the teacher explained the process of test-making and divided the students into groups of three. The class time was 90 minutes, out of which the teacher taught for one hour and for the remaining 30 minutes, he asked the students to work cooperatively making questions. In the first session, the procedure, and some questions were exemplified and sample tests were given, to help the students know what they were supposed to do. Moreover, in order to win subjects' contribution and to motivate them, the teacher provided them with letter grades for their appropriate questions and answers: perfect active group received "A", less

active one got "B", and not active ones received C". Besides, the students sat for a quiz which was prepared by the teacher every 3 sessions. The students discussed and corrected these quizzes.

For the tests and the quizzes, the teacher himself corrected their papers.

There was no cooperative work, so they worked on writing exercises and tasks individually.

4. Data Analysis

Although the means made the point clear that the two groups were almost the same, they were not relied on completely. Therefore, a t-test was used to compare the means. The results are shown in Table below.

The Results of the Pre-test

<i>t-critical</i>	<i>t-observed</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>N.</i>	<i>Groups</i>
			11.29	33	Ex.
2.000	0.006	63	9.20	32	Con.

The results indicated that the t-observed was much lower than the t-critical. Therefore, it can be safely asserted that the two groups were from the same level of language ability. Hence, this indication confirms the groups' homogeneity and similarity.

The instruction period lasted for 20 sessions. After the treatment, the post-test was given to the students. To find the answer to the question of this study, that is to say, "is there any relationship between cooperative student-generated questions and their achievement?" the means of the two groups were compared using t-test formula. The results of the post-test are presented in table below.

The Results of the post test

<i>t-critical</i>	<i>t-observed</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>X</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Groups</i>
			5.21	32.18	32	Ex.
2.000	4.28	61	6.57	25.80	31	Con.

The results in this stage revealed meaningful difference between the experimental and control group. In other words, the difference between the two groups was significant after the application of the treatment.

5. Conclusion

Pedagogically, it is evident that such investigations are necessary for an understanding of the issues regarding how to enhance second language learning through cooperation- especially cooperative student-made questions.

The findings of this study may have important consequences in the field of language

teaching and learning. The results of this study may help educators and L2 curriculum developers, program planners, and text book writers to reconsider the role of classroom Assessment technique-and most importantly cooperative student-made question as a pedagogical tool in education realm (Bachman, 2002).

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Title

On the Relationship between Linguistic Intelligence and Vocabulary Knowledge among Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study aimed at identifying the relationship between one of the salient intelligences of multiple intelligences, MI, (based on Gardner's nine domains), Linguistic Intelligence, and Vocabulary Learning Knowledge (Receptive Breadth of Vocabulary) among Iranian EFL learners. After choosing the appropriate level of the learners as the advanced ones, 66 junior students from Shiraz Azad University and Shiraz State University remained to sake this purpose. Two instruments were used

including: Linguistic Intelligence tests which was a part of Nail's MI questionnaire (2001), and the Nation's Level Tests (2001). The obtained data were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics and the following analysis were run on the data: Choosing the appropriate level of the learners at 90% rate, Pearson Correlation Coefficient, Standard Multiple Regression, and Stepwise Multiple Regression

Keywords: Vocabulary learning knowledge, vocabulary breadth, Multiple intelligences, Linguistic intelligence

1. Introduction

The learner brings to the language learning situation a wide spectrum of individual differences that influences the learning rate and the ultimate learning results. Although there are many ways in which learners can vary (in terms of age, gender, learning styles, and motivation), intelligence is often thought to be one of the most significant predictors of language learning success (GU, 2003).

'General Ability' (g) is general intelligence factor that governs performance on all cognitive tasks. Spearman (1927) called this a kind of 'mental energy' that underlined the specific factors and controlled performance on all mental tasks.

Gardner (1983a) advanced a controversial theory of intelligence that blew a part the traditional thoughts of IQ. According to Gardner (1983) children are different; they come to us with different skills, abilities, personalities, and ways of doing things and with different exposures to oral or written language. These types of intelligences or differences when recognized in schools boost students' self-esteem by simply calling attention to their talents. Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory seemed to say that a child who performed poorly in math and reading had just as a great chance as anyone else being successful in music, art, physical education, or even geography; everyone could be smart in some way.

Gardner (1983) introduced Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory in his book, *Frames of mind*, in which he described seven different forms of knowing, which was a much more comprehensive picture of intelligence.

1. Linguistic Intelligence
2. Logical-Mathematical Intelligence
3. Spatial Intelligence
4. Bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence
5. Rhythmic Intelligence

6. Intrapersonal Intelligence

7. Interpersonal Intelligence

Then, in 1997 Gardner added an eighth intelligence type to the list, that of ‘Naturalist Intelligence’, and two years later he introduced a ninth type ‘Existential Intelligence’. According to Gardner (1999) Linguistic Intelligence is defined as the following:

1. A deep understanding of words and sensitivity to the literal and figurative meanings of words
2. Highly developed oral and written communication skills
3. Knowledge of grammar rules and when it is appropriate to disregard those rules
4. Sensitivity to the musical qualities and rhythms of words
5. Knowledge of many different uses for language, such as persuasion, information, or pleasure

1.1 Multiple Intelligences and Basic Criteria

Gardner (1993) developed a set of criteria to determine what set of skills make up an intelligence. These criteria are based on biological foundations, logical analysis, psychometrics and psychological aspects of intelligence. Here, the key points of Gardner’s theory are listed:

1. Potential isolation as a brain function/ potential isolation by brain damage
2. Prodigies, savants, and other exceptional individuals
3. An identifiable core operation or set of operations
4. A distinctive developmental history, along with a definable set of expert ‘end state’ performances
5. An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility
6. Support from experimental psychological tasks
7. Support from psychometric findings
8. Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system

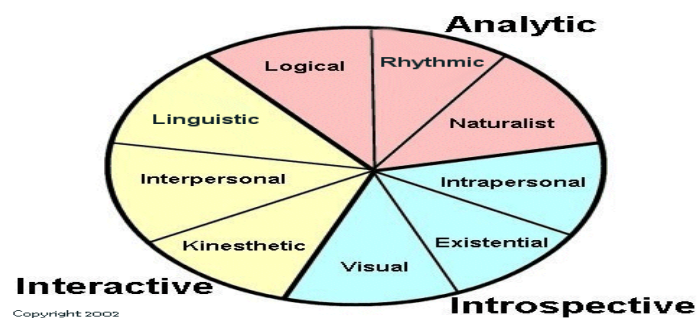


Figure 1 Multiple Intelligences Domains (McKenzie, 2002)

1.2 Multiple Intelligences Domains

Multiple Intelligences consist of three domains: The analytical, introspective, and interactive domains. These three domains serve as an organizer for understanding the relationship of the intelligences and how the intelligences work with each other (McKenzie, 2002).

1.2.1 The Analytical Domain

The analytical domain consists of the logical, musical, and naturalist intelligences. These three intelligences are considered analytic because they promote the processes of analyzing and incorporating data into existing schema. The analytical intelligences are by their nature heuristic processes (McKenzie, 2002).

1.2.2 The Interactive Domain

The interactive domain consists of the linguistic, interpersonal and kinesthetic intelligences. These are the intelligences that learners typically employ to express themselves and explore their environment. These three intelligences are regarded as interactive because, they typically invite and encourage interaction to achieve understanding. The interactive intelligences are by their nature social processes.

1.2.3 The Introspective Domain

The introspective domain consists of existential, intrapersonal, and visual intelligences. These intelligences are characterized as introspective, because they require a looking inward by the learner, an emotive connection to their own experiences and beliefs, in order to make sense of new learning. These intelligences are by their nature affective processes (McKenzie, 2002).

1.3 Gardner's Categories of Intelligence

Gardner (1983) suggested that all individuals have personal intelligence profiles that consist of a combination of several different intelligence types.

1.3.1 Visual/ Spatial Intelligence (Picture Smart)

Gardner (1983) identified visual intelligence as the ability to think in images or pictures and visualize objects from different dimensions. Both the ability to perceive (e.g., noticing lines, angles, distances) as well as the ability to produce (e.g., drawing, painting) are indicative of spatial intelligence, although spatially intelligent individuals may not demonstrate both equally.

1.3.2 Musical/ Rhythmic Intelligence (Music Lover)

Musical talent is apparent at early ages. With great rehearsal, a deep understanding may be acquired. It is suggested that musical intelligence was parallel in structure to linguistic intelligence, and it would be reflected in the performance, composition, and appreciation of

musical patterns. Those who have a high level of musical intelligence are sensitive to nonverbal sounds of the environment and sounds of the nature (Gardner, 1999).

1.3.3 Bodily/ Kinesthetic Intelligence (Mover)

This intelligence is described as the potential of using the whole body or parts of the body in problem-solving or the creation of products. Gardner (1999) identified not only dancers, actors, and athletes as those who excel in bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, but also crafts people, surgeons, mechanics, and other technicians.

1.3.4 Naturalist Intelligence (Nature Lover)

This is a phenomenon illustrated by noting patterns as well as drawing connections between natural elements. From an early age, individuals with high levels of naturalistic intelligence possess a sharp sense of environmental awareness and therefore likely to notice every subtle changes in their surroundings (Wilson, 1998). These individuals may simply like to work with and make distinctions between natural objects.

1.3.5 Logical/ Mathematical Intelligence (Number Smart)

Gardner (1999) described logical/ mathematical intelligence as the ability to think and to analyze problems logically, to carry out mathematical operations analytically, and to conduct scientific investigations, as well as to understand logical patterns, categories, cause and effect relationship in the world and to use inductive and deductive reasoning.

1.3.6 Existential Intelligence

Gardner (1999) considered existential intelligence as the ability to understand in a large context or a big picture. It is the ability to tackle deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why we die, what is my role in the world. This intelligence seeks connections to real world and allows learners to see their place in the big picture, see their role in the classroom, society and the world or universe.

1.3.7 Linguistic/ Verbal Intelligence (Word Smart)

Gardner (1983) described Linguistic Intelligence as sensitivity to spoken and written language, and the ability to use language to accomplish goals, as well as the ability to learn new languages. Lawyers, public speakers, writers, and poets all possess high levels of Linguistic Intelligence. Young children with this ability often demand story after story around bedtime. When they enter school, they have highly developed verbal skills, enjoy developing rhymes, and often pun. They like oral and silent reading exercises, creative writing, and telling complicated jokes. Adolescents know a lot of vocabularies, and most of the time they read a lot of books.

1.3.8 Intrapersonal Intelligence (Self Understanding)

Gardner (1999) defined intrapersonal intelligence as intelligence of feelings, values and attitudes. Having an understanding of yourself, of knowing who you are, what you can do, and where you are. People with intrapersonal intelligence have a realistic sense of their own strengths, weaknesses, moods, goals, and motivations. They can monitor their thoughts, feelings and control them effectively, and they are self-motivated. They usually concentrate on the subject by themselves. Generally, they are introverts and they learn best through observing and listening.

1.3.9 Interpersonal Intelligence (Social Skill)

According to Gardner (1983), an individual who is high in Interpersonal Intelligence understands the intentions, motivations, needs, and desires of others, and is capable of working effectively with them. Interpersonal individuals are usually extroverts. They recognize differences among people and empathize easily with others, care about other people and interact with them effectively. They are also, sensitive to facial expressions, gestures, voices, and value their point of view with sensitivity to their motives, moods and intentions. They always get along with others and able to maintain good relationships with people among families and friends.

Table 1 Summary of the Multiple Intelligences

Intelligence	Examples	Discussion
Bodily/Kinesthetic	Dancers, athletes, surgeons, crafts people	The ability to use one's physical body well.
Interpersonal	Sales people, teachers, clinicians, politicians, religious leaders	The ability to sense other's feelings and be in tune with others.
Intrapersonal	People who have good insight into themselves and make effective use of their other intelligences	Self-awareness. The ability to know your own body and mind.
Linguistic	Poets, writers, orators, communicators	The ability to communicate well, perhaps both orally and in writing, perhaps in several languages.
Logical/Mathematical	Mathematicians, composers	The ability to learn higher mathematics. The ability to handle complex logical arguments.
	Musicians, composers	The ability to learn. Perform, and

Musical		compose music.
Naturalistic	Biologists, naturalists	The ability to understand different species, recognize patterns in nature, classify natural objects.
Spatial	Sailors navigating without modern navigational aids, surgeons, sculptors, painters	The ability to know where you are relative to fixed locations. The ability to accomplish tasks requiring three-dimensional visualization and placement of your hands or other parts of your body.

1.4 Vocabulary

Nobody can ignore the critical role of vocabulary, the extent of one's knowledge of word meaning, in language learning. Vocabulary has been increasingly recognized as essential to language use. Inadequate vocabulary can lead to learner difficulties in language reception and production, vocabulary is central to language (Zimmerman, 1997).

Vocabulary acquisition is one of the significant issues which has received great importance in recent years. Effective language vocabulary acquisition is particularly important for English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners. According to Seal cited in Celce-Murica (1991, p. 296), 'words are perceived as the building blocks upon which knowledge of the second language can be built'.

1.4.1 Vocabulary Knowledge

Over the years, in order to state what it means by knowing a word, second language (L2) vocabulary researchers have proposed various but complementary frameworks. In these frameworks, for example, (Richards, 1976; Wesche and Paribakht, 1996; Henriksen, 1999; Qian, 1999), it is pointed out that there is a general agreement that vocabulary knowledge should be regarded as 'multi-dimensional construct, rather than a single dimensional one'. They stated that vocabulary knowledge at least contains two dimensions, namely vocabulary breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge.

1.4.2 Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge

Qian (1999, 2004) defines depth of vocabulary knowledge as a learner's level of knowledge of various aspects of a given word including phonemic, graphemic, morphemic, or the derivation, and compounding of a word, syntactic, semantic, phraseological properties, and

knowledge of collocation means the awareness of combination of special words together, and frequency which means how common the word is, and register as formal or colloquial words.

1.4.3 Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge

According to Qian (1999, p. 283), 'Breadth of vocabulary knowledge is defined as vocabulary size, or the number of words for which a learner has at least some minimum knowledge of meaning'.

In other words, breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the number of words learners know, and depth of vocabulary knowledge has to do with how well learners know a word.

2. Statement of the Problem

In line with the points mentioned in the preceding part, it is hoped that teachers become more aware of the differences among students, and they teach materials in different ways. In this case, students will have more opportunities to learn and to understand the materials being thought. If they do not comprehend them in one way, they might comprehend the lessons in other ways. Thus, their achievement is likely to improve. Teaching materials in a variety of ways enables students to make most of their intellectual strengths and even to work forward correcting or at least compensating for their weakness.

3. Significance of the Study

The result of the study will be useful for both EFL and ESL learners and teachers. Intelligence has provided us with the opportunities to look differently at curriculum, instruction, and assessment. This study provides a useful contribution to our understanding of teaching English as a foreign language. In particular, findings will benefit the work of classroom teachers in Iranian schools who are responsible for providing effective English-learning pedagogy for students. Additionally, findings of this study will benefit the authorities' work in the ministry of Education in Iran, who develop educational policy and provide English-learning curriculum.

4. Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the present study is to investigate whether there is any relationship between Linguistic Intelligence, and Vocabulary Knowledge among Iranian EFL learners. Based on the objective, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between Linguistic Intelligence and vocabulary knowledge in Iranian EFL learners?
2. Can Linguistic Intelligence be a good predictor for vocabulary knowledge?

5. Method

This study was correlational in nature. The data gathered through the two instruments was to investigate the relationship between linguistic intelligence and vocabulary knowledge of students.

5.1. Participants

The participants were chosen from Shiraz Azad University, and Shiraz State University. From each university both junior girls and boys were selected. They were 103 university students (90 females and 13 males) studying in three fields of language learning: English Language Teaching, English language Translation, and English Language Literature.

5.2. Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study. The first one was the revised version of Nation's 2000 Word Level Test (Schmitt, Clapham, & Schmitt, 2001), which was used to gain the appropriate level of the learners. The second one was the Linguistic Intelligence Questionnaire, which was a part of Multiple Intelligences of Gardner's nine domains Test.

5.2.1. The Nation's Vocabulary Level Test

Nation's Levels Tests (2001) were used to gauge students' receptive and productive vocabulary levels. The receptive vocabulary levels tests consist of four general vocabulary tests establishing vocabulary levels of 2000, 3000, 5000 and 10,000 words each, and of a special vocabulary test, the test of the Academic Word List (AWL), determining knowledge of words used frequently in academic writing beyond the first 2000 words (Coxhead, 2000).

The receptive tests involve word-definition matching. Test takers are required to match the words to the definitions

5.2.1.1. Validity of the Nation's Level Test

Read (2000) did some initial validation work on the Nation's (1990) VLT. In 1993, Schmitt revised the VLT and wrote three additional versions. To ensure the content validity of the test, the committee members' advice was sought. Each strongly confirmed the appropriateness of the test in regard to subject matter content and the general objective of measuring the appropriate level of the learners.

5.2.1.2. Reliability of the Nation's Level Test

In order to estimate how reliable the use of Nation's Level Test is, the internal consistency of the test was computed based on Cronbach's alpha and the covariance figures were satisfactory, being above 0.90. (The Pearson Product Moment Correlation between the two complete equivalent tests was 0.95).

Table 6.1. Reliability of Level Test

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.90	66

5.2.2. Linguistic Intelligence Test

The second instrument was the Linguistic Intelligence questionnaire based on Multiple Intelligences Gardner's nine domains. This Linguistic Intelligence test was a part of Nail's Multiple Intelligences Test of Ned production (that has been translated into French, German, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish) intelligences inventory (McKenzie, 1999) and Armstrong (2001). For the sake of simplicity and avoidance of misunderstanding, the translation of the items was used. This questionnaire contained 10 items with Five-Likert Scale ranging from (1= this is not like me at all, to 5= definitely I am always like this).

5.2.2.1. Validity of the Linguistic Intelligence Test

For validity the original English version was translated into Persian then it was translated and revised into English by several experts. Also, the validity of the LI questionnaire has been widely and extensively confirmed, based on construct validity, because it is shown a great relationship between the LI on the one hand and the participants linguistic abilities on the other.

5.2.2.2. Reliability of the Linguistic Intelligence Test

In order to check the internal consistency of the LI questionnaire, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated. The reliability of the whole MI questionnaire was higher than only LI part.

Table 6.2. Reliability of Multiple Intelligences Test

Cronbach's alpha	N of Items
0.907	90

Also, the reliability of the Linguistic Intelligence part was assigned, too. Due to few numbers of items (10 items) it did not have high reliability, but it was acceptable.

Table 6.3. Reliability of Linguistic Intelligence Test

Cronbach's alpha	N of Items
0.559	10

5.3. Data Collection

The procedures of data collection including the administration and scoring procedures are presented as follows:

- **Administration Procedures:** the data were collected in two sections. In order to motivate students to do the tests, the objectives of the study were explained to them and to avoid misunderstanding, all the instructions were given in Persian.
- **Administration of the LI Test:** the Linguistic test, part of Likert Scale of MI questionnaire, which measures the participants' linguistic knowledge, was given to participants. In this part, the translation part was given to the participants, since the purpose was not to measure their language knowledge, but to measure their linguistic knowledge. In order to complete the test, there was no time restriction, but it took about 5-10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.
- **Administration of the Nation's Vocabulary Knowledge Test:** the last test, Nation's Level Test (2001) was given to participants to determine their vocabulary threshold. Generally, it took about 40 minutes to answer all the questionnaires.

5.3.2. Scoring Procedures

The procedures of scoring for LI and Vocabulary test were as follows:

- **Scoring of LI:** this test has 10 items with 5 scales as 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'undecided', 'agree' or 'strongly agree' with the statements. Each item has its value ranging from 1 to 5, and their scores ranges from 10 to 50.
- **Scoring of Nation's Vocabulary Level Test:** The second questionnaire was Nation's Level Test (2001) that was a revised version of Nation's VLT (1999). Based on their responses, the researcher could give the appropriate level of knowledge to the participants. The passing rate for each test was set at 90%. This means that the students could make three errors in the receptive test and still pass the test which shows the number of students participating in each test and the percentage of students who pass each test with a passing rate of 90%.

Therefore, in each level their scores range from 0-30. Among them, those who entered 5000 level will be considered as the advanced ones and the statistical procedures will be carried on with them.

5.3.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics identifies the kind of data, data distribution, and data comparison with other similar data.

103 participants voluntarily participated in the study. In order to place them in the advanced level, all of them completed the two questionnaires; Linguistic Intelligence Test, and The Vocabulary Knowledge Tests. Table 6.4 shows the result of their performances.

Table 6.4 Vocabulary Knowledge Level for 103 Participants

	N	90%	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
R2000	103	81.5%	93	50.0	100.0	16.1
AWL	103	85.4%	92.18	20.0	100.0	16.44
R3000	94	66%	88.91	33.0	100.0	17.98
R5000	66	55%	88.05	27.0	100.0	13.83

With the passing rate of 90 percent, 81.5% of the students passed the receptive 2000 test; 85.4% the AWL; 66% the receptive 3000 test; and 55% the receptive 5000. Therefore, only 66 students could be assigned to the advanced level, for further analysis, and these 66 participants were included in the study.

A descriptive analysis of the data was run the results of which appear in Table 6.5

Table 6.5 Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std.	Variances
	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics
Voc5000	66	73.3	26.7	100.0	5810.6	88.039	14.500	210.25
LI	66	23.0	26.0	49.0	2596.0	39.33	4.7339	22.410

According to Table 6.5, there are 66 respondents; the range of Vocabulary 5000 is 73.3 from 26.7 to 100 with a mean of 88.03 and standard deviation of 14.5. The range of LI is 23.0 from 26 to 49, with the mean of 39.33, and standard deviation of 4.73.

5.3.4 Inferential Statistics

Inferential Statistics deal with appropriate data analysis to answer the research questions of the study. In order to provide answers to the posed questions, the researcher has taken the following data analysis into consideration.

With respect to the relationship between the participants' receptive level of their Vocabulary Knowledge and their appropriate level of Linguistic Intelligence, both in terms of the strength and direction of the relationship, Pearson Correlation was performed.

As to the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and linguistic intelligence, the findings of the data analyses showed that there is a significant relationship between the two variables, ($r=.57$). This means that if one of the variables increases, the other increases, too.

Thus, the first null hypothesis was rejected. Even though the 'r' value was not very high, this significance correlation cannot be ignored.

Table 6.6 Correlation between Vocabulary Knowledge & LI

	LI	Vocab5000
LI Pearson correlation	1	.57*
Sig. (1-tailed)		.033
N	66	66
Vocab 5000 Pearson correlation	.57	1
Sig. (1-tailed)	.033	
N	66	66

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

As the table 6.6 illustrates, with respect to Linguistic Intelligence, it makes a strong unique contribution to explaining the receptive size of vocabulary and it is a good predictor of vocabulary learning knowledge.

Table 6.7 Simple Regression of LI as an independent variable on Vocabulary

Knowledge as a dependent variable Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.255a	.065	.035	14.2430

What is of our interest in this table is the index in the column labeled R^2 . R^2 , is the percent of the variance in the dependent variable explained uniquely by the independent variable.

R square in Table 6.7 was about .065 meaning that about 6.5 percent of variances in vocabulary knowledge as the dependent variable could be determined by variance in Linguistic Intelligence. The following ANOVA table told us about the significance of this claim.

Table 6.8 ANOVA table in regression analysis on LI as an independent variable

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1Regression	885.802	2	442.901		
Residual	12780.416	63	202.864	2.183	.001
Total	13666.218	65			

Table 6.8 indicates if the coefficient of simple regression demonstrated by R^2 is significant or not. In this research, the significance is .001 which is meaningful at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 6.9 Coefficients in regression analysis (a) of LI as an independent variable

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1(Constant)	79.000	24.444		3.232	.002
LI	.742	.376	0.442	1.972	.003

The third table in the output that concerns us is the one labeled **Coefficients**. Table 6.9 presents the information related to every individual independent variable. After considering the significance point, as this Table shows a variable is significant. We should consider the **Beta value**. Linguistic Intelligence Beta value is 0.442. It proves that Linguistic Intelligence makes a good contribution to explaining the vocabulary size.

6. Results and Discussion

This study investigated associations between EI, LI, and Vocabulary Knowledge. The hypothesis of the study is that there would be a significant and positive relationships between EI and LI, EI and Vocabulary Knowledge, and between LI and Vocabulary Knowledge. Also, Linguistic Intelligence is a better predictor for learning vocabulary knowledge.

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Title

A Contrastive Analysis of Exam Papers and Term Projects Considering the Differences of the Two Contexts

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Abstract

Comparison of the performance of EFL students in their foreign language can be drawn intralingually in terms of different settings in which they perform. In this regard, the performance of some TEFL and Translation graduate students at Sheikhbahaee University in their written English texts is compared. The variables to be measured contrastively viz *the length of the sentences, the frequency of the technical terms, and the proportion of the adjectives to the whole text* are our focus of attention. Contrasting the students' demonstration of their ability in their written production in different contexts such as performing in a class environment with limited time or in an out class environment enjoying the access to enough sources and time, was the concern born in our minds in this enquiry.

Keywords: Contrastive analysis, Technical terms, Context.

1. Introduction

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). In this book (p. 1-2), Lado claimed that "*those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult*".

Structuralism is the linguistic model of CAH which was expounded by Bloomfield (1933), elaborated by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). It is assumed that there is a finite structure of a given language that can be documented and compared with another language.

In behavioral psychology, any kind of learning is associated with habit formation. Learning takes place by reinforcement and these are concerned with Stimulus-Response theory of Skinner. Associationism and S-R theory are the two psychological bases of CAH (James, 1985). There is also this assumption that L2 learners will tend to transfer the formal features of their L1 to their utterances. This notion of transfer means "carrying over the habits of his mother – tongue into the second language" (Corder, 1971 p.158)

So many studies have focused on this claim by contrasting several languages with each other considering different aspects and properties of languages to highlight the existing similarities and differences. This paper tries to investigate the differences in contexts that come to existence in different settings in just one language (English). In fact, the focus is on the context of two batches of papers both written in English by M.A students of TEFL and Translation but in different settings. One written in a class environment and the other out of the class.

2. Data and Results

Two batches of papers, one of the students' answers to some essay type questions, written in the class as mid-term or final exam, and the other of their term projects, usually compiled at home, were conscientiously studied (see appendices). Close examination, considering the above mentioned factors, revealed the following results:

Sentences: The sentences in texts written in the class were shorter than those in term projects.

Technical Terms: The frequency of technical terms employed in term projects was higher than that of the exam papers.

Adjectives: The ratio of adjectives utilized in in-class works to each sentence is lower than the one in out-class works.

	Words	Sentences	Words / sentences	Adj	Adjs/ Sentences	T.T	Words/T.T	Sentences/T.T	T.T /Sentences
Exam cases	5207	250	20.8	284	1.1	570	9.1	.44	.28
Term paper project	12183	545	22.3	763	1.4	1030	11.8	.53	1.9

(Table 1)

The following chart shows the statistical findings in which:

Word: The number of words used in cases.

Sentences: The number of sentences used in cases.

Words/Sentences: The proportion of words to Sentences.

Adj: The total number of adjectives used in cases.

Adjs/Sentences: The proportion of adjectives to Sentences.

T.T: The total number of technical terms.

Words/T.T: The proportion of words to technical terms.

Sentences/T.T: The proportion of sentences to technical terms.

T.T/Sentences: The proportion of technical terms to sentences.

To sum up all the findings in terms of the students' performances in the class and out of the class, we come to:

In-class performance: shorter sentences, fewer adjectives, and more technical terms.

Out-class performance: longer sentences, more adjectives, and fewer technical terms.

There are a few points to be taken into account prior to embarking on the analysis of the results:

- 1- The different nature of the assignments; due to the inherent requirement of an exam paper, students are required to respond to some kinds of questions. Therefore, they can't be the sole determiners of the content. The nature of the question plays an important role, too. An explanatory question demands students' maneuvering in a confined and restricted area of the language. Hence frequent use of certain technical terms might be justified. On the other hand, descriptive nature of a question may evidently call for a variety of terms.
- 2- The limits imposed on students to time and access to different sources; composing a term paper, students have as much access to the related sources and time as they need. In answering exam questions, the case doesn't seem to be like that.

3. Analysis of the Data and Results

3.1 The difference in the length of the sentences

As it turns out, this study is a quantitative one. So with recourse to statistics we may be able to show some meaningful differences in the presentations of students in different contexts. The dissimilarities, however, were not statistically significant. Although the sentences in the texts written out of the class proved to be longer in terms of the number of words, that length was neither considerable enough, nor consistent. There were some out class texts with shorter sentences than the in class ones.

3.2 The difference in the use of adjectives

Given the ratio of the adjectives to the sentences, it seems that the same conclusion is holding true. The number of adjectives present in each sentence in the texts written in class performances was an average of 1.1, and an average of 1.4 in out class performances. Statistically this might not be a material evidence for us to base our judgment on, but we can hardly dispense with it since the fact behind this little nuance is something to be considered qualitatively.

3.3 The difference in the frequency of technical terms

Contrastively analyzed performances of the students in their use of technical terms in their works in in-class and out-class demonstrations indicated a difference. Statistics show that there has been a ball park figure of 10% increase in the proportion of the technical terms to the number of words used in the texts written in the class. That means students have used more of the jargon of their field when they were writing in the class in response to some essay type questions. Although it may be considered a privilege of the in-class performance, it might not prove to be.

4. Interpretations and Conclusion

Passing judgment on such results, considering the intervening variables, seems challenging. However, holding the idea of "nothing ventured, nothing gained", we ventured into drawing some conclusions:

1- Substantiation of knowledge and the concern for it

The proper and ample use of adjectives in a text may result in semantically dense sentences. The elevation in the frequency of adjectives in the out class performances

might be a sign of better competence and fluency in the language user. It seems that the students performing in class are not as much concerned with their appropriate and sophisticated use of their second language as they are when they are writing at home. On the other hand, one might argue that they don't have enough time and access to the relevant sources. One simple look at the both performances however, shows that realization of competence at this level for graduate students doesn't need that much time or reference but concern.

2- Superiority or inferiority?

A key point to be contemplated in examining students' performances in these two different contexts is the sense of dominance that either the students feel, or impose.

A student responding to an exam question knows his or her writing will be read by the omniscient, all-knower, dominant professor whereas the one composing a term project is required to write for the universal readers and to be as much precise, clear, and scientific as they can. The frequent employment of technical words and the paucity of adjectives observed in in-class performances could partially be resulted from the students' imaginative position taken toward their professor. In this respect they feel inferior to him and try to bring the topic home and assure him of their knowledge by persistent use of technical terms. Besides they either aren't as much concerned about the clarity and beauty of their text as they are when they write their term projects or they can't be. It might be so because they think the professor can get the idea even through a small hint or they see that clarification redundant.

3- Distribution of adjectives and technical terms

Comparing the frequency of technical terms with the different nature of the research papers and exam questions is another crucial factor to be considered.

The results revealed that more technical terms were used in In-class performances. Henceforth, we may be able to conclude that in answering exam questions students are faced with a more confined scope and the sentences are replete with such terms. Due to the specific situation they are performing, they may prefer to convey what they have in their minds in the most economical manner. But in writing a research paper they are dealing with a wider scope, therefore technical terms are sporadically distributed in different parts of the paper.

4- The benefit of choosing a topic

The opportunity of enjoying the option to make a choice in any situation has always affected the outcome which results from the works done on the topics. Students compiling a term projects benefit this opportunity to choose the topic they want to work on .this can give them the chance and motivation to do themselves justice in writing a term paper, something that they are deprived of in their in class performances.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The frequency of Technical terms in exam papers

EXAM PAPERS	
TECHNICAL TERMS	FREQUENCY
Research	35
3Translation	32
Language	30
ESP	21
Data	19
Learner	17
Translator	16
Syllabus	14
Learning	13
Target text	13
Pronunciation	13
Method	12
Consonant cluster	12
Questionnaire	10
Experimental	10
Material	9
Researcher	9
Research question	9
Qualitative	9
Course	9
Treatment	8
EFL	7
Variable	7
Hypothesis	7

Problem	7
Teaching	7
TECHNICAL TERMS	FREQUENCY

Error	7
Lit. Review	6
Source text	6
Translator ideology	6
Target language	6
Statistical	6
C.A	6
Genre	5
Native	5
Quantitative	5
Participant	5
Descriptive	5
Design	5
Procedure	5
Speech	5
Performance	5

EXAM PAPERS

Data collection	4
interpreter	4
motivation	4
Pre-test	4
Control group	4
Study	4
Data collection	4
interpreter	4
motivation	4
Pre-test	4
Control group	4
Non-special vocabulary	3
Non-special vocabulary	3
Article	3
morphological	3
content	3
literature	3
instrument	3
interpretative	3
Foreign language	3
competence	3
sample	3
context	3
usage	2
linguistics	2
technique	2
Translation competence	2
population	2
Negative transfer	2
interpretation	2
Null-hypothesis	2
Post-test	2
frequency	2
proficiency	2
Culture-bound	2
Conceptual	1
Authentic speech	1
Special vocabulary	1
pedagogy	1
overgeneralization	1
Faculty	1

Appendix 2: The frequency of Technical terms in term paper projects

TERM PAPER PROJECTS

TECHNICAL TERMS	FREQUENCY
translation	101
Soft news	64
Procedure	57
headline	56
vocabulary	54
Hard news	48
Rhetorical devices	45
language	44
term	40
translator	37
context	28
ideology	27
study	23
Culture-bound teaching	20
Pre-test	16
Post-test	16
researcher	13
treatment	10
lexical	10
paper	10
learner	10
participant	9
definition	9
addition	9
Source language	8
reading	8
equivalence	7
article	7
t-value	6
Culture specific	6
Second language	5
Foreign language	5
Omission	5
content	5
Style	5
Method text	4
strategy	4
subject	4

TECHNICAL TERMS	FREQUENCY
system	4
Target culture	4
Phase	4
problem	4
F.L.L	3
Theory	3
translation	3
Multilingual	2
Bilingual	2
L1	2
Multiple choice test	2
Incidental vocabulary learning	2
Questionnaire	2
Mean	2
Standard deviation	2
Second language acquisition	2
ESL	2
T-test	2
Data analysis	2
Degree of freedom	2
Approach	2
Material culture	2
Semantic	2
Communicative	2
Implicit	2
Critical discourse	2
Structural	2
speech	2
ESP	2
Target text	1
Theory	1
Anthropological	1
Universality	1
Source culture	1
extra linguistics	1
Institutional culture	1
Descriptive	1

TERM PAPER PROJECTS

TECHNICAL TERMS	FREQUENCY
Consonant	1
Stressed syllabus	1
C.A	1
Error	1
Cognitive	1
L2 vocabulary acquisition	1
E.L.A	1
Task	1
Experimental group	1
Experimental research	1
Research question	1
Substitution	1
Borrowing	1
Mental culture	1
TEFL	1
Language proficiency	1
Contextual vocabulary learning	1
Teaching	1
Accuracy	1
Reading comprehension test	1
Listening	1
Direct learning	1
Empirical study	1
Drill	1
Rich-context	1
Meaningful context	1
Null-hypothesis	1
Homogeneous class	1
polygon	1
syllabus	1
variable	1
Statistic	1
Classical method	1
Direct method	1
Natural method	1
FLT	1
Content based approach	1
Contextual clues	1

Title

The Impact of Task Complexity and Reading Proficiency Level on Learners' Pedagogic Task Performance

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Abstract

This research project has investigated the impact of task complexity and reading proficiency level on the performance pattern of university students across different pedagogic task types. Ninety students of State, Payamme-Noor, and Islamic Azad University took part in the present study. They were all taking a reading comprehension course at the time. The study was conducted in two phases. In phase 1, a reading TOFEL test was administered so that all participants could be placed into two levels of reading proficiency i.e. high and low. In phase 2, two different reading passages with three different pedagogic task types for each (Comprehension-check, Restatement, and Synonym) were administered. Descriptive statistics, post-hoc tests and repeated measures ANOVA were utilized to analyze the data. The results indicated that reading proficiency of the learners had a significant impact on their performance across the pedagogic task types but the effect size was moderate. Participants in the high reading proficiency group outperformed those in the low reading proficiency group on three different pedagogic task types. Task complexity

also affected learners' performance on the pedagogic task types significantly and the effect size was strong.

Keywords: Pedagogic task types, Task complexity, Reading proficiency level

1. Introduction

Nation and Macalister (2010) maintain that with a shift to Communicative Language Teaching in the 1970s, there has been an increasing passion in the mainstream pedagogy to convey a message rather than a linguistic form. This, in turn, has led to more emphasis on the use of pedagogic tasks in the classroom. During the past three decades, there has been a growing interest in task-based language teaching in general and the use of pedagogic tasks for classroom purposes and research in particular. Van den Branden (2006) states that task-based language teaching (TBLT) has attracted the attention of second language acquisition researchers, curriculum developers, educationalists, teacher trainers, and language teachers around the world over the past twenty-five years.

Nunan (1989) maintains that task-based language teaching (TBLT) is actually developed out of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and he even considers it a strong version of CLT. Richards and Rodgers (2001) assert that in a task-based approach the primary focus is away from language forms to negotiated meaning. Ellis (2003) also states that a task-based approach engages learners in real-life, authentic, communicative activities so that the meaning-negotiation is promoted very rapidly. Learners will be actively involved in the learning process and a key role is assigned to learners in a task-based methodology. Willis (1996) points out that there is no pre-selected syllabus in a task-based approach as it is mostly drawn from the learner's needs and interests. Cook (2008, p. 257) defines task-based learning (TBL) as "the notion that learning and teaching should be organized around a set of classroom tasks." Willis and Willis (2007) support the notion that starting with topic-based lexis is essential to ease and speed up task-based interactions and the problem of incorporating systematic language in TBLT can be resolved using pedagogic tasks. "Task-based language teaching is an approach to the design of language courses in which the point of departure is not a list of linguistic items, but a collection of tasks (Nunan, 1999, p.24)."

According to Nunan (2004), from a pedagogic perspective, task-based language teaching is a needs-based approach to content selection. In task-based language teaching, communication through interaction in the target language is emphasized. Authentic texts are introduced into the learning situation, opportunities for learners to focus not only on

language but also on the learning process itself are provided, learners' own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning are enhanced, and classroom language learning is linked with language use outside the classroom.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Task-Based Implementation

Carless (2002, p.389) maintains that, "There is little practical discussion of how tasks are actually implemented in school settings". He argues for basic requirements of the procedures of implementing pedagogic tasks in school settings and believes that large class size, cramped classrooms, lack of appropriate resources, teachers not trained in task-based methodologies, teachers with limited language proficiency, and traditional examination-based syllabi should be handled when implementing a task-based methodology.

2.2. Tasks and Second Language Acquisition

Cameron (2001) indicates that the essential aspect of a task is that learners are focused on the meaning of the content rather than form and the learning outcomes are not explicitly language-focused. Kumaravadivelu (2008, p.95) states that: "Task is not a methodological construct; it is a curricular content. A language learning and teaching task is not inextricably linked to any one particular teaching method." Davies and Pearse (2000) strongly support the notion that tasks should have clear objectives and conclude with a very tangible sense of achievement for the learners.

Ellis (2003) defines a task as a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to arrive at a measurable outcome in terms of content. Tasks have also played a pivotal role in SLA research and have brought SLA in closer affinity with language pedagogy (Slimani-Rolls, 2005). In SLA research, tasks have been widely used as vehicles to elicit language production, interaction, negotiation of meaning, processing of input and focus on form, all of which are believed to foster second language acquisition.

2.3. Reasons for Research on Pedagogic Tasks

Research on pedagogic task types encompasses having an understanding of what 'pedagogic task' means. Based on the definition of the concept of pedagogic task, one will be able to design, administer, perform, and score the very same pedagogic tasks.

Nunan (1989) makes a distinction between real-world tasks and pedagogic ones. He further identifies these two task types as two different rationales for task selection. The former requires learners to approximate the kind of tasks required of them in the world

beyond the classroom and the latter requires learners to do things extremely unlikely they would be asked to do outside classroom environment.

According to Bygate (2001), the term pedagogic task refers broadly to structured, bounded, purposeful activities involving language processing which learners carry out to learn. Such tasks vary widely in kind and purpose and may involve listening, speaking, reading and writing. They may be undertaken by learners individually, in pairs, in groups, or with the help of a teacher.

One key reason for studying pedagogic tasks is that they provide appropriate content for learning and teaching. Bygate (1999) illustrates how pedagogic tasks can be manipulated systematically as context for promoting learners' knowledge of language, their ability in language use, and teachers' ability to teach them. The assumption is that appropriate selection and use of a range of pedagogic tasks can be very crucial for successful learning to take place. Accordingly, pedagogic tasks have turned into a focus of research interest.

Bygate (2001) also maintains that the interest in pedagogic tasks has extended beyond merely providing learners with the experience of language use and researchers have begun to explore how such tasks can be manipulated for consciousness-raising purposes. From this perspective, pedagogic tasks are seen as a context for learners to experience language in a variety of ways and for teachers to select, manipulate, and evaluate learners' performance on such tasks. Such tasks provide a means of empowering learners to experience and explore the widest range of language functions within classroom environment. Pedagogic tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners.

More specifically, the present study investigated learners' performances across different pedagogic task types to ascertain whether a discernible pattern could be recognized at two different levels of reading proficiency i.e. high and low. The present study aimed at developing different pedagogic task types and sequencing them based on pre-determined models of task complexity suggested by Prabhu (1987), Skehan (2001), Brown et al. (1984), and Robinson (2001&2007).

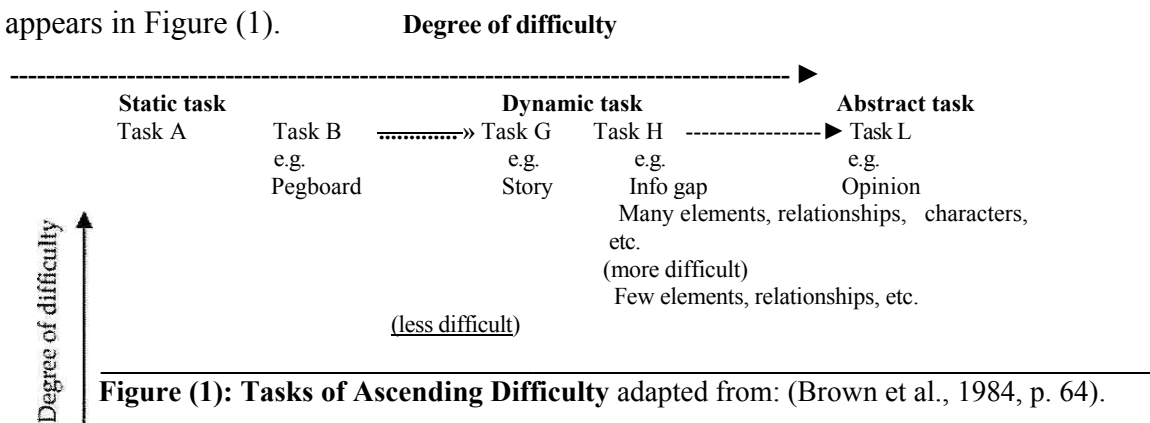
2.4. Task Complexity (TC)

The concept of Task Complexity (TC) is central to the main objectives of this study. Four models of task complexity exist in the literature.

2.4.1 Brown et al. (1984) Model of Task Complexity.

Brown et al. (1984) who apparently made the first attempts to sequence tasks from simple to complex, distinguished among three different types of tasks i.e. static tasks (ST), dynamic tasks (DT), and abstract tasks (AT) which range from easy to difficult. Static tasks (ST) were

proposed as the easiest type and abstract tasks (AT) as the most difficult type. The model appears in Figure (1).



2.4.2 Prabhu's Model of Task Complexity

Prabhu (1987, p. 47) graded tasks according to a number of criteria in his "Bangalore Communicative Teaching Project" in India. These criteria described as "rough measures of cognitive complexity" are as follows:

The amount of information, the amount of reasoning needed, the degree of precision, familiarity with the purposes, the degree of abstractness and degree of difficulty.

2.4.3. Skehan's Model of Task Complexity

To Skehan and Foster (2001, p. 196) task difficulty has to do with the amount of attention the task demands from the participants. Difficult tasks require more attention than easy tasks. Based on the Skehan's model of task complexity, the following factors were taken into account.

- a) *Code complexity* that has to do with vocabulary load and variety.
- b) *Cognitive complexity* that is related to familiarity of topic, discourse, and the task itself.
- c) *Communicative stress* which accounts for time, number of participants, and length of text, modality, and opportunity for control.
- d) *Learner factors* that takes learners' intelligence, their imagination, and personal experiences into consideration.

2.4.4. Robinson's Model of Task Complexity

Robinson's model of task complexity takes into account the following factors (2001, 2007).

a) *Cognitive factors* which has to do with the resource directing, and resource dispersing. By resource directing, he refers to the number of elements and amount of reasoning needed to complete a task. By resource dispersing, he means the amounts of planning and prior knowledge required to perform a task.

b) *Interactive factors* that account for task condition (*participation and participant variables*). Participation variables refer to whether a task is one-way or two-way, convergent

or divergent, open or closed. Participant variables points to subjects' gender, familiarity, power, and solidarity.

c) Difficulty factors that have to do with task difficulty; the *affective variables* like motivation, confidence, and anxiety and *ability variables* such as aptitude, proficiency, and intelligence are related with task difficulty.

2.5. Empirical Studies on TBLT

Foster and Skehan (1999) point to the significance and influence of planning during task performance. They also state that pre-task planning will have a beneficial effect upon task performance. The results suggest that teacher-based planning as effective as solitary planning and both are superior to group-based planning. Dornyei and Koromos (2000) explore the role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. The results provide insights into the interrelationships of multiple variables determining the learners' task engagement, and recommend a multi-level construct whereby some independent variables only come into effect when certain conditions have been satisfied.

Swain and Lapkin (2000) focus on the uses of the first language in task-based second language learning. They also address the relationship between the amount of L1 use and the quality of students' writing, and the variability in task performance across student pairs.

Brown (1991) also deals with group work, task difference, and language acquisition. The study suggest that the level of challenge of a task, measured by its procedural or interpretive nature, may be an important variable in ensuring that learners are pushed into framing their ideas in more novel language and thus have opportunities to learn and not only to practice.

Carless (2002) finds out how a task-based methodology is implemented with young language learners. Discussions of how tasks are implemented in school settings with young learners are provided in detail. The paper carries implications for teachers carrying out activities or tasks with young EFL learners in other contexts. Robinson (2001) explores topics such as task complexity, task difficulty, and task production; interactions within a componential framework are also explored. Sequencing does affect the accuracy and fluency of speaker production. He further argues that sequencing tasks based on their cognitive complexity is preferred over sequencing decisions based on task difficulty or task conditions.

Littlewood (2004) addresses the questions of what tasks are. The paper also shows the continuity between task-based language teaching and the broader communicative approach within which it is a development. Finally, the article asks whether task-based approach is

really the most appropriate term at all for describing these developments in language pedagogy.

Ellis (2000) reports on two very different theoretical accounts of task-based language use and learning. One account, which he refers to as the psycholinguistic perspective draws on a computational model of second language acquisition. According to this perspective, tasks are seen as devices that provide learners with the data they need for learning. Three different psycholinguistic models are discussed: Long's interaction hypothesis, Skehan's cognitive approach, Yule's framework of communicative efficiency. The second theoretical account of tasks is that provided by socio-cultural theory. This is premised on the claim that participants co-construct the activity they engage in when performing a task, consistent with their own socio-history and locally determined goals. Both theoretical approaches are of value to task-based teaching. The psycholinguistic approach provides information that is of significance for planning task-based teaching and learning. The socio-cultural approach accounts for the kinds of improvisation that teachers and learners need to engage in during task performance to enhance communicative efficiency.

Carless (2003) uses detailed qualitative case study data to explore the implementation of task-based teaching in three primary school classroom in Hong Kong. It reviews six issues, which were found to impact on how teachers approached the implementation of communicative tasks in their classroom. The themes to be addressed are teacher beliefs; teacher understandings; the syllabus time available; the textbook and the topic; preparation and the available resources; and the language proficiency of the students. It is argued that the complex interplay between these factors can have bearing on the extent of implementation of task-based teaching in the classroom. A tentative exploratory framework for the implementation of task-based teaching with young learners in Hong Kong is proposed. The study may also shed more light on the prospects for the implementation of communicative or task-based approaches in a variety of other contexts.

Carless (2007) analyzes the suitability of task-based teaching for Hong Kong secondary schools. Suggestions are derived for the development of a version of task-based approaches feasible for this and other comparable school contexts. The research method for the study involved semi-structured interviews with 11 secondary school teachers and 10 teacher educators based on purposive sampling. The results emphasize the need for adaptation and a flexible situated version of task-based teaching. The proposed adaptation involves clarifying and enhancing the role of grammar instruction; integrating tasks with the requirements of examinations; and emphasizing reading and writing tasks in addition to oral ones. The study

further indicates that a weak version of task-based teaching is likely to be most appropriate for schooling and supports claims for the desirability of context-sensitive approaches.

3. Methods

3.1 Participants

Ninety University students of State, Islamic Azad, and Payamme-Noor took part in the study in Iran. They were all taking a reading comprehension course (3) at the time. Thirty-four males and fifty-six females of two different levels of reading proficiency i.e. high and low were included in the research project. Participants were adults and of Persian and Turkish language background. Due to the administrative difficulties of randomization, convenient sampling was utilized. Available reading comprehension classes at State, Azad, and Payamme-Noor universities were taken advantage of.

3.2 Procedures

The following methodological steps were taken in order to accomplish the stated objectives of the research project. In phase1, a reading test of TOFEL was administered so that the participants could be placed into two levels of reading proficiency i.e. high and low. In Phase 2, two reading passages with three pedagogic task types (Comprehension-check, Restatement, and Synonym) were included in the research project. The first was extracted from (*Nilipour, 1996*) and the second was extracted from (*Grindell and Marerlli, 1989*). The first text entitled (*We Think with Our Muscles*) was the simpler text based on readability statistics. The second text entitled (*The Indian Character*) was a more difficult text based on the score obtained from the readability formula in word 2003. Table 1 shows the readability statistics for both texts.

Table 1: Readability statistics

Readability statistics criteria	<i>We think with our muscles</i>	<i>The Indian Character</i>
Words	201	632
Sentences	14	29
Sentence per paragraph	3.5	7.2
Words per sentence	14.35	21.7
Passive sentence	28%	24%
Flesch reading Ease	32.2	61.8
Flesh-Kincaid Grade level	4.2	8.4

3.3 Pedagogic tasks

Three different pedagogic tasks were developed for each text. A comprehension-check task, a restatement task, and a synonym task were included for each text. As for the comprehension-check task, the participants were asked to answer the questions based on the provided text materials. Participants were asked to recognize and produce the answer for the comprehension-check task from within the text.

The researcher chose some sentences of the texts to be paraphrased. The participants were asked to restate the sentences in a more simplified manner. They were asked to comprehend, process, produce, and manipulate the necessary pieces of information all at once. This time their production was not limited as they were asked to substitute the sentences with their own words. As for the synonym task, the participants were provided with five sentences and one word in italics for which they were asked to choose one synonym from among five possible options.

Table 2: Pedagogic tasks; recognition vs. production

Restatement	Comprehension-check	Synonym
Production	Recognition	recognition
	limited production	

3.4 Task complexity of the pedagogic tasks

In order to determine the complexity of the pedagogic tasks, four models of task complexity were taken advantage of. Based on the Brown's model of task complexity, tasks are classified into static, dynamic, and abstract ones with abstract being the most difficult type. Based on his model, the comprehension-check, the restatement task, and the synonym task were dynamic, abstract, and static respectively.

Table 3: Brown's model of task complexity

Restatement	Comprehension-check	Synonym
abstract	Dynamic	static

Based on the Prabhu's model of task complexity, the following items were taken into account; 1. amount of information(AI) 2. amount of reasoning(AR) 3. degree of precision(DP) 4. degree of familiarity(DF) 5. degree of abstractness(DA)

Table 4: Prabhu's model of task complexity

	AI	AR	DP	DF	DA
Synonym	lowest	Low	Highest	high	low
Comprehension-check	high	Average	High	high	low
Restatement	high	High	Low	low	high

As for synonym task, fewer elements were transferred in terms of the amount of information needed, in comparison with the other two pedagogic tasks; namely; the comprehension-check and restatement tasks. In terms of the amount of reasoning needed to complete the tasks, the restatement task needed the most and the synonym task needed the least; with the comprehension-check task somewhere in the middle. The amount of reasoning has to do with the number of steps that need to be taken for carrying out a task. For example while doing the synonym task, the participants were asked to match the words in italics with the one appropriate one from among four possible options. With regard to the degree of precision needed for each pedagogic task, the synonym task was the most precise while the restatement task needed less precision in terms of the answer provided by the participants.

The answer for the comprehension-check needed to be more precise than that of the restatement task. As for the restatement task, participants were asked to produce the answer of their own but the response to the comprehension-check task was to be spotted and merely written from within the text. In terms of the familiarity, the restatement task was the least familiar to the participants while the other two pedagogic tasks were more familiar to them.

Based on the Skehan's model of task complexity, the following factors were taken into account:

1. Code complexity
2. Cognitive complexity
3. Communicative stress
4. Learner factors.

Table 5: Skehan's model of task complexity

	Code complexity	Cognitive complexity	Communicative stress	Learner factors
Synonym	low	Low	Low	low
Comprehension-check	average	Average	average	average
Restatement	high	High	high	high

In terms of code complexity, the restatement task needed a more linguistically complex and various response on the part of language readers while the synonym task required the least and comprehension-check task stood in the middle. In terms of the cognitive complexity, again the restatement task was the most complex one, due to the degree of familiarity of discourse, genre, and task. It was while the synonym task was the least cognitively complex task. In terms of the communicative stress, the restatement task required more time and the responses were more open-ended. Finally, with regard to the learner factors, the restatement task brought their intelligence, imagination and their personal experiences to close touch with the reality.

Robinson's model of task complexity takes into account the following factors: 1.

1. Cognitive factors
2. Interactive factors
3. Difficulty factors

Table 6: Robinson's model of task complexity

	Cognitive	Interactive	Difficulty
Synonym	Low	Low	low
Comprehension-check	Average	Average	average
Restatement	High	High	high

Based on the Robinson's model of task complexity, the restatement task was the most complex one since it required the learners to plan ahead of time, to tap on their prior knowledge, and also apply many elements in comparison with the other two pedagogic tasks which required less planning, fewer elements and also less activation of the prior knowledge on the part of EFL readers. In terms of the interactive factors, the response for the synonym task was closed but that of the restatement task was more open-ended. With regard to

difficulty factors, the restatement task created more anxiety on the part of language readers and required more confidence and proficiency on their part.

3.5 Scoring of pedagogic tasks

Each participant was scored for both easy and difficult text. The scorings were made out of twenty. The three questions on the comprehension-check pedagogic task were scored out of six, two points for each. Three questions for the restatement pedagogic task were made out of nine, three points for each. Finally, five items on the Synonym task were scored out of five, one point for each. Three points were assigned for each question on the restatement task. Two points were also allocated for each question on comprehension-check. Five points were also attributed for the five questions on the synonym task; one point for each.

4. Significance of the study

As the result of the proposed study, teachers can be provided with a model of how different pedagogic classroom tasks can be systematically manipulated so as to fit the reading proficiency level of the learners. The educational practitioners will hopefully make possible revisions and refinements in the use of pedagogic tasks in the classroom environment. The study might also prove to be significant in the sense that it has attempted to determine the complexity of pedagogic tasks based on the existing models of task complexity in the literature. The study may shed more light on the way to determine the complexity of pedagogic tasks using those four models and familiarize language practitioners, teachers and learners with the basic tenets of the very same models.

The study can also make important contributions to language teachers who are interested in developing pedagogic task types, administering reading proficiency tests, and evaluating learners' performance patterns. Another important significance of the study might be the placement of a number of students into two levels of reading proficiency, which will in turn help other professional peers to make possible amendments for future research projects if necessary.

5. Results

Table 7 shows the distribution of all participants into two levels of reading proficiency based on the TOEFL reading test. Forty-four students were placed in the low reading proficiency group that accounts for 48.9 percent of the total. Forty-six students were placed in the high reading proficiency group and that accounts for 51.1 percent of the total.

Table 7: Distribution of Students Reading Proficiency Groups

READING PROFICIENCY	Frequency	Percent
LOW	44	48.9
HIGH	46	51.1
Total	90	100.0

Table 8 displays descriptive statistics for the low and high reading proficiency groups with regard to their performance on the pedagogic task types. The high reading proficiency group with a mean of 16.10 outperformed the low reading proficiency group with a mean of 14.68.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics; Reading Proficiency on Pedagogic Tasks

READING PROFICIENCY	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LOW	14.648	.351	13.942	15.354
HIGH	16.104	.176	15.751	16.457

To see whether the amount of difference between the low and high reading proficiency group with regard to their performance on the pedagogic task types was statistically significant or not, repeated Measures ANOVA was run. As Table 9 indicates the F-observed was 13.73 which is higher than F-critical at 1.48 degrees of freedom. Thus, reading proficiency of the learners had a significant impact on their performance on the pedagogic task types. To learn more about the strength of the effect size, Partial Eta Squared was taken into consideration. An effect size of .22 is considered to be of moderate value.

Table 9: Repeated Measures ANOVA; Reading Proficiency Effect

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
READINGLEVEL	101.695	1	101.695	13.734	.001	.222
Error	355.431	48	7.405			

Based on these results it can be concluded that the reading proficiency of the students had a to moderate effect on their performances on the pedagogic tasks

Before discussing the results of the post-hoc, comparison tests it worth examining the descriptive statistics. The Synonyms difficult and easy with mean scores of (19.96 and 18.93) show the highest mean followed by Comprehension Check easy and difficult (19.07 and 15.13) and restatement easy and difficult (9.02 and 6.22) which show the lowest means.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics Types of Pedagogical Tasks

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
COMPREHENSIONEASY	90	19.07	1.80
RESTATEEASY	80	9.02	3.78

SYNONYMEASY	90	19.96	.422
COMPREHENSIONDIFFICULT	89	15.13	4.38
RESTATEDDIFFICULT	50	6.22	3.11
SYNONYMDIFFICUT	90	18.93	2.383

A repeated-measures ANOVA was run to find the differences in the mean scores of the students on the Comprehension Check, Restatement and Synonyms at easy and difficult level. The F-observed value for the effect of the types of the pedagogical tasks was 216.32 (Table 8). This amount of F-value is higher than the critical value of F at 5 and 45 degrees of freedom, i.e. 2.42.

Table 11: Repeated Measures ANOVA Task Complexity on Pedagogical Tasks

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
TASKS	Pillai's Trace	.960	216.325 ^a	5.000	45.000	.000	.960
	Wilks' Lambda	.040	216.325 ^a	5.000	45.000	.000	.960
	Hotelling's Trace	24.036	216.325 ^a	5.000	45.000	.000	.960
	Roy's Largest Root	24.036	216.325 ^a	5.000	45.000	.000	.960

Based on the criteria developed by Cohen (1988 cited from Cohen and Brooke Lea; 2004) an effect size of .50 or higher is considered strong.

Based on these results it can be concluded that the task complexity affect learners' performance across different pedagogic tasks, hence task complexity does affect learners' performance across different pedagogic tasks.

Table 12: Post-hoc Tests Task Complexity on Pedagogical Tasks

(I) TASKS	(J) TASKS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
COMPREHENSION CHECK EASY	RESTATEMENT EASY	8.400*	.392	.000	7.192	9.608
	SYNONYMS EASY	-.320	.178	1.000	-.869	.229
	COMPREHENSION CHECK DIFFICULT	1.667*	.333	.000	.638	2.695
	RESTATEMENT DIFFICULT	13.378*	.427	.000	12.060	14.696
	SYNONYMS DIFFICULT	-.400	.155	.192	-.878	.078
RESTATEMENT EASY	SYNONYMS EASY	-8.720*	.385	.000	-9.907	-7.533
	COMPREHENSION CHECK DIFFICULT	-6.733*	.288	.000	-7.623	-5.844
	RESTATEMENT DIFFICULT	4.978*	.295	.000	4.068	5.888
	SYNONYMS DIFFICULT	-8.800*	.386	.000	-9.991	-7.609
SYNONYMS EASY	COMPREHENSION CHECK DIFFICULT	1.987*	.318	.000	1.006	2.968

	RESTATEMENT DIFFICULT	13.698*	.432	.000	12.364	15.032
	SYSNONYMS DIFFICULT	-.080	.080	1.000	-.327	.167
COMPREHENSION CHECK DIFFICULT	RESTATEMENT DIFFICULT	11.711*	.393	.000	10.499	12.924
	SYSNONYMS DIFFICULT	-2.067*	.314	.000	-3.037	-1.097
RESTATEMENT DIFFICULT	SYSNONYMS DIFFICULT	-13.778*	.440	.000	-15.135	-12.420
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.						

The results of the post-hoc tests (Table 12) indicate that;

The comprehension check easy with a mean score of 19.07 differs significantly from restatement easy with a mean of 9.07. The comprehension check easy with a mean score of 19.07 does not differ significantly from synonym easy with a mean of 19.96. The comprehension check easy with a mean score of 19.07 differs significantly from comprehension check difficult with a mean of 15.13. The comprehension check easy with a mean score of 19.07 differs significantly from restatement difficult with a mean of 6.22. The comprehension check easy with a mean score of 19.07 does not differ significantly from synonym difficult with a mean of 18.93. The restatement easy with a mean score of 9.07 differs significantly from synonym easy with a mean of 19.96. The restatement easy with a mean score of 9.07 differs significantly from comprehension check difficult with a mean of 15.13.

The restatement easy with a mean score of 9.07 differs significantly from restatement difficult with a mean of 6.22. The restatement easy with a mean score of 9.07 differs significantly from synonym difficult with a mean of 18.93. The synonym easy with a mean score of 16.69 differs significantly from comprehension check difficult with a mean of 15.13. The synonym easy with a mean score of 16.69 differs significantly from restatement difficult with a mean of 6.22. The synonym easy with a mean score of 16.69 does not differ significantly from synonym difficult with a mean of 18.93. The comprehension check difficult with a mean score of 15.13 differs significantly from restatement difficult with a mean of 6.22. The comprehension check difficult with a mean score of 15.13 differs significantly from synonym difficult with a mean of 18.93. The restatement difficult with a mean score of 6.22 differs significantly from synonym difficult with a mean of 18.93.

6. Discussion and Implications

It can be discussed that those models of task complexity can clearly shed more light on the ways they can be systematically manipulated as how to utilize the very same models with

other language skills (listening, speaking, and writing). Pedagogic task types and the issue of their application for classroom purposes is another important concept that must be handled with great care. Developing appropriate pedagogic tasks for learners of differing level of language proficiency is to be taken seriously by language teachers. Such tasks can provide significant content for learners to become actively involved in the learning process. The meaning-negotiation is promoted through the use of pedagogic task types in the classroom environment. Students' proficiency level has a lot to do with their performance on such tasks. Therefore, it is crucial to take their proficiency level into account. Administering appropriate tests to determine students' proficiency level is of paramount importance. Reading proficiency level of learners may have a direct bearing on the pedagogic task performance

Both language teachers and learners are to be aware of basic tenets and requirements of different models of task complexity. Task complexity is a central concept that affects students' performance on different pedagogic task types. Determining the complexity of such tasks based on pre-determined models of task complexity is another important issue to be taken into consideration.

7. Conclusion

Based on these results it can be concluded that the task complexity affect learners' performance across different pedagogic tasks, hence task complexity does affect learners' performance across different pedagogic tasks. Task complexity played a pivotal role in learners' performance on three different pedagogic task types i.e. synonym, comprehension-check, and restatement. Restatement task was the most complex based on the four models of task complexity and participants with high reading proficiency level performed better on the restatement task in comparison with those with lower reading proficiency. Synonym was the easiest pedagogic task type and participants with low reading proficiency level were able to perform well on such a pedagogic task.

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Title

Error Analysis in a New Context: A Comparative Study of Errors in General Linguistics and CALL

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Biodata

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Abstract

This study investigated the nature of error analysis in the application of computer in second language learning. Nowadays, this discipline is named Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). While error analysis theory in general linguistics has already been defined (e.g.: Menyuk, 1971; Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Keshavarz, 2011) there is no clear and accredited error analysis theory or classification in CALL yet. So this study has been conducted to see whether the nature of errors in CALL is differed from that of general linguistics or not. In this study, after an overall introduction to error analysis, error analysis in CALL has been investigated. The findings suggest that a new classification of error types in CALL can be proposed.

Keywords: Error analysis, CALL, Language, Computer, Linguistics

1. Introduction

“Creating intelligence comparable with their own has been one of the oldest dreams of mankind, starting from the legend of Golem, a man made of clay and summoned to life through Kabala, or Galatea, a sculpture so life-like that even Gods felt it should be made alive” (Dodigovic, 2005, p. 100). Dodigovic (2005) after considering the logic and nature of decision making of this intelligent machine considers the significant role of Language in the birth of the concept of artificial intelligence. This concept of artificial intelligence, which nowadays is named computer, plays an important role in second language learning. It works as a tireless language model, translator, error detector and corrector, and grading authority. The discipline that is pertinent to this endeavor is nowadays, generally, recognized

as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), which is studied in Computational linguistics. Computational linguistics is the 'application of computers to the study of linguistic problems' (O'Grady et al, 1997, p.660). O'Grady et al, (1997) further explain that it has two goals: (1) to use the computer as a tool to build programs that model and test a particular linguistic theory or approach and (2), to build working systems that use linguistic information. Holland et al. (1993) discuss the advantages of computer programs capable of analyzing human language in practicing the receptive skills of listening and reading and that of the productive skills of writing and speaking (p.28-46). While the former is studied by traditional CALL, the latter is the subject matter of the intelligent CALL. Dodigovic (2005) states that CALL would do what good human tutors frequently do: point out obvious linguistic errors and provide individualized feedback, correction, and ramification (p.96).

The study of linguistic errors is studied through the framework of the weak version of Contrastive Analysis (CA). According to Keshavarz (2011), it is theoretically justifiable and pedagogically practical. "This approach that is based on theories of first and second language acquisition and possible similarities between them became known as Error Analysis (Keshavarz, 2011, p.52)". Error analysis emerged as a reaction to the view of L2 learning suggested by CA theory that considered language transfer as the main process involved in L2 learning. Keshavarz (2011) adds that "it is widely believed that language learning, like acquiring virtually any other human learning, involves the making of Errors" (p.53).

After arguing about using error analysis as the primary pedagogical tool, Keshavarz (2011) concludes that error analysis is based on three important assumptions:

1. Errors are inevitable, as we cannot learn a language without committing errors.
2. Errors are significant in different ways.
3. Not all errors are attributable to the learner's mother tongue.

In this study after considering schools of thought in respect of learners' errors and important concepts related to error analysis, error analysis in CALL and treatment of errors in the application of computer in language learning and teaching will be discussed.

2. Schools of Thought in respect of Learners' Errors

In the field of methodology there have been two schools of thought with respect to learners' errors (Corder, 1967, p.162). The behaviorist school believes that the occurrence of learner's errors must be avoided; otherwise they would become a habit for the learner and manifest a sign of the inadequacy of teaching methods. With this view, contrastive analysis of the native and the target language has become an important aspect of studying the language differences (Kirkgoz, 2010, p. 4353). In contrast to this view, the cognitive school maintains that

occurrences of errors are inevitable, and this is a sign of learner's progress in the language learning system. Corder(1967) states that “the philosophy of this school is that we live in an imperfect world and consequently, errors will always occur in spite of our best efforts” (p.163). With this view, the cognitivist emphasis was on hypothesis formation, experiment, feedback, and raising the concept of error analysis as a way to scrutinize difficulties encountered by the second language learners.

3. Errors and Mistakes

Many scholars in the field of error analysis differentiated between errors and mistakes; however, the boundary between them is blurred. Corder (1967) arguing about the differences between Error and Mistake, states that only the situational context could show whether an utterance is an error or not. For Corder(1967), errors reflect the L2 competence of the learner, and mistakes reflect performance and are self-correctable. “Errors are considered to be systematic, governed by rule, and appear because a learner’s knowledge of the rules of the target language is complete” (Keshavarz, 2011, p.55). In comparison with errors, mistakes are random deviations, unsystematic, and are due to non-linguistic factors such as fatigue, strong emotion, and memory limitation. Self-correctability is another criterion taken by James (1998) to make a distinction between errors and mistakes. According to James “mistakes can be corrected by the learners if their attentions were drawn to them, but errors cannot be self-corrected” (p.57).

4. Significance of Errors

From studying errors made by the second language learners, it is possible to get some information about the target language at a given point to discover what they have learnt. Historically speaking, the best explanation of the significance of errors has been given by Corder(1967).

Errors are significant in three different ways. First to the teacher, in that they tell him, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired. Thirdly (and the most important one), they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device, the learner uses in order to learn (Corder, 1967, p.167).

Richards (1971) reiterates Corder’s view and remarked that errors are significant and of interest to Linguists, Psycholinguists and teachers. In regard to the native child and the second language learner Keshavarz (2011) claims that the study of errors, is crucially important because errors were seen as evidence of the processes and strategies of language acquisition. The other significance of studying errors is the feedback, through which learners’ hypothesis about the target language will be tested and modified.

5. Purpose of Error Analysis

According to Corder (1967) learner's errors can serve two purposes, diagnostic, and prognostic (p.163). It is diagnostic because it can tell us the learners understanding of a language at any given point during the learning process. It is also prognostic because it can tell the teacher to modify learning materials to face with the learners' problem. For Corder (1967), explanation is the ultimate goal of error analysis. James (1998) defines diagnosis as the task of inferring the sources of errors, while accurate description of errors is regarded as a separate task. According to Johanson (1975), error analysis is the best tool for describing and explaining errors made by second or foreign language learner.

The field of error analysis is divided into two branches: (i) theoretical, and (ii) applied. Corder (1973) mentions the notion of universality in meeting the objective of theoretical error analysis. Keshavraz (2011) states the study of errors is part of the psycholinguistic search for the universal processes of second language learning. "Determining the sequence of the presentation of target language items in textbooks and classrooms, deciding the relative degree of emphasis on material, devising remedial lessons and exercises and finally selecting items for testing the learner's proficiency are the goals of applied analysis of errors" (Sridhar, 1981, p. 221). Then the objective of applied error analysis is purely practical and pedagogical.

6. Classification of Errors

In any study of error analysis, errors have to be classified to find what kinds of errors occur more often than what others do. The task, however, is not as easy as it seems. Many of the models in error analysis classify errors into linguistic categories and then sub or sub-sub categories in hierarchical order. Keshavarz (2011) classified errors into categories and sub-categories; the main classification is Linguistic-based classification and Process-based classification. The first category is subcategorized to *orthographic*, *phonological*, *lexico-semantic* and *morpho-syntactic* (Table 1). The second one is classified according to the process of language learning, i.e. the way through which language learners make errors. The four major processes that lead to erroneous constructions, cited in the literature (Corder, 1973; McKeating, 1981; Brown, 1980; Keshavarz, 1993) are *omission*, *addition*, *substitution*, and *permutation* (Table 2).

In another category, errors can be classified as receptive and productive. Receptive errors are attributed to listener's misunderstanding of the speaker's intention, and productive errors are related to the language learners' utterances.

7. Source of Errors

In Contrastive analysis literature, the major cause of errors was interference from the learner's native language, but it is by no means considered to be the sole source for making errors. Lightbown & Spada (2010) suggested that the first language is not the single influence on second language learning, learners from different language backgrounds often make the same kind of errors, and some of these errors are remarkably similar to those made by first language learners. An investigation into the types of errors reveals that the sources of errors may be attributed to two major transfers: interlingual and intralingual transfer (Brown, 1980). The initial stages of learning a second language are characterized by interlingual transfer from native language. Brown (1980) suggested that before the learner becomes familiar with the system of L2, the native language is the only linguistic system upon which the language learner can draw (interlingual error). On the other hand, Richards (1974) consider intralingual errors as negative transfer of language items within the target language.

Furthermore, Richards (1971) cites four major types or causes of intralingual (developmental) errors:

- (1) *Overgeneralization*: overgeneralization is a process, in which a learner extends the use of a grammatical rule beyond its accepted uses. (Richards et al, 1989).
- (2) *Incomplete application of rules*: It involves the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. These kinds of errors lead to systematic errors (Meenakshi, 2004, p.18). Subject-verb agreement can be one example of this type of error.
- (3) *Ignorance of rule restrictions*: This type of error is due to the learner's ignorance of the restrictions of and exceptions to general target language rules.
- (4) *False concepts hypothesized*: *False concepts hypothesized* occur when learners do not completely understand a distinction in the target language. (Ellis, 1996; Richards, 1995). This concept is named False Analogy by Keshavarz (2011).

Later, Richards (1974) reiterated six sources of errors, that is to say, (1) overgeneralization, (2) interference, (3) performance errors and markers of transitional competence, (4) strategies of communication and assimilation and (6) teacher-induced errors. In another study by Schuman & Stenson (1974), they stated three major causes of errors. (1) Incomplete acquisition of the target grammar, (2) exigencies of the learning/ teaching situation and (3) errors due to normal problems of language performance. In a more recent classification by Keshavarz (2011), in which classification is based on the primary causes of errors, he presented a more comprehensive taxonomy of the sources of errors. However, there are some degrees of overlapping with previous categorization (Figure 1).

8. Steps in Error Analysis

One of the most common problems in understanding the linguistic systems of both L1 & L2 learners is the fact that such systems are not directly observable. However, they can be inferred by analyzing comprehension and production data. Compared to research on language comprehension, there is as yet not that much experimental research on language production (Schmitt, 2002, p.139). One reason is, the kind of careful manipulation of the stimuli in comprehension studies, cannot be done in a similar way in language production. In contrast, in the area of Error Analysis Keshavarz (2011) states, in general it is easier to detect productive errors, i.e., errors that occur in the speech or writing of the second language learner as opposed to errors in the receptive skills, i.e. reading and listening comprehension. This is because productive linguistic behavior is easily observable, whereas receptive behavior is not. Therefore, in determining steps in error analysis the kind of data, i.e. comprehension or production data should be taken into account.

Corder (1974) specified three steps in practical aspects of error analysis.

(1) Collection of sample errors

Here the corpus of language is selected for error analysis. The corpus should be adequate for any error analysis. There are certain procedures for collecting data, Keshavarz (2011) arguing about two types of data-collecting procedures: (a) spontaneous, and (b) elicited, states that the job of such procedures is either to provoke a language learner into producing linguistic response or to examine his intuition regarding the grammaticality of an utterance presented to him.

(2) Identification of errors

Corder (197) proposed a model for identification of erroneous or idiosyncratic utterances in a second language. According to this model, any sentence uttered by the learner and subsequently transcribed can be analyzed for idiosyncrasies. Here a distinction is made between overt and covert errors. The difficulties lie in the fact that what sounds like an acceptable utterance may contain errors. Such utterances may seem grammatical and acceptable at the sentence level (overtly erroneous), but unacceptable in intersentential level (covertly erroneous).

(3) Description of errors

Here an explanation and interpretation of learners' errors will be put forward. If the learners are accessible, we can identify his intention by asking him to express his intention in his mother tongue. Keshavarz (2011) named this, an *authoritative interpretation* and an *authoritative reconstruction* of the learner's sentence in an acceptable form. However, if we don't have access to the learners, we had to infer what they intended to say from his

utterance, its context and his knowledge of the target language. This is called a plausible interpretation, and the corresponding reconstruction is only a plausible reconstruction (Keshavarz, 2011, p.79).

9. Error Correction

Different second language acquisition theories have different views toward the language errors produced by a second language learner. The behavioristic theory states that errors should be avoided at all cost, i.e. through overlearning. In contrast, interlanguage theorists see errors as idiosyncrasies in the learner's L2 system, which should be considered only in regard to the target language. Both interactionalists and cognitivists believe that focusing the learner's attention to the correct form will activate learning. For Corder (1967), errors are the evidence of the learner's internal syllabus and the imminent difference between input and intake. To James (1998), error correction has three different degrees: intervention feedback, correction proper and remediation.

In the first level, the learner through intervention feedback is informed that there is an error, which is left to be corrected by a learner him/herself. The correction proper provides treatment, which lead to correction and revision of that particular error. The third level or degree of error correction provides the learner with information that allows him/her to revise the linguistic rule. Both of the correction proper and remediation draw the learner's attention to the problem (Ellis, 1996; Mitchel & Myles, 1998) and offer covert (implicit) or overt (explicit) ways to the solution. Dodigovic (2005) states that James (1998) criterion for the division is the diagnostic power of error treatment. Considering these points some suggestions for error correction can be proposed.

Whenever correction or improvement is done, great consideration should be given to individual differences. Garrett (1995), Oxford (1995) and James (1998) point out that individual difference between learners may play a major role in specifying what kind of feedback is more effective. The other criterion proposed by Huang (2002) is the context in which error correction or improvement is done. The next criterion is the intensity of error. Zamel (1985) states that distinguishing between minor and serious errors may be a good guide in deciding what to correct. Presuppositions (a set of extralinguistic facts), learner intended and pragmatic meaning, should also be taken into account in any correction and improvement.

10. Errors in CALL

When speaking about linguistic errors in CALL, 'detection', 'identification', 'correction' and 'diagnosis' of errors are important concepts, which should be taken into account. Clear

definitions of such terms are rarely provided in CALL. Then establishing a link between theories of error analysis in general linguistic and that of CALL seems to be very difficult. In the worst case, they are not existent and in the best case, they are implicit and are not clear.

The need for error diagnosis in CALL like any other second language learning way in order to provide convenient feedback is vital. Reliable error diagnosis systems would allow users/authors to overcome the limitation of multiple-choice questions and fill-in-the-blanks types of exercises and to present the more communicative tasks to learners (L'Haire&Faltin, 2003, 481). One of the earliest known programs for educational purposes that were dealing with human language was Page's Project Essay Grade (PEG), launched in 1966. The program could grade student essays with the reliability similar to the human graders' reliability. As well as the numerous versions of PEG, alternative programs emerged over the years. Among them, Latent Semantic analysis or Latent Semantic Indexing which is a mathematical/statistical technique for extracting and representing the similarity of meaning of words and passages by analysis of large bodies of text, e-rater, question answering system and short-answer system can be mentioned. In any case, fluency is measured in different words used, total number of words, commas and the number of sentences; spelling is considered by difference between common and uncommon words; diction is based on word length; sentence structure is represented by the number of sentences and mean sentence's length, and punctuation is expressed as frequency of punctuation signs and paragraph development is indicated by the number of paragraphs and mean length of them.

One of the features and uses of these programs is that students can enter their essays into an online format and receive immediate feedback, which includes the grade and suggestions for revision. The style module indicates redundant and malformed sentences, and the mechanic's module indicates grammatical and spelling errors. Miller (2003) reports that students like getting instant feedback and consequently, being able to improve their writing. Moreover, e-rater has been successfully used in the grading of non-native speaker writing within the framework of Test of Written English (Dodigovic, 2005, p.104). However, there are two types of concerns on automatic essay grading. According to Wresch (1993), the first one came from the efforts to introduce creativity into writing and move away from the grammar and punctuation, and the other type of concern arises from the social theories of learning that focus mainly on communicative language learning and practice. The same concerns can be attributed to error analysis in CALL, according to Tschichold (2003), at least at the moment, what is left for computers to do, is to focus on low-level errors of spelling, morphology, and certain parts of syntax (p.551). So it can be suggested that in this regard,

CALL does not look at the sentence as whole but as sum of isolated elements. Furthermore, many of these programs are developed for assessment purpose, rather than learning. So the need for a more "learning-focused" error analysis program is crucial.

The next step in the process is giving feedback in regard to the identified error which will be discussed in the next section.

11. Feedback and reinforcement in CALL

In the following, one of the crucial terms within the context of learner errors, particularly those which are related to CALL will be discussed. For instance, the term feedback has been defined differently in this particular context. James (1998) defines the term feedback as a specific type of response to error, but gives no specific description or diagnosis. On the other hand, many other SLA theorists (Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Ellis, 1997; Doughty, 2001; Gregg, 2001) and the majority of CALL specialists (Heift & Schulze, 2003; Cowan et al, 2003; Maingard, 1999; Kreindler, 1998), seem to extend the meaning of the term to include any type of information returned to the learner after accomplishing production or comprehension task. Instrumental conditioning theory gives the meaning of feedback as the link between stimulus and response. On the other hand, it seems that the term feedback in cognitive psychology does not have the same significance. Behaviorism related the term feedback to term 'reinforcement'. "In CALL, the emphasis may have initially been on the behavioristic sense of the term feedback" (Dodigovic, 2005, p.93). Kreindler (1998) states that simple correct/incorrect feedback had been the type of response that CALL programs offered most frequently.

12. Treatment of Errors in CALL

Modern computers allow the students to practice and get feedback on both their written and spoken output. Here the major trends in written and spoken error identification and treatment within the framework of CALL will be analyzed.

12.1. Written Errors

Considering written errors, Dodigovic (2005) identifies three ways in which a computer can identify and treat a linguistic error produced by a L2 learner.

It can either perform a pattern matching operation; use a parser or a hybrid system in which parsing is combined with string matching in an efficient way. Parsing itself can be performed by variety parser types. It can also vary according to the way it recognizes and responds to errors or can have a modularity which allows it to take the linguistic levels of the student's output separately and therefore perhaps more efficiently. (Dodigovic, 2005, p.109).

of pre-determined and expected answers. A CALL program that takes advantage of this technology is Understanding Spoken Japanese (Yoshii & Milne, 1995). It involves an Answer

Pattern Manager (APM), which allows a user to detect a wide variety of misspelling, to identify the incorrect word order, to detect missing sentence's parts and to handle a combination of the above. Before going further, it is essential to define *parser* which is a concept in CALL. Holland *et al.* (1993) define parsers as NLP(Natural Language Processing) engines, which compose and decompose natural language utterances by using the rules which represent syntax thus addressing the sentence structures in a language. Parser takes input in sentence length, break it down into components, and map these against a computational grammar. According to Holland *et al.* (1993), the output is a structural analysis that tells whether and to which rules the sentences fit. We have so far defined parser and examined the way in which a parser can identify an error. The next step is giving feedback in regard to the identified error. Some CALL specialists believe in giving feedback to only one error per utterance at a time (for example, example Holland *et al.* 1993); others feel more relaxed about this issue. Here it is essential to distinguish between the primary error and all other errors. The primary errors, which are considered communicatively significant, receive feedback per default, while secondary errors are not considered communicatively significant and therefore, feedback to those errors is optional. The feedback given to L2 learner should have some characteristics. Van der Linden (1993, cited in Heift, 2003) made three recommendations regarding CALL feedback: (1) feedback needs to be the accurate, (2) one error message at a time should be displayed, and (3) explanations for a particular error should be kept short. Reeder *et al.* (1999) states that error feedback in ICALL should be more conversational. These authors are in contrast these view that the system should respond in a way that acknowledges both error identification and correction. It can be concluded, according to Dodigovic (2004), that intelligent error identification and diagnosis systems, as far as written language is concerned, can be quite sophisticated and use a number of subsystems combined with a variety of processing levels, making them almost human and truly intelligent.

12.2. *Speech Errors*

“Below a certain level, even if grammar and vocabulary are completely correct, effective communication cannot take place without correct pronunciation” (Eskenazi, 1999, p.62). When dealing with error diagnosis and correction of speaking skill in CALL, we should consider computational phonetics and phonology. Computational phonetics and phonology are sub-discipline of computational linguistics that is applied in two distinctive approaches: speech synthesis and speech analysis. Speech-related error analysis can be based on these two

approaches. In both of them, linguistic knowledge at the phonological, lexical, semantic, grammatical and pragmatic level should be taken into account.

Ehsani&Knodt (1998) discussing the role of computers in correcting language errors state that in the area of pronunciation computers can capture deviations from the expected and provide feedback that does not depend on the student's own perception. This is applicable on both the segmental and suprasegmental level. Suprasegmental features include pitch, intonation, stress and rhythm; segmental features are quality, duration, pitch and loudness. Following the traditional theoretical linguistics in the past which focused on speech sounds (segmental), a number of early CALL programs also focus on the segmental level. Such kind of distinctions could be invaluable when making decisions of what kind of feedback a system may offer.

13. Conclusion

Computers have played a significant role in educational setting and second language learning is not an exception. Nowadays, we can see automated evaluation systems and e-raters, which are both cost-effective and reliable. In this paper, I discussed a brief review of error analysis in general linguistics and that of CALL in particular. While error analysis theory in general linguistic has been defined long time, as far as this study is concerned, there is no clear and accredited error analysis theory or classification in CALL. I also discussed the significance of error and error correction both in general linguistic and CALL. Errors serve as an important way for researchers and teachers to see the learning process and learning strategies used by a second language learner. As educational systems look for new ways to use technologies in classrooms, a new genre can be defined for both written and spoken language in CALL and therefore, a new classification of errors both in theoretical and applied error analysis can be proposed, which is left to be done by CA and CALL specialists.

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Appendix

Table 1: Linguistic based errors (Keshavarz, 2011)

	Errors caused by the inconsistencies of English spelling system.
<i>Orthographic</i>	
<i>Phonological</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of certain TL Phonemes in the Learner's NL • Differences in the Syllable Structure of L1 & L2 • Spelling Pronunciation of words • The problem of Silent Letters
<i>Lexico-Semantic</i>	Errors related to the semantic properties of lexical items.
<i>Syntactic Errors</i>	Errors related to syntax and grammar

Table 2: Process-based classification of errors (Corder, 1973; McKeating, 1981; Brown, 2000; Keshavarz, 2011)

<i>Omission</i>	Leaving out some required linguistic elements
<i>Addition</i>	Redundant use of certain elements in a sentence
<i>Substitution</i>	Replacement of incorrect elements for correct ones
<i>Permutation</i>	Incorrect word order

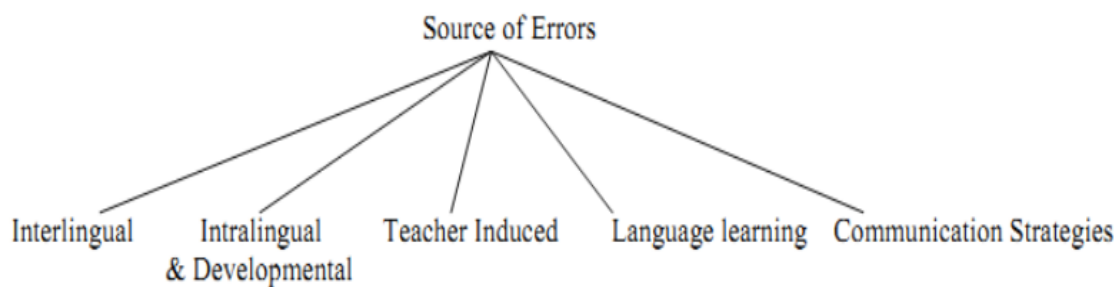


Figure 1: Keshavarz (2011) classification of sources of errors

Title

A Pioneer in Off-Off Broadway Drama

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Biodata

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Abstract

Off-Off-Broadway drama is a movement after Off-Broadway drama and its playwrights dramatize instability of the characters and discontinuity of their language. These playwrights depict characters that refashion themselves and improvise their identities. One of the most prominent and prolific playwright of this movement is Sam Shepard. His characters, like most of the plays written by his contemporaries in this kind of drama, is “unfixed” and “fragmented”, or are in “state of crisis.” His characters’ language is also fragmented and fractured and they inhabit different roles and selves and fragment during the course of the play. Since Shepard has also been under the influence of Joseph Chaikin and his movement, his characters go under transformations, fluctuate during the play and adopt several roles to speak several languages which are juxtaposed and superimposed simultaneously; languages, which are a range of borrowings, fragmentary and pieced together. This article studies the playwright and his plays.

Keywords: Off-Off Broadway, Dramatic literature, Fragmentation and transformation of character and language

1. Introduction

1.1 Off Broadway and Off-Off Broadway drama

Early playwrights of the Twentieth Century and their contemporaries considered their success by Broadway standards. Subsequent decades saw a shift of theatrical energy away from

Broadway. The causes were in part economic. By 1960 there were just over thirty Broadway theatres, down by nearly two-thirds from the pre-war period. The financial risks created a cautious theatrical climate, which rewarded the well-tested formula and broad appeal. Experimental works moved to Off-Broadway. One of these experimental playwrights of this movement was Edward Albee who appeared at the end of fifties with a series of short plays.

This kind of drama then moved to Off-Off-Broadway and then to the provinces and the streets, as alternatives to the escalating costs and generally predictable limits of the commercial theatre. Sam Shepard is one of the products of Off-Off-Broadway theatre. This kind of drama as Bigsby (1985) says, “created a climate” for Shepard in which he could write his plays, and it did not take him long to become one of its greatest products. His renown continued to ascend as the cafe-house theatre scenes declined.

Always prolific and inventive, the playwright found persistent success despite the changing economics, production approaches, and audience tastes of American theatre. Sam Shepard’s works have fascinated counter-culture audience with its lyrical outbursts and energy. Shepard has shown great potential as a dramatist, and has written more than forty plays since he first began writing in the mid sixties.

1.2 The influence of Open Theater and Joseph Chaikin

In his plays, mostly in his early plays, Sam Shepard uses the “transformational technique” of the Open Theatre. He joined the Open Theatre in 1964, which was established by Joseph Chaikin a year earlier. Chaikin himself was one of the actors of Antonin Artaud’s Living Theatre who left the company and began his own group. Although Shepard did not stay for a long time with this group and his direct involvement with the Open Theatre was brief, but his work with them made a powerful impression on the development of his drama.

In this technique, according to Richard Gilman (1981) the actors switch immediately from one scene “to a new scene and therefore wholly new characters” (xv). This situation creates double and sometimes multiple natures for a character. The group’s interest in the transformation of character as a person separate from his/her role in the play, through his/her experience on the stage, drew attention through reflection to the way in which a person in life creates the self by adopting various roles. Paul Feldman (1974) a member of the Open Theatre, says that the task of the Open Theatre is: “To make visible onstage those levels of reality, which usually are not expressed in situations: the elusive, irrational, fragile mysterious, or monstrous lives within our lives: the elements of personality - which lie beyond the roles we assume as our identity - to confront elements of dream, myth, fantasy, and ritual as well as social and moral problems - to express the fragmentation and multiplicity

of experience, and the inconsistency of internal and external ‘truth’ about character of events - to break down the actor’s reliance upon rational choices, mundane social realism and water-down Freud, and to release his unconscious through non-rational, spontaneous action celebrating the actor’s own perceptions about modern life” (p.174-75).

Being influenced by the Open Theatre, Shepard’s characters are obliged to change and refashion themselves. The critic Bonnie Marranca (1981) writes: “The transformation of character has a fluid relationship to changing realities.” Unlike the characters in “realistic” drama who are “fixed” and “chase the definition,” she suggests that Shepard’s characters play “fragments, gaps, transformations – the breaks in continuity” (p.14). Bottoms (1998) believes: “Shepard’s work is dominated, and indeed distinguished, by patterns of internal tension and contradiction, by loose ends and uncertainties, which – far from obstructing the plays creation of meaning – operate to generate a plethora of possible meaning” (ix). So, the contradiction becomes an integral part of the meaning of the work.

In the same way, Richard Gilman (1981) writes: “The reason so many of them seem incomplete is that they lack the clear boundaries as artifact, the internal order, the progress to a denouement (of some kind: a crystallization, a summarizing image, a poise in the mind) and the consistency of tone and procedure that ordinarily characterize good drama, even the most avant – grade drama of the postwar time” (xvii – xviii).

He has an excellent ear for ordinary language and speech. He also has the ability to use this everyday speech and ordinary language in a poetic and rhythmical pattern, and gives his language a poetic and lyrical power. Sam Shepard has wonderfully used different rhythms of speech in his works. In the plays that he has written in different phases of his playwriting, we can find different languages and different rhythms. It is in this way that Shepard’s characters are always sharply individualized in their speech patterns and their style of speaking. For Shepard who is a musician, and played drums with the Holy Modal Rounders, speech and writing is equated with musical rhythms. This very idea has been transferred into his plays and they develop from musical and rhythmical structures. In the same way Shepard’s dialogues imitate musical and rhythmical phrasing. The musical rhythms, which are used in most of his plays, also account for the improvisatory style and actual character conception.

2. Discussion

As a young playwright, Sam Shepard has been able to express his experiences in the mid-sixties and seventies. His early plays depict the innovation and the experimentation of the

sixties in American drama. In this period Shepard was inspired by Beat Generation poets and writers. In his article "Language, Visualization and the Inner Library," he writes about that experience: "I've practiced Jack Kerouac's discovery of jazz-sketching with words. Following the exact same principles as a musician does when he's jamming" (1981, p.217). He is clearly suggesting that writing process requires inspiration and has the power to reveal the unknown. In the same article he mentions: "I feel a lot of reluctance in attempting to describe any part of a process which, by its truest nature, holds unending mystery" (p.214), and when he is asked why he writes; Shepard answers: "I try to go into parts of myself that are unknown. And I think that those parts are related to everybody. They are not unique to me. They're not my personal domain" (Lippman:1984, p. 21). Having such a viewpoint Shepard develops his vision about writing plays.

In Off-Off Broadway drama a character is a role-playing self, having no definite identity within the text. An actor is confronted with a difficult task of presenting this role-playing self on the stage. As a character in the play, he/she plays the role of an actor playing various roles in the presence of other characters. In this sense the play becomes a metaphor for theatre and highlights the tension/interplay between the performative and dramatic text, which is built up within the play.

It also emphasizes the fact that what is being performed is merely an allusion of reality, merely a "play," a fictive dramatic text. Sam Shepard's characters since his early plays were produced at Theatre Genesis in the 1960s, like the playwright himself, have been drifting for about forty years. During all these years the playwright has been a drifter. From his early years, since he was a child, Shepard moved from one city to another when nineteen, he left his California home and went to New York, then moved from New York to England. Coming back to America he went to Northern California, to Southwest to Virginia and to St. Paul, Minnesota and also to other cities.

In his plays, Shepard uses words in what seems to be an improvisational manner. Just as the jazz musician uses notes and phrases, Shepard says he uses words "as tools of imagery in motion" (Shepard:1981, p. 216). He then continues: "I have the feeling that the cultural environment one is raised in, predetermines a rhythmical relationship to the words. In this sense, I can't be anything other than an American writer" (p.216). So, for Sam Shepard the geography and the place where one lives, determines the rhythmical patterns and creativity. Shepard has actually developed the ideas of "jazz improvisation" and "local space," specifically in *Angel City* and *Geography of a Horse Dreamer* and some other plays..

Some of his plays like, *Cowboys #2*, *Cowboy Mouth*, *The Mad Dog Blues*, *The Tooth of*

Crime, Geography of a Horse Dreamer, Angel City, Buried Child and *Fool for Love*, have characters from American popular culture. They are cowboys, musicians, rock-and-roll stars, pop singers, science-fiction images, shamans, farmers, mobsters, gangsters, cinematic figures and movie icons. In these plays Shepard also brings characters from old and modern American myths. In all these different plays, Shepard's characters speak differently and each character has his own voice. Shepard himself is also very sensitive to these different voices.

In an interview with Pete Hamil (1983) he said: "I prefer a character that is constantly unidentifiable, shifting through the actor, so that the actor could play anything, and the audience is never expected to identify with the character" (p.98).

In his dramatic career, especially in his early plays, Shepard practices an on-going exploration of the realms of the self, situated in the landscape of consciousness. It reflects his early years of playwriting as an Off-Off-Broadway playwright, experimenting with drugs. Shepard wrote that the main idea, which persists for him from that time, is "the idea of consciousness" ("American Experimental", p.212). Here, Shepard refers to the self-reflexive quality of experimental theatre – plays about theatre, plays about play, plays about performing a role. Critics believe that writing for Shepard is a performance of the self, something he passes on to his characters that create a shifting sense of self, which their potential for transformation is capable of performing.

Sam Shepard's concept of character in his early plays - in 1970s and 1980s – is a fragmented and a fractured one. His characters are not "integrated subjects." They fragment and transform during the play. His characters have no essential self but are sites of continually shifting subjectivity. Because of all this, Shepard's conception of character is considered to be postmodern. His ability to make use of postmodern techniques in dramatizing his characters has provided the way for the postmodern analysis of his characters.

Shepard's "Note to the Actor" at the beginning of *Angel City*, clearly depicts his use of postmodern and transformation techniques. In this "Note" he says: "Instead of the idea of 'whole character' with logical motives behind his behaviour which the actor submerges himself into, he should consider instead a fractured whole with bits and pieces of character flying off the central theme. In other words, more in terms of collage construction or jazz improvisation." He then adds that the actor should be "mixing many different underlying elements and connecting them through his intuition and senses to make a kind of music or painting in space." In the same "Note" he continues: "If there needs to be a 'motivation' for some of the abrupt changes, which occur in the play they can be taken as full-blown

manifestation of a passing thought or fantasy, having as much significance or ‘meaning’ as they do in ordinary lives the only difference is that here the actor makes note of it and brings it to life in three dimensions” (*Angel City*. p. 6).

The concept of character as a “collage,” an improvisation, and a constant shifting, is truly an idea which worked in the plays of his first phase of playwriting and naturally moved into his later plays namely, his realistic family plays. Like Shepard’s improvisational notion of character, the language of his characters is also a complete discontinuity of discourse. His characters’ language is a “combination” of different voices, and a complete range of borrowings.

One of Shepard’s significant skills as a playwright is his ability to dramatize instability of the characters and discontinuity of their language. From his earliest one-act plays to his realistic family plays, Shepard portrays characters that refashion themselves and improvise their identities within a matrix of constraints whether these constraints are cultural, familial or personal. In Shepard’s drama his characters appear to be “unfixed” and “fragmented” as Bigsby (1985) says, or as Bottoms (1998) indicates are in “state of crisis.” They are given opportunity to perform with voice and gesture on the theme of self. The picture and the idea of the self which is projected in Shepard’s plays, is that of the self continually subject to fracture and change. His characters’ language is also fractured and they inhabit different roles and selves and fragment during the course of the play, and thus damage the continuity of the narrative in the play.

As a result, creating a unified picture of Shepard’s works becomes a difficult task. Like many other critics who have commented on the problematic nature of analyzing Shepard’s plays, Richard Gilman (1981) who has clearly seen the point, states: “Shepard’s work resists division into periods, stages of growth or development [...] Shepard doesn’t move from theme to theme or image to image in the separate plays; he doesn’t conquer a dramatic territory and move on, doesn’t extend his grasp or refine it.” He then adds: “What he does from play to play is lunge forward, move sideways, double back, circle round, throw in this or that, adopt a voice then drop it, pick it up again” (xvii). Although writing about Shepard’s plays as Gilman (1981) says, is a challenging task, but throughout his career certain themes emerge in his plays: The theme of art and the role of the artist in society, familial relationships, male-female relationships, the individual’s connection to his past, identity and the quest for roots, and the theme of violence and menace.

Shepard’s treatment of the American society and its culture is fragmented and inconsistent. Critics often talk about contradiction which is found in Shepard’s works.

Bottoms (1998) for example, argues that Shepard's entire career can be viewed through his fondness for conflicts and discord. He also comments that Shepard's plays "end not in resolutions but with abrupt anticlimaxes, unexplained images, or the suggestion of tensions continuing indefinitely into the future. They do not restore equilibrium" (p.3). All these comments reflect Richard Gilman's (1981) argument who asserts: "Most of his plays seem like fragments, chunks of various sizes thrown out from some mother lode of urgent and heterogeneous imagination in which he has scabbled with pick, shovel, gunbutt and hands" (xvii). Shepard's plays resist resolution, often ending in states of suspension and ambivalence. In an interview with Carol Rosen, Shepard said that "endings are just a pain" (p.39).

In most of his plays, especially his early plays, Shepard has concentrated on the American male experience (*Cowboys #2*, *Geography of a Horse Dreamer*, *The Tooth of Crime* and *Chicago* for example). In these plays, he presents a sort of male bonding relationship, which is actually a dramatic model in these plays. Bonnie Marranca (1981) has clearly noticed to the presentation of male bonding relationship in Shepard's plays and has written that as if Shepard "is unaware of what is happening between men and women". She then adds: "The voice – of consciousness, of he emotions, of reason, of triumph, and of failure, too – and finally of America – is a man's voice" (p.30).

This kind of playwriting continued until he wrote his realistic family plays. Shepard himself has accepted this, when he said that he believed there is more mystery between men. For many years in his career, Shepard did not create a female character who is as independent as his male characters, until he wrote his family plays: *Curse of the Starving Class*, *Buried Child* and specifically *Fool for Love*.

Shepard's early plays depict the playwright's life and its different aspects. His departure and separation from the family and fragmentation are shown in his plays. In these plays, fragmentation is an aesthetic principle no less than a fact of character or social relations. Little by little it becomes an aspect of deeper alienation, a division within the self, which relates to a division between self and its context.

Shepard's early plays and the plays of his second phase of playwriting, represent a search for identity, a quest for roots and permanence; meantime he illustrates the pitfalls of this research. These plays depict a search for home and identity within the contemporary American culture. From his early one-act plays to his realistic family plays, Shepard's characters are looking for their roots and identities. In *Cowboys #2*, the characters are looking for their identities. In *The Mad Dog Blues*, the characters in search of their roots and

identities travel to different cities, go to a jungle and long to return home. In *Cowboy Mouth* they wish to return to their families and homes, somewhere, which is their “place.” In *Geography of Horse Dreamer*, the characters long to return to their geography, some place, which is their “space.” In *Buried Child* the characters come back a long way home in search of their identities and inheritance. The characters in *Fourteen Hundred Thousand*, build structures for home. In *Action*, the characters try to live in a new home. In *Fool for Love*, the characters try to start a new life and in *True West*, the characters return to the current domain of a parent.

Sam Shepard’s works and his plays respond to a sense of anxiety that expresses itself in a fragmented world and in fractured and fragmentary images or in a broken and a fractured language full of ambiguity. In a culture in which style becomes both a necessary act of covering and uncovering truth, Sam Shepard creates plays in which style becomes a primary language and a key to private and public meaning.

As Shepard is a product of Off-Off-Broadway theatre, in his early works he valued fantasy, spontaneity and the authenticity of feeling. These early plays are often surreal images with fractured and unrevised language, and there is no logical connection between the words, actions and deeds of the characters. There is always a force in these early plays that threatens to deform language, character and imagery. His characters that transform throughout the play are just gestures or sometimes caricatures and players in his works.

Shepard’s early plays are products of his creative energy and his imagination. As he himself has said, these plays depict a sense of “*play*” as in kids. These early plays such as *Cowboys #2* are often fantastic world of the characters. These works are mostly short plays, non-realistic works and filled with fantastic twists of narrative and lacking closure. In these early plays, which are actually deviances from the traditional understanding of dramatic form and structure, and are written under the influence of Open Theatre, versions of plot, character, language and linearity have little place, comparing to the same notions in traditional works.

In his plays, we see that his characters are mostly the divided parts of one: May and Eddie in *Fool for Love*, Chet and Stu in *Cowboys #2*, Kosomo and Yahoodi in *The Mad Dog Blues*, Cavale and Slim in *Cowboy Mouth*, Hoss and Crow in *The Tooth of Crime* perhaps resemble Shepard’s split parts of personality and his different sides. The critic Robert Mazzacco (1985) sees Shepard’s paired characters as “virtually opposite sides of the same coin” (p.80).

In *Cowboy Mouth* and *The Tooth of Crime* Shepard has used a combination of speeches from the counter/culture worlds of rock-and-roll, astrology, cowboys, sports, gangsters, big

business and crime. The music and the songs in each play, act as prelude for the entire play and it affects the characters. In these two plays, Shepard's characters are, rock-and-roll stars, disk jockies, characters from science-fiction films, gangsters, astrologists, lone heroes and characters from the world of modern American myths. The characters of these plays throw words at each other like weapons and wound each other with the destructive power of language. A language which is a combination of American slangs, rock talk, cowboy and gangster talk, language of movies and punk talk. This kind of language is a codified energetic one, which the characters throw at each other.

Shepard's characters in these plays are fighting for power, because the plays are about the power, the source of the play and the style that the characters use in their speeches is about the power. They "usurp" each other's territory and steal each other's "turf." The language of the characters, which is actually a combination and a hybrid language of picture shows and secret codes, becomes a signal of power and danger having incantatory and mysterious energy. These plays have the quality of dreams and are a mix of reality and fantasy. The heroes are old and out of their time and existing only as pure performance, gestures and styles.

In *Cowboys #2* and *Geography of Horse Dreamer*, Shepard's characters are either cowboys or transform themselves into cowboys. In *Cowboys #2*, Shepard brings characters with no substance whose persistent optimism becomes the root of irony. In both plays, the characters jump in and out of cowboy characterizations a little too fast. Like *Cowboy Mouth* and *The Tooth of Crime*, in these two plays, Shepard also uses a mixed language. In *Cowboys #2* and *Geography of a Horse Dreamer*, Shepard brings cowboys, gangsters, artists and characters from big industries on the stage and uses a combination of cowboy talk, language of artists, shamans, gangsters, dog trainers and Irish dialect. His characters in these two plays are fragmented characters in search of their identity, characters that use a fractured and broken language, a language which is actually a range of borrowings. They all fluctuate between self and the other and fracture into opposites.

As compared to the other plays, Shepard's language in these two plays is prose and like his other plays, he does not use songs in them. Shepard's prose language in these two plays, is full of dreams, visions and visuals. Later in his playwriting, this becomes the main element of his drama. In *The Mad Dog Blues* and *Angel City*, where his characters have visions, visuals and their monologues are full of pictures and images; we see that Shepard has used this technique at its best. Shepard's characters in these early plays frequently walk at the edge of insanity. They are drifters and seekers after truth in which they can no longer believe.

Shepard has always described his approach to playwriting like music. In an interview with Lippman (1984), he says: “I think of [playwriting] more like music. If you play an instrument and you meet somebody else who plays an instrument, and the two of you sit down and start to play music, it’s really interesting to see where that music goes [...] It might not go anywhere you thought it would go” (p.11).

About his early plays, in the same interview, Shepard explained: “You take two characters and you set them in motion. It’s very interesting to follow this thing that they’re on [...] it’s like getting on a wild horse” (p.11). His early plays are not heavily plotted and as he puts it in the metaphor of “wild horse,” it is clear that he is speaking of spontaneity and freedom in his plays.

These early plays, come out of Shepard’s playfulness under the influence of music, especially jazz music. This quality of his playwriting, later become his trademark; the quality which he extended in his later plays, *The Mad Dog Blues* and *Angel City*. In an interview, Shepard said: “Jazz could move in surprising territories, without qualifying itself. You could follow a traditional melody and then break away, and then come back, or drop into polyrhythms. You could have three, four things going on simultaneously. But, more important, it was an emotional thing. You could move in all these emotional territories and you could do it with passion. (Hamill:1983, p. 90)

Shepard’s characters in *The Mad Dog Blues* and *Angel City* these two plays are related to musical harmonies and travel through the domains of consciousness. In his plays, Shepard presents expressive examples of this conception of character.

In *The Mad Dog Blues* and *Angel City* Shepard brings his characters from the world of modern and old American mythology; Hollywood movies and American Indian tribes. In myth, Shepard sees “a sense of mystery” and in language, especially in the rhythms of language of these plays he sees a necessary means to provoke what amounts almost to a mystical sense of being. In *The Mad Dog Blues* and *Angel City*, Shepard has found a powerful sense behind the words, a sense that amounts to a description equally of his style and his objective.

The characters in these two plays like the characters in his other plays, are alone and alienated from the society they are living in. This loneliness that features his characters is the product of the social alienation in American society. They are also a lament, a lament which we can identify in his plays. In a very interesting way, Shepard presents it through Miss Scoons language in *Angel City*: “The ambition to transform valleys into cities. To transform the unknown into the known without really knowing. To make things safe. To beat death. To

be victorious in the face of absolute devastation” (p.32).

Although Shepard had proved as a great Off-Off-Broadway playwright, but he was not fully considered as a major contributor in the mainstream of American drama until he wrote his family realistic plays. When his *Buried Child* won the Pulitzer Prize, he was truly considered as one of the greatest American playwrights of the twentieth century.

Though in his early plays Shepard considered his characters as “a fractured whole with bits and pieces of character flying off the central theme,” in his later realistic family plays, his jazz-style characterization remained upto some extent. His characters in this kind of drama also fluctuate, erupt, fracture and undergo transformation.

In *Buried Child* and *Fool for Love*, which we have also had a thematic approach, Shepard depicts the impossibility of escaping the heritage and the reality of the characters’ past. In these family plays, his characters begin to understand their inability to escape their past, and sins of fathers are to be visited upon their sons. When the characters confront their heritage, they acknowledge its fragmentary and its fractured world.

Shepard’s sense of society in *Fool for Love* and *Buried Child* is fractured and fragmented. It is a society, which is destroying itself from within as without. Like his other plays, these two plays are works in which mood and tones are a primary concern. In these plays, parents, brothers, lovers and friends are at odds. These characters do not have sense of sharing anything but fear. For the characters of both *Fool for Love* and *Buried Child*, past is as problematic as present, the only certainty lies in feelings of the characters, which are denied even as they are articulated.

In *Fool for Love* all the constituent parts of the past are problematic. Different texts compete in the play. Versions of the real coexist with no privilege granted to any one of them. What does appear to be granted is some authority to feeling, though this is in constant, characterized by fluctuating pressure, pulses of attraction and repulsion that suggests an uncertain sense of the real or at the very least a real that shifts disturbingly at the level of language image and relationship.

In *Buried Child* also the past is as problematic as present. Shepard’s characters in this play are also problematic, in the way that they are not “complete” and their inconsistencies prove that they are not the characters when they are realistically concerned. Because Shepard’s realism is “unfixed” his characters are also “unfixed” and lack the inner force, which resides in the characters of psychologically realistic drama.

3. Conclusion

There are certain difficulties in writing about Shepard and this arises from his plays. Shepard's plays contain conflicts and contradictions. He often creates destabilized and fragmented characters that undergo numerous transformations and change their personas.

In Shepard's early plays the characters is not conceived as dense with social experience and language not as exposing truth or clarifying relationships. This was actually the kind of theatre and playwriting that was in accordance with the Off-Off-Broadway theatre. Shepard and the other writers were working in an age in which the unconscious was to be liberated and consciousness to become the subject. In an Interview with Kenneth Chubb (1981), Shepard said: "On the Lower East Side there was special sort of culture developing. You were so close to the people who were going to the plays, there was really no difference between you and them – your own experience was their experience, so that you began to develop that consciousness of what was happening" (p.193).

Sam Shepard not only rejects the notion of plot and character in his plays, but also rejects the notion of psychological coherence. This kind of stability in his plays has always been a sense of danger and a threat. His characters are potentially the victims of a particular kind of plot, a plot that ultimately threatens their existence. In *Fool for Love* they do battle over the authority of the very fictions that they parade with such assurance. In *The Tooth of Crime* and *Cowboy_Mouth* the characters employ style as weapons, in *The Mad Dog Blues*, *Angel City*, *Cowboys #2* and *Geography of a Horse Dreamer*, his characters engage one another with images or with a language deformed by social pressure.

In Shepard's plays, what his characters observe is a fragmentation of thought, emotion and social context, but they lack any means to gain a purchase on it. All of them are offered myths generated by the media, myths that unlike those rooted more securely in the sensibility, are, finally evidence of their fragmentation rather than gestures of resistance. And the sense if not the knowledge of that fact leaves a residue of anxiety and alarm, and a nameless horror.

Character in Shepard's plays can be identified by voice, and approached in terms of Mikhail Bakhtin's (1981) notions of dialogism, multivocality, and heteroglossia, which means a plurality of voices and impulses embodied simultaneously in discourse; a cultural phenomenon in which outbursts of anarchy, multiplicity and difference, challenge the dominant culture and its legitimate discursive forms. Improvisation - a phenomenon of the multiple self - allows space for unique individual voices and style within a collective

performance. As Marvin Carlson (1996) suggests, the “creative tension between repetition and innovation” implied by Bakhtin’s dialogic model “is deeply involved in modern view of performance” (p.58).

Talking is the first step for Sam Shepard’s characters to communicate. Characters that are frank and straightforward in their speeches. They do not speak in an ironic way; they speak in a simple manner, and say what they are really thinking. The critic Bonnie Marranca (1981) has pointed out: “Shepard’s characters are accomplished storytellers because they’d rather talk than act” (p.29). In most of his plays we find the truth about the characters’ inner lives through their speeches and monologues; the truth, which reveals the character’s consciousness.

About the notion of character, in his article “Letters and Texts,” Shepard writes: “The age old idea is that a character evolves along a line, and any deviation from that has to be explained somehow. But I feel there are many voices in a person, many different people in one person, so why shouldn’t they have a chance to come out” (p.27). That is why we see that in his plays, his characters are a collection of fragments, fragmenting memories, disconnected experiences and sometimes simplified sensibilities damaged by a single dominant emotion. They are alienated characters that are separated from their homes.

Shepard’s language is filled with word images, slangs, cowboy talk, language of shamans and language from the worlds of rock-and-roll, pop, films and gangsters. Critics believe that Shepard has an excellent ear for language as spoken by range of characters. John Lahr is one of these critics who considers Shepard as a talented one. He believes: “As a writer Shepard fits no mould [...] Abundant in talent and paradox, Shepard’s plays flush out the hidden terrors of a society also abundant in escape” (“A Ghost”, p.61).

Shepard’s characters change their personas by changes in their speeches. For him, language is never just words on a page. He creates a special language of discovery, definition and redefinition in an attempt to uncover truth or meaning. Shepard himself believes: “Language can explode from the tiniest impulse. If I’m right inside the character in the moment, I can catch what he smells, sees, feels and touches. In a sudden flash, he opens his eyes and the words follow. In these lightning-like eruptions words are not thought, they’re felt. They cut through space and make perfect sense without having to hesitate for the meaning” (Inner Library, p.217).

Shepard is now considered as a canonical author and an iconic figure that as Carol Rosen (1992) says is “after all the most original and vital playwright of our age” (p.34). For such a playwright, not only character, but also language have always been important. As the

concluding point, let us mention what he has written about the language. He says: "I feel that language is a veil hiding demons and angels which the characters are always out of touch with. Their quest in the play is the same as ours in life-to find those forces, to meet them face-to-face and end the mystery" (qtd. in Kirkpatrick (1988), p. 481).

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Title

Africanism in Langston Hughes' *The Weary Blues* A Case of Double Consciousness

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Abstract

Due to their insecure sociopolitical status in the United States, black Americans' standpoint toward their African origin has never been one and the same in different historical eras. While at times they denied any kind of attachment to their ancestral homeland, they sometimes celebrated their African origin. Early in the twentieth century, Du Bois noted this ambivalence and introduced the concept of African American double consciousness which argued that African Americans, in the face of the racist and discriminatory climate of the country, underwent the traumatic experience of being both a Negro and an American and thus were inflicted with a dual personality. This paper tries to analyze the Africanist tendencies of Langston Hughes, reflected in the primitivist portrait of African Americans in his first volume of poetry *The Weary Blues* (1926), in the light of Du Bois' concept of double consciousness. The analysis shows that Hughes' exploitation of Africanist themes was merely a tool through which he wished to gain admission into the mainstream American society.

Keywords: Du Bois, Double consciousness, Africanism, Hughes, *The Weary Blues*

I. Introduction

Blacks were introduced to the American society as slaves. From the very beginning of the institution of slavery, the dominant white society disseminated images of blacks as sub-human heathen savages in order to justify the atrocious deeds committed against blacks. Denigrating the African origin and values of the slaves, white American society gradually forced blacks to internalize the dominant negative stereotypes and thus experience the torturous feelings of self-interrogation and self-hatred. The weight of these depreciatory stereotypes was so great that after a while many black Americans opted for the rejection of African values and the assimilation of white American society's norms. Nevertheless, they at the same time wished to retain some sort of attachment to their ancestral homeland and frequently alluded to African themes and subject matters especially in their folk tales and religious texts.

Even though Africa and its inhabitants had been represented negatively for centuries, the avant-garde modernism of the early twentieth century employed a different representational strategy. To Picasso, Gauguin and many other vanguard artists, Africa was no more a backward place, but rather a source of inspiration which could serve as the saving grace of the Westernwasteland. This fascination with Africa and African art gave rise to modernist primitivism which turned more and more popular after the heinous bloodshed of World War I. The Africanist-primitivist vogue crossed the Atlantic and became an inseparable element of the literary and artistic world of American Jazz Age.

In such an inviting atmosphere, many black American writers, feeling to be more "African" than white Europeans and Americans, decided to adopt an Africanist representational strategy. However, it should be noted that to the black Americans, Africanism was just an instrument through which they wished to prove their unique features and worth to the dominant white society and thus acquire a more secure status. Langston Hughes was one of these black artists whose 1920s poems best capture the Africanist-primitivist vogue of the day. In order to come to a thorough understanding of Hughes' first volume of poetry *The Weary Blues* (1926), we employ Du Bois' concept of double consciousness which postulated that black personality in the United States was painfully split between American and African values and ideals.

2. Discussion

2.1. Black Americans and Africanism

... from the earliest days of organized abolitionism in the early nineteenth century to the present, Africa had always served Black American as a basis for articulating identity and inspiration in the struggle for freedom and survival only to be discarded, when a form of success is achieved. Entry into the American political system and culture demanded a rejection of Africa and African values. (Iheduru, 2006, p. 216)

Throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, slaves were transported directly from Africa to various harbors along the eastern seaboard of the United States. However, from the second quarter of the nineteenth century onwards, the slave trade declined and on that account, an overwhelming percentage of nineteenth century Southern slaves were indeed native Americans. The cessation of the slave trade put an end to American-born blacks' interaction with African-born people. Compounding the situation, white Americans also tried to shut blacks from their African culture and heritage through legislative measures; for instance, they outlawed African religious rituals including dancing and drumming which they considered as heathen and wanton, and even banned slaves' employment of African languages (Mocombe, 2009).

Whereas in the first half of the nineteenth century free colored people sometimes proudly referred to themselves as African and repeatedly used the term in the names of their organizations, as in the African Methodist Episcopal church, a connection to Africa became an encumbrance as their lives became growingly unstable and insecure after the Emancipation. As the American Colonization Society began to plan to send free black people to Liberia, a new American colony at that time, in order to save the United States from the putative threat of a racially mixed society, Africa, instead of an origin to be glorified, became a destination to be afraid of. The diminution of direct relations with Africa signified that the former slaves stopped considering themselves as African. Consequently, many black Americans became alienated from and even embarrassed of their African roots, and ceased to employ the term "African" when referring to themselves (Corbould, 2009).

In addition to white America's desire to repatriate freed slaves, there were many other factors which over time made Africa seem less attractive in the eyes of the black residents of the United States. With the increasing expansion of European colonies, the belief that each person belonged to a biological race became more and more popular. Under the considerable influence of Darwin's theories, the concept of race came to be seen as closely related to the evolution of humankind, and hence the conviction that Africans were inferior creatures who had not yet progressed to the uppermost, or even the middle, steps on the ladder of

civilization. In the popular consciousness, Africa gradually became a land of inscrutable jungles and cryptic rivers ready to be subdued by white men, and Africa's culture and people were represented much like the landscape. In effect, Africa was depicted to be a place with no history and culture where time stood still, and thus had nothing to be proud of. In this context, it was psychologically and socially demanding for black Americans to make or claim connections with Africa when the continent and its inhabitants were so thoroughly defamed (Corbould, 2009).

Even after the Emancipation, American society was inundated with stereotypical representations of black Americans that portrayed them as of a piece with the presumably savage Africans. Mass consumer culture, from the packaging around food products and magazine advertisements to the first film screens and even children's comic books, depicted and broadcast black people as picaninnies, mammies and Uncle Toms who were foolish, mischievous and even sometimes cunning but never heroic and competent. In this discriminatory and disparaging racial atmosphere, many African American activists strived to prove that the idea of the racial inferiority of blacks was groundless and that black Americans were the equal of whites. However, their strategy of uplift which was centered upon improving race relations in America held little esteem for identification with Africa. Rather, these activists, mostly from the middle class, drew class lines between various strata of black American society and tried to consolidate black elites' identification with their class counterparts in the white race. Consequently, they neither venerated African culture nor deemed Africans as kin; quite the contrary, they based their politics around the acquirement of middle-class respectability and disavowed Africa as primitive and backward (Corbould, 2009).

However, a confluence of events in the first quarter of the twentieth century collaborated in creating a new racial consciousness among black Americans. African Americans' distinguished participation in World War I, the Great Migration, the groundbreaking Boasian anthropology, the modernists' fascination with the primitive art and the Westerners' dissatisfaction with the sterility and barrenness of puritan life led to the development of new ideas which were in one way or another concerned with Africa and with black Americans' attachment to the continent and its people, an interest that finally brought about the explosion of black ethnic culture.

As in the case of most of the wars, the requirements of World War I released a deluge of nationalism all over the world. By the end of the war, "nationness" became the index of being human and having social rights. In this sociopolitical climate, a historical sense was

indispensable to create a nationalist identity and thus nationalists were obsessed with origins and traditions and believed that they could make greater claims regarding their intrinsic rights and worth if the founding of the nation was shown to be more heroic and grandiose. On that account, many academics and intellectuals involved in the nationalist project endeavored to create a collective memory that served to produce a sense of common destiny (Dawahare, 2003).

Such a nationalist zeitgeist wormed its way into the mindset and writings of so many African American intellectuals and activists of post-World War I era. Different aspects of racism that had been at work against blacks and other minorities in the United States had for a long time denied historicity and cultural integrity to their sociocultural productions and contributions. This denial had a profound influence on the fragmented formation of African American consciousness and the subsequent quest for history and culture among blacks in the early twentieth century. In such coercive climate, many blacks employed the discourse of tradition to critique oppression and injustice in America. In fact, the notions of tradition and historical rooted-ness were the defensive posture of blacks that asserted the legitimacy of their sociopolitical rights in the face of the oppressive power of white supremacy. In other words, historical and traditional rooted-ness was a refuge that could provide, at least temporarily, a consolation from the heinous forces of racism and also from the repulsive memories of slavery (Gilroy, 1993).

African American thinkers and writers such as Edward Wilmot Blyden and Alexander Crummell had already shown an African consciousness in their writings in the nineteenth century. However, black America's Afrocentric project gained momentum after World War I. Among the leading activists of the day was W. E. B. Du Bois in whose writings we can detect the discourses of unique racial origin, historical destiny, and familial connections characteristic of ethnic nationalism. Glorifying African history beyond compare, Du Bois (2003) maintained that Africans, more than any other groups in the world, had advanced from the level of animal savagery to a progressive primitive civilization. He also claimed that Africa, as "the Father of mankind", had bequeathed many precious things to the world such as African Gemeinschaft (an organic community centered upon kinship) which he favored over the European Gesellschaft (an emotionless, rationalized and mechanical community), since the African village unit, unlike modern capitalist Western civilization, didn't attempt to "submerge and kill individuality" and therefore did not create "a soulless Leviathan" (as cited in Dawahare, p. 11).

All the same, we should note that Du Bois and other black nationalists' glorification of Africa and its history and culture in effect provided their respective organizations with the underlying foundation for black national and political identity in post-World War I era. By embracing notions of genetic heredity and common destiny, they supposed that the racial or national eminence of ancient Africa confirmed that blacks in the United States could establish a new nation of equal grandeur (Dawahare, 2003). Practically speaking, all black Americans involved in the Africanist project didn't start to call themselves Africans or to consider themselves as Africans' blood brothers; rather, Africa became a vital instrument in their hands by means of which they could employ novel and dynamic ways to portray themselves both individually and collectively in the growingly volatile and unpredictable urban settings, and thus could obtain a more secure status in the racist and oppressive American society (Gilroy, 1993) . This instrumental exploitation is best captured in the attitude of Du Bois (2003) who, despite his fervent Africanist tendencies, rejected Marcus Garvey's "Back to Africa" movement and claimed that if one had worked strenuously to build a nation, one was automatically a part of it, even if his or her rights were ignored and unrecognized in law. He based his claim to being American on the duration of time that Africans had resided in America, alongside their "gifts" and contributions to the country; so he stated that "we are Americans . . . there is nothing so indigenous, so completely 'made in America' as we. It is absurd to talk of a return to Africa" (as cited in Dawahare, p. 9). Such a contradictory sociopolitical stance of Du Bois and many other black Americans toward their African origin can be analyzed and explained through Du Bois' famed concept of "double consciousness" which we will address in the coming section.

2.2. African American Double Consciousness: a Bane and a Boon

Here, then, is the dilemma, and it is a puzzling one, I admit. No Negro who has given earnest thought to the situation of his people in America has failed, at some time in life, to find himself at these cross-roads; has failed to ask himself at some time: What, after all, am I? Am I an American or am I a Negro? Can I be both? Or is it my duty to cease to be a Negro as soon as possible and be an American? If I strive as a Negro, am I not perpetuating the very cleft that threatens and separates Black and White America? Is not my only possible practical aim the subduction of all that is Negro in me to the American? Does my black blood place upon me any more obligation to assert my nationality than German, or Irish or Italian blood would?

It is such incessant self-questioning and the hesitation that arises from it, that is making the present period a time of vacillation and contradiction for the American Negro. (Du Bois, 2007, p. 184)

Du Bois introduced the idea of African American double consciousness in the opening chapter of his famous book *The Souls of Black Folk* published in 1903. The book, with its newly-propounded concept, was groundbreaking and considerably influential not only in the formation of African American literature and literary criticism, but also in igniting a new sociological outlook in the United States. Du Bois (2007) defined the concept of double consciousness in the following words:

It is a peculiar sensation, this double-consciousness, this sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others, or measuring one's soul by the tape of a world that looks on it in amused contempt and pity. One ever feels his twoness, - an American, a Negro; two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled strivings; two warring ideals in one dark body whose dogged strength alone keeps it from being torn asunder. (p. 8)

The history of such oppositional binarisms goes back to the discourse of early Christianity which was greatly concerned with a putative tension between the flesh and the sacred and between nature and spirit. However, Du Bois (2002) drew upon two main sources while employing the concept of African American double consciousness: one, the themes and conventions of European Romanticism and American Transcendentalism; the other, the nineteenth and early twentieth century medical and psychological research (as cited in Allen, p. 222). Early in the nineteenth century, Goethe referred to the concept of “Angst”, very similar to Du Bois’s double consciousness, in his *Faust* (1808): “Two souls, alas, reside within my breast, and each is eager for a separation: in throes of coarse desire, one grips the earth with all its senses; the other struggles from the dust to rise to high ancestral spheres” (as cited in Allen, 2002, pp. 222-3). Moreover, there were many other nineteenth century writers, such as George Eliot, Robert Louis Stevenson, Henry David Thoreau and Henry James, who dealt with the concept of the divided self through literary or psychological rhetorics.

Du Bois was in fact concerned with the development of black consciousness in the capitalist bourgeois social structure of America. The structural ideology of American society engendered blackness as a social denomination for identity construction, but inhibited blacks from establishing or reproducing their structural or cultural values and conventions. The hegemonic procedure of the dominant structure, which I. M. Young called “cultural imperialism” and Emile Durkheim called the “mechanical solidarity” of human society,

looked down on and marginalized the Other behaviors and values in order to homogenize the social practices of their society, and systematically excluded the favorable characteristics of the subaltern group not only from the memory of the sociopolitically oppressed but also from the memory of the sociopolitically dominant group (Mocombe, 2009; Schiele, 2005).

This exclusionary stance finally eventuated in the formation of an African American dual personality; a double consciousness which entailed two cultural identities, each addressing a diverse social role, one black and one white, at conflict with one another in each African American's consciousness owing to the different implications of those identities within the mainstream American society (Rawls, 2000); that is, the American capitalist sociopolitical structure little by little compelled blacks to internalize its negative stereotypes which represented blacks as soul-less, poor, depraved, uncultured, irrational, and savage, a gradual process which finally eventuated in blacks' self-hatred and their efforts to live like the powerful bourgeois whites (Mocombe, 2009). This systematic marginalization of blacks in America did not stop with the Emancipation after which blacks encountered a more sophisticated process of misrecognition on a daily basis and suffered from the white America's general refusal to accept their humanity. According to Du Bois (2007), this "disrespect and mockery, the ridicule and systematic humiliation" generated an "all-pervading desire to inculcate disdain for everything black" (p. 12); that is to say, the weight of the racist stereotypes was so unbearable that gave rise to a malignant process of excessive self-surveillance and self-interrogation within African American psyche. Du Bois (2007) contended that

from the double life every American Negro must live, as a Negro and as an American, as swept on by the current of the nineteenth while yet struggling in the eddies of the fifteenth century, - from this must arise a painful self-consciousness, an almost morbid sense of personality and a moral hesitancy which is fatal to self-confidence. The worlds within and without the Veil of Color are changing and changing rapidly, but not at the same rate, not in the same way; and this must produce a peculiar wrenching of the soul, a peculiar sense of doubt and bewilderment. Such a double life, with double thoughts, double duties, and double social classes, must give rise to double words and double ideals, and tempt the mind to presence or revolt, to hypocrisy or radicalism. (p. 136)

In other words, there were two different communities with distinct conventions and purposes on either side of what he called the "Veil"; individuals on the black side of the veil

owed a commitment to their segregated community that white individuals did not. As a matter of fact, the subalternized black Americans were always held accountable to two distinct communities, the fundamental inequality and inconsistency of which compelled them to adopt the perspective of the dominant white discourse toward themselves; on that account, they were uncomfortably conscious of looking at themselves through the veil: the fragmented African American self-consciousness was trapped in a “catch 22” and thus was forever incomplete (Rawls, 2000).

However, to Du Bois (2007), double consciousness was not just a bane, but also a boon. He believed that “after the Egyptian and Indian, the Greek and Roman, the Teuton and Mongolian, the Negro is a sort of seventh son, born with a veil, and gifted with second-sight in this American world” (p. 8). The gift of second-sight, very similar to the Emersonian concept of “feminine eye”, was the “message” of the “Negro blood” to the world; in his view “the sensuous, tropical love” of the black was the only alternative to complement and save “the cool, cautious New England reason” (Du Bois, as cited in Mocombe, 2009, p. 46). He argued that African Americans had developed a *weltanschauung* that was unexampled on the planet, and which, due to its race-transcending quality, had the potential to unfetter all persons.

Reprimanding Western colonization for its “carrying civilization and the blessed gospel to the isles of the sea and the heathen without the law”, and thus spurring on “war, murder, slavery, extermination, and debauchery” (Du Bois, 2007, p. 111), he viewed progress as “necessarily ugly” (p. 51) and privileged the African primitive lifestyle over the Western mechanical capitalist society. He regarded “the innate love of harmony and beauty that set the ruder souls of his people a-dancing and a-singing” as the saving grace of withering American society which had for long ignored the gift and the message of the black race (p. 9); that is to say, “the Apollonian virtues” of Western civilization could not bring world eternal peace and joy without “the Dionysian attractions” of black culture (Adolph L. Reed, Jr., as cited in Allen, 2002, p. 221). Critiquing the dominant institutors of the American society and yet believing in and adhering to its democratic ideals and promises, Du Bois (2007) offered the African American gift of second-sight as an idiosyncratic feature through which they could recreate their self-realization, self-consciousness and self-respect and prove their potential abilities and worth to the white society and find a way into what he called “the kingdom of culture”. As Du Bois (2007) writes:

The history of the American Negro is the history of this strife,—this longing to attain self-conscious manhood, to merge his double self into a better and truer

self. In this merging he wishes neither of the older selves to be lost. He would not Africanize America, for America has too much to teach the world and Africa. He would not bleach his Negro soul in a flood of white Americanism, for he knows that Negro blood has a message for the world. He simply wishes to make it possible for a man to be both a Negro and an American, without being cursed and spit upon by his fellows, without having the doors of Opportunity closed roughly in his face. (p. 9)

In other words, the dual African American identity endeavors to embrace Africa as a reservoir of historical identity and aesthetic values while maintaining Western conventions, customs and values for more practical reasons.

In short, Du Bois's concept of double consciousness was practically both a lament of the consistent deprivation of American Negroes of their rights of equality, and at the same time a eulogy of their "gift" which not only was of great service to the formation of African Americans' unique vision, but also could help America to rejuvenate herself by replacing "her brutal dyspeptic blundering", "coarse and cruel wit" and "vulgar music" with African Americans' "humility", "loving jovial good-humor" and "soul of the Sorrow Songs" (2007, p. 14).

2.3. Double Consciousness and Africanism in Langston Hughes' *The Weary Blues*

What jungle tree have you slept under,
Midnight dancer of the jazzy hour?
What great forest has hung its perfume
Like a sweet veil about your bower?
What jungle tree have you slept under,
Night-dark girl of the swaying hips?
What star-white moon has been your mother?
To what clean boy have you offered your lips? (Hughes, 1994)

One of the greatest writers of African American literature, Langston Hughes is now considered as an exceptional figure in the Harlem Renaissance since he was among few writers of the movement who could survive the blow of the Great Depression and sustain his literary career until his death in 1967. Shortly before Langston was born in 1902 in Joplin, Missouri, his father abandoned his mother and went abroad. His mother then left Langston to be brought up by his grandmother and family friends while she was in search of a job. She returned to take care of Langston just when an opportunity permitted her to stay with him. Being the only child of James and Carrie Hughes and having spent most of his childhood

without anyone paying much attention to him, Langston never understood what it was like to belong to a happy, closely attached family (Rummel and Wagner, 2005).

Later on, still traumatized by his parents' marital discord, Hughes always sought in his adult years to compensate for his gloomy and unstable childhood by developing a powerful familial attachment to African American masses. Alienated from the white-dominated racist United States which failed to serve him as a definitive homeland, he had to search for an alternative psychological compensation elsewhere. Having come to New York in 1921, Hughes lacked money to support himself even though his works then appeared regularly in *Crisis*. Consequently, Hughes had to hold a series of menial jobs to support himself, including his employment as a ship steward on a cargo ship. The job induced a new phase of epiphany and growth in his life since it resulted in his first visit to Africa in 1923. This was a time when the modernists' fascination with African art and sculpture was reverberating in the air and many African American activists and artists of the day, such as Du Bois, Garvey and Schomburg, had already initiated what had come to be known as Africanism (Washington, 2001).

In his autobiography *The Big Sea* (1940), Hughes recounts what he experienced in his first direct encounter with Africa. Though he was shown warm reception and hospitality by an African Muslim trader, he was rebuffed in his other contacts with Africans. In one case, Hughes remembered being laughed at by Africans when he had claimed that he was a black man like them: "It was the only place in the world where I've ever been called a white man. They looked at my copper-brown skin and straight black hair ... and they said: 'You-white man'" (as cited in Westover, 2002, p. 1212). He also recounted the time when his guide informed him that the native people will shortly "make Ju-Ju." When Hughes asked to be taken to see the ritual practice, the guide turned down his request by saying "Christian man no bother with Ju-Ju... White man never go to see Ju-Ju" (as cited in Westover, 2002, p. 1214).

Nevertheless, despite his exclusion from Africans and their culture, Hughes identified himself and his black American fellows with Africa when he described a scene of prostitution: "In front of one hut three white sailors from a British ship were bargaining with an old woman. Behind her, frightened and ashamed, stood a small girl, said to be a virgin. The price was four pounds. The sailors argued for a cheaper rate. They hadn't that much money" (as cited in Westover, 2002, p. 1214). As a harrowing allegory of the rape of Africa, this scene comes to stand for the tragedy of the lives of both Africans and Hughes himself.

This and other incidents of Hughes' first encounter with Africa reflect both the poet's desire for and alienation from it as his traditional motherland.

In the early twentieth century and especially in the decade following World War I, many European avant-garde intellectuals, disaffected by the cruelty of Western political system and the inefficacy of religion in restoring order and peace to the chaotic West, opted for the world of art which, according to them, had the potentiality to change the world for the better. Their aesthetics-oriented agenda finally led to a rejection of the mainstream realism and the embracement of non-Western artistic conventions, particularly those of Africa. This fascination with black culture was translated into the American art and literature of the Jazz Age and many rebellious white thinkers and writers of the day went for a new representation of Negro subject matters. In such an atmosphere, African American intellectuals and artists deemed the unprecedented interest of white writers in black culture as an opportunity through which they could launch their literary careers and also activate social and racial reforms. One of these young black aspirants was Langston Hughes who after returning to the United States made acquaintances with Carl Van Vechten, the white novelist, critic and patron who wrote the notorious primitivist novel *Nigger Heaven* (1926), in an NAACP benefit party, a meeting which marked a turning point in Hughes' life and literary career (Washington, 2001).

Hughes had read Du Bois' *The Souls of Black Folk* when he was still young. Inspired by the folk art conception of the book, he wrote "The Negro Speaks of Rivers", a poem which attributed black folk character to an African heritage and an ancient reservoir of human wisdom. However, after his visit to Africa and his friendship with Van Vechten, his African poems took a primitivist turn. Besides Van Vechten, it was also Charlotte Osgood Mason (1854-1946), the white wealthy widow and patron, who gave momentum to Hughes' primitivist literary works. She was the only source of his financial support for some time, giving him a monthly pension to provide him time to concentrate on his primitivist writing. Believing that Negroes "were America's great link with the primitive, and that they had something very precious to give the Western world", she was seriously committed to the promotion of the primitivist mission (Hughes, as cited in Washington, 2001, p. 96). Nevertheless, this domineering patron, who demanded to read everything her beneficiaries wrote before getting published, envisioned progress for African American Americans only in cultural exoticism. That was why she only supported African American writers who employed the primitivist vogue and was totally opposed to encouraging black political consciousness, since she believed that "the expression of political thought should be left to white people" (Faith Berry, as cited in Washington, 2001, p. 104).

Under such patronage and impressed by white writers' attraction to the alleged African, primitive lifestyle of Negroes in America, Hughes' leaning toward the primitivist discourse was inevitable, a mood that was best captured in his first volume of poetry *The Weary Blues* (1926). The volume was published with the help of Carl Van Vechten who sent the first manuscript to Alfred Knopf, the publisher, and even chose the title himself (Huggins, 1971). The volume included many primitivist poems such as "Nude Young Dancer", "Danse Africane", "Jazzonia", "Black Dancer in the Little Savoy", "The Cat and the Saxophone", "Lenox Avenue: Midnight", "Young Singer" and "Midnight Nan at Leroy's".

The Harlem of *The Weary Blues* is a new world of escape and release, an exhilarating never-land which only calls for *carpe diem* and nothing more; in this joyous city, there is no daytime and no waking up and going to work; it is entirely a sundown city in which jazz cabaret, frankly sexual dancing, prohibited alcohol and wild hilarity function as means of escape from the oppression and racism of white American society; as a result, daylight is deemed as a great enemy in *The Weary Blues* since it is hard to deceive oneself in the honest light of dawn. All the above-mentioned qualities interwoven into the fabric of his first volume of poetry were given an African background which underscored either the white-mooned pulchritude of jungle nights or the pulse-stirring beatings of the tom-tom (Davis, 1952). What seems greatly interesting is that the Africa of Hughes' autobiographical account in which he was rejected and excluded was totally different from the idyllic Africa of his first volume of poetry. Arnold Rampersad notes this contradiction between Hughes' craving for Africa and his exclusion from it and calls it "anxiety", a feeling which Hughes had to sublimate in many of his poems. Being alienated and subalternized in the unjust and oppressive United States, Hughes insisted on his membership in the African race in his 1920s poems like "The Negro Speaks of Rivers", "My People", "Our Land" and "Afraid", an insistence which referred to a chronic fear that the people of Africa were not actually his at all. In fact, these poems endeavored to present a sense of belonging, heritage and self-esteem to all African Americans (Westover, 2002).

3. Conclusion

Hughes' poems revealed an ongoing conflict between African and Afro-American values and ideals, which resulted in a double-consciousness reflective of the overlapping communities of nation and diaspora. In effect, the concept of America is bifaceted in the works of Langston Hughes. Though he sometimes found the United States a place to be severely reprimanded,

his commitment to American values was profound and enduring. Drawing upon the Declaration of Independence, the American Revolution and the Bill of Rights in his writings in order to censure the discriminatory status quo, he tried to make Harlem a part of the American Dream and build what he believed to be “the true America” (Westover, 2002). Though he placed most of his 1920s poems within an international frame and repeatedly referred to motifs of the Middle Passage, slavery, black American culture and a diasporan Pan-Africanism, he didn’t assimilate the African concept of racial identity; instead, he came to understand African via a black internationalist lens that was unquestionably American and so articulated the power and meaning of the black cultural expression in the framework of Americanism. This dual citizenship is manifested in Hughes’ poetic attempts to project a constructed community that is at the same time American and not-American.

Though 1920s Hughes asserted an unabashed pride in the alleged primitive characteristics of his race and the atavistic bequest of the African motherland, his portrait of Negro life and its African background was thoroughly consistent with the popular white-dominated iconography of the time, a vogue that finally marketed all things Negro to the white America. Trapped by the juggernaut of the primitivist fad, Hughes was oblivious to the fact that “efforts to resist domination can readily re-enforce it, if such resistance is cast in the code of the dominator” (Brown, 1993, p. 658) and that writing about a culture and its values using techniques and methods contrived in another culture could backfire. Inattentive to the sociological implications of his primitivist poetry, he perpetuated the old demeaning stereotypes of Negroes’ spontaneity and sexual freedom which had long for long been looked down upon but then came into vogue as the saving grace of the Western wasteland. By emphasizing on an intrinsic disparity between civilized whites and exotic blacks, Hughes and his fellow primitivist writers of the Harlem Renaissance were published and made money, but at the same time demoted the American Negroes to the status of an irrevocable, even if enviable, Other who was not American and could not expect to be considered a rightful one.

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Title

Conrad's Darkness: A Cultural Study

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Biodata

Moslem Zolfagharkhani is an Assistant Professor of English language and literature at Hakim Sabzevari University, Iran. He was a member of Joseph Conrad Society of UK for some years. He is the chairperson at present and teaches both B.A. and M.A. courses at different universities of Khorasan Razavi State. Being a Conrad scholar, his main research interests include Literary Criticism, Literary Translation, and Discourse Analysis.

Abstract

This paper aims at revealing some cultural aspects of Joseph Conrad's most controversial fiction *Heart of Darkness*. To do this, different assumptions are presented, such as racism, civilization, capitalization, and so on, while referring to others' critical evaluations and/or attacks on the fiction. Marlow of both 'Youth' and *Heart of Darkness* is in search of some truths in life, and to find it he comes across various situations where one should decide how to do and how to behave. Then it is shown that culture survives and remains even though individuals who form it may die or disappear.

Keywords: Joseph Conrad, *Heart of Darkness*, 'Youth', Culture, Colonialism

1. Introduction

It is a truth that Conrad's journey to the Africa killed his yearnings for the sea and made him a novelist. This African expedition not only affected him physically for the rest of his life but also caused Conrad to attain his philosophy of life and of man. *Heart of Darkness* (1902) (Hereafter called *HOD* in references) appeared as serials in Blackwood's Magazine between February and April, 1899. In his note to 'Youth', the author reveals: "More ambitious in its

scope and longer in the telling, *Heart of Darkness* is quite as authentic in fundamentals as *Youth*" ('*Youth*', p. 4).

In a letter to Mr. Blackwood, Conrad who is in the midst of creating his *Heart of Darkness* writes: "It is a narrative after the manner of *Youth* told by the same man dealing with his experiences on a river in Central Africa. The idea in it is not as obvious as in *Youth*" (Kimbrough, 2002, p. 201).

Conrad's '*Youth*' grows into maturity only in *Heart of Darkness* which is the eleventh story written by the author. The story is narrated by Marlow who speaks of his experiences during his first and only journey into the African continent. Hence, *Heart of Darkness* is an adventure tale of a journey into the blackest part of the Belgian Congo. This narrative describes the natives' attacks, the river and the jungle, together with the white people who are there to invade the jungles and collect ivory. Such a journey becomes a symbolic one also. In fact, Marlow steps into a blackness central to the heart of the man so that he reveals the deep passion, anxiety, and lust of the man. Marlow is an observer who is not involved centrally. It is Marlow who survives and tells the story. Those like Kurtz who are aware of the darkness and its deep effects cannot resist their own inner dark soul. They give up and are swallowed up by the evil of their own passion and lust. Therefore, the darkness of the African continent which is real and original helps them to look inside themselves to realize what they hope and what they are.

2. Discussion and Analysis

Heart of Darkness revolves round some cultural concepts in which one contributes to the other, to reinforce a central assumption. These cultural concepts range from 'civilization and primitive' to 'capitalism' and 'lying', also the issue of race and racism as a backdrop which appears repeatedly. The whole story represents the idea of civilization and the primitive through an opposition of light and darkness. In fact, in much of the European culture and art, 'light' is referred to Western culture, knowledge, civilization, and the psychological consciousness of mankind. However, 'darkness' is associated with the Third World especially Africa as well as with the unknown cultures, mysteries, primitive, communities of the East and also the unconsciousness part of the human mind. Such opposition reveals a contrast between the European culture and the African one.

The frame narrator starts his tale by giving a description which is all dark, gloomy, and death-like. Hence, the second paragraph of *Heart of Darkness* which is a description of the

Thames leads to: "the air was dark above Gravesend, and farther back still seemed condensed into a mournful gloom brooding motionless over the biggest, and the greatest, town on earth" (Kimbrough, 2002, p.7, all references are to this version). Then Marlow suddenly emphasizes, "and this also ... has been one of the dark places of the earth" (*HOD*, p. 9), and continues: "I was thinking of very old times, when the Romans first came here, nineteen hundred years ago – the other day. ... Light came out of this river since ... But darkness was here yesterday" (*HOD*, pp. 9-10).

It is obvious that Marlow who, "had the pose of a Buddha preaching in European clothes and without a lotus flower" (*HOD*, p. 10) gives all this mysterious background to take his audience to a world which is similar to the old days of his own country. That is a time before civilization. Marlow, who is so sensitive to what he renders, emphasizes, "I don't want to bother you much with what happened to me personally" and reveals, "it was the farthest point of navigation and the culminating point of my experience. It seemed somehow to throw a kind of light on everything about me – and into my thoughts" (*HOD*, p. 11).

Heart of Darkness is a mirror of Conrad's experiences on a river steamer set up by the Belgians along the Congo River. The Belgian Congo was viewed by Conrad as the most cruel and worst one because it hid itself behind the show of brotherhood and some philanthropic enterprises. Marlow who is perhaps Conrad's alter-ego represents Conrad's ideas about colonialism in different levels of the story. Such impressions are sometimes direct and straightforward, other times ironic and metaphoric, for instance, the description of Marlow about the Roman colonization of ancient Britain. His views appear as a direct attack on colonialism. He says: "But these chaps were not much account really. There were no colonists, their administration was merely a squeeze, and nothing more, I suspect. They were conquerors" (*HOD*, p. 10).

Marlow also reveals how the Europeans look at the other nations and their history. To them, civilization is only of Europe and their people. The other parts of the world are secondary to them in terms of topography and history. That is why whatever they explore is not blank but those unknown to them turn to be mysterious and void. Marlow remembers: "Now when I was a little chap I had a passion for maps. I would look for hours at South America, or Africa, or Australia and lose myself in all the glories of exploration. At that time there were many blank spaces on the earth ..." (*HOD*, p. 11).

This blankness refers not only to what is shown on the maps prepared by European explorers but also to the nations to whom they are ignorant. Hence, the lands seem blank to them and

consequently their residents are viewed as having no history and culture where compared to Europe.

Marlow's views on colonialism get sharply reflected when he describes the Eldorado Exploring Expedition. He opines: "This devoted band called itself the Eldorado Exploring Expedition and I believe they were sworn to secrecy. Their talk however was the talk of sordid buccaneers" (*HOD*, pp. 32-33).

Mr. Kurtz who is a noted European agent working in Africa, is another symbol of European colonialism. Marlow describes who Kurtz is: "The original Kurtz had been educated partly in England and – as he was good enough to say himself – his sympathies were in the right place. His mother was half-English, his father was half-French. All Europe contributed to the making of Kurtz" (*HOD*, p. 50).

Marlow reveals that the entire Europe contributed to the making of Kurtz and his enterprise i.e., to loot Africa and to 'Exterminate all the brutes'.

Edward Said's (1966) comment on the kinship between Marlow and Kurtz is relevant here: "Sustained on a metaphysical level as a kinship between darkness and light, between the impulse toward darkness sustained by Marlow until he sees Kurtz and the impulse toward light sustained by Kurtz in the deepest darkness ..." (p. 147).

Said (1966) continues:

Marlow wishes to use the energetic light of egoism to get to the original fount of truth, to discover for himself what is there. He leaves the world of straightforward facts behind him and descends into the heart of darkness. Like the dying Wait, Kurtz is able to feel both the hypnotic claim of truth and the saving requirement of imposture, the truth of darkness and the palliating image of light and the love of man. (p. 148)

As discussed earlier, in *Heart of Darkness*, very close to the concept of colonialism is the contrast between civilization and primitive – a major canvass of most of Conrad's oeuvre. The author emphasizes that civilization and civilized nations were once wild and dark in the sense of being primitive. Even he refers to England at the time of the Romans' attack as an era of darkness and gloominess: "I was thinking of very old times, when the Romans first came here, nineteen hundred years ago – the other day. ... Light came out of this river since – you say Knights?" (*HOD*, pp. 9-10).

If one compares how he views England and its English people with what he feels in Congo, then one can have an idea of his notions and ideas of civilization. In the heart of the African continent, Marlow avers: "We were wanderers on a prehistoric earth, on an earth that wore

the aspect of an unknown planet. We could have fancied ourselves the first of men taking possession of an accursed inheritance ..." (*HOD*, p. 37).

This passage reveals that savagery is part of the humanity and what existed in Africa did exist in England once. Furthermore, what today the European people boast of is corrupted and false, that is why when Marlow refers to Kurtz's pamphlet for what "he [Kurtz] entreated me [Marlow] to take good care of" (*HOD*, p. 51), his reaction is: "I was to have the care of his memory. I've done enough for it to give me the indisputable right to lay it" (*HOD*, p. 51). Marlow continues: "He [Kurtz] had the power to charm or frighten rudimentary souls into an aggravated witch-dance in his honour" (*HOD*, p. 51). Thus, civilization's products become 'dead cats' and paralyzed for which mankind paid so much.

There are two obvious descriptions in *Heart of Darkness* in which the reader comes across the nature of African people and Europeans. Interestingly enough, these two pictures are close to each other in the novella so much so that the reader will see how the primitive is treated in the modern world of civilization. Marlow describes the bitter situation of the black Africans in Congo:

They were dying slowly – it was very clear. They were not enemies, they were not criminals, they were nothing earthly now, nothing but black shadows of disease and starvation lying confusedly in the greenish gloom. Brought from all the recesses of the coast in all the legality of time contracts, lost in uncongenial surroundings, fed on unfamiliar food, they sickened, became inefficient, and were then allowed to crawl away and rest. (*HOD*, p. 20)

If one looks at the fashion in which Marlow portrays a white man inside the station near those dying creatures, one gets a feeling into what Conrad by implication is aiming at:

I met a white man in such an unexpected elegance of get-up that in the first moment I took his for a sort of vision. I saw a high, starched collar, white cuffs, a light alpaca jacket, snowy trousers, a clean necktie, and varnished boots. No hat. Hair parted, brushed, oiled, under a green-lined parasol held in a big white hand. He was amazing and had a pen-holder behind his ear. (*HOD*, p. 21)

Marlow's close observation helps one to distinguish the symbols and signs of civilization carried by this man. Indeed, his 'starched collar', 'white cuffs', 'clean necktie', 'varnished boots', 'parted hair', and also his 'apple-pie' ordered books are the outcomes of an unreal and false civilization which haunts the minds of the white people in Africa.

These missionary people pretend to be philanthropic and show that they want to help the so called non-civilized nation and to tread on the path of progress. Marlow echoes this and insists that colonialism and imperialism have made use of civilization to exploit the less-developed countries through their policy of 'lying'. This is also emphasized by Marlow throughout his narration; from what he views in Congo to the time he goes to Brussels to visit the Intended. He lies about the last moment of Kurtz's life to the woman. The Intended reveals, "I believed in him more than any one on earth ... Nobody near to understand him as I would have understood" (*HOD*, p. 75), and she is so eager to know about her beloved last uttering "to live with" (*HOD*, p. 75). Marlow tells a lie to her by saying, "the last word he pronounced was – your name" (*HOD*, p. 75). What appears significant here is that Marlow's denial of telling the truth about Kurtz to the Intended can also be viewed as lying to the entire society. Here Marlow becomes like the other false members of the civilization and colonialism who close their eyes and shut their mouths to what they see and what they should say. The Intended's insistence on hearing Kurtz's last words may highlight the fact that there are people in the West who are ignorant of the realities of their society and culture. This ignorance is a part of colonialism's policy and propaganda to achieve their goals and to secure their status in the colonized countries. Perhaps Marlow's power as somebody who faced the truth is receded by a higher power which is more superior and dominant. Consequently, Marlow becomes "indistinct and silent, in the pose of a meditating Buddha" (*HOD*, p. 76), and this Buddha-like figure is the one who looks at the truth but remains speechless and confused.

Discussing Marlow's sympathy with the dying native in Congo, Anthony Fothergill (2003) emphasizes his contradictory position. He avers: "Equally striking, I suggest, is Marlow's awareness of the contradiction of his position. Indeed, I would argue that it is this self-awareness which marks him off so profoundly from all other Europeans in the novel" (p. 48). Hence, Marlow distinguishes that he is an efficient tool in the wheel of empire and colonialism while he is also conscious enough of the racialized power of the white agents and missionaries in Congo.

Anthony Fothergill (2003) opines that the victims of colonialism are not merely the Africans but the colonizers as well. He suggests: "Like a destructive machine, once set in action it owes no more allegiance to its creator and agents than to its most obvious victims" (p. 42).

Perhaps, *Heart of Darkness* is one of the most debated and controversial literary texts of the twentieth century. In a lecture presented at the University of Massachusetts in 1975,

Chinua Achebe opines that Conrad's image of Africa seems to be "the antithesis of Europe and therefore of civilization, a place where man's vaunted intelligence and refinement are finally mocked by triumphant bestiality" and concludes, "Joseph Conrad was a thoroughgoing racist" (2002, p. 257). Achebe avers:

Conrad did not originate the image of Africa which we find in his book. It was and is the dominant image of Africa in the Western imagination and Conrad merely brought the peculiar gifts of his own mind to bear on it. For reasons which can certainly use close psychological inquiry the West seems to suffer deep anxieties about the precariousness of its civilization and to have a need for constant reassurance by comparison with Africa. (As cited in Kimbrough, 2002, p. 261)

Achebe argues that Conrad's sympathy with the African people tends to be shaped by some distances and consequently denies equality among cultures. However, it should be noticed that Marlow the character and Conrad the writer should be evaluated separately. *Heart of Darkness* oscillates between truth and illusion or reality and appearance. Hence, Marlow's reactions and responses should not be accepted totally as those of Conrad. Thus, the narration of the novella suggests a distance between Marlow and Conrad. Moreover, Marlow's portrait of Europe and Africa is ironic. Conrad shows in his fiction the way the Romans viewed the natives of England. It is also the same way when the Europeans look at the Africans. Both come across savagery, but for the Europeans the savagery is vitalized. What Conrad suggests is that those Roman colonizers who conquered the lands, where the natives were suffering from lack of civilization, did not humiliate the British race. The case is different with the Europeans who confronted the Africans. Thus, *Heart of Darkness's* reference is to the colonizers and their enterprise in the captured lands rather than Africa and the African people. Conrad's major aim, it seems, is to judge and re-examine such inhumane colonialism and to unveil some truth. That is why Marlow could see the horror of those corrupted Europeans at the heart of darkness in his mysterious voyage.

Kurtz's last words "the horror! The horror!" is the horror deep in his heart showing the blackness of his soul. It is also possible to suggest that Kurtz's horror refers to what he has done to the African people and to himself. The latter is the result of the former. Marlow who is so anxious to visit Kurtz appears to be an anti-colonialist figure, but he lives according to the Western and Imperialistic values. However, Kurtz who absorbs the African customs and becomes one with African people suggests that the colonizers can help in exterminating all

the brutes only if they leave the natives. Thus, the real brutes or savages belong to the colonizers not to the colonized.

Achebe later moderated his fierce and polemical attack on *Heart of Darkness*. It should be kept in the mind that Conrad lived in a milieu dominated by its own standards; it was the heyday of Victorian imperialism during 1890s. Cedric Watts's (1998) comments are appropriate here: "The tale contributed to the international protest campaign that strove to curb Belgian excesses there. E. D. Morel, leader of the Congo Reform Association, stated that 'Heart of Darkness' was 'the most powerful thing ever written on the subject'" (p. 56). Hence, when Marlow portrays the dying Africans and the plight of the chain-gang, he makes them visible fully in his work rather than marginalizing them, as Achebe accuses him. Marlow's gaze at all these inhumane deeds is accompanied by his sardonic indignation and hatred.

Interestingly, critics have discussed Conrad's treatment of women in *Heart of Darkness* from different view points. Achebe looks at Kurtz's African mistress as a counterpart to the European woman. The Intended is described as pale and anemic by Marlow while the African mistress is shown as fierce, proud, and very gorgeous. This mistress is the one whose passion is real and true. Marlow observes: "She walked with measured steps, draped in striped and fringed cloths, treading the earth proudly with a slight jingle and flash of barbarous ornaments" (*HOD*, p. 60). Marlow stresses that she is savage and superb while being sorrowful. She looks like the wilderness. Hence, the Intended is the symbol of the Europe with all its self-deception and falsehood. That is why in his conversation with her, after she insists on knowing whether Marlow has heard Kurtz, Marlow thinks: "'Yes, I know,' I said with something like despair in my heart, but bowing my head before the faith that was in her, before that great and saving illusion that shone with an unearthly glow in the darkness" (*HOD*, p. 74).

Here Marlow reveals that the darkness was triumphant and that both him as a European man and the Intended as a European woman could not resist it. The darkness means the ignorance and blindness of these people. They are not capable of looking into it and defending themselves so that they prefer to deny what they are and what they do. Consequently, the false illusion of the Intended corresponds to the hypocritical methods of the European colonialism in Africa.

C. B. Cox (2007) contrasts the two women in *Heart of Darkness*:

The savage is tragic and fierce; we may take it for granted that Kurtz has enjoyed sexual orgies with her in his role as a worshipped god to whom human

sacrifices are offered. Her Dionysiac passions might seem more attractive in their vitality than the living tomb the Intended has created for herself in Brussels. As often in Conrad, objects associated with human things take on appropriate characteristics. The Intended lives in a house in a street as still and decorous as a well-kept alley in a cemetery ... She has chosen for herself a graveyard, where she can exist in comfort only through a lie; her conditions symbolizes that of Western Europe. In contrast, the savage lives out her sexual urges as naturally as if she were a wild beast. (pp. 29-30)

In *Heart of Darkness*, Conrad makes use of several concepts and notions. The fiction embraces psychological issues, political satire, symbolic suggestions, and spiritual assumptions. It is a mixture of autobiography, travelogue, prose and verse, black comedy and so on. Being a layered and paradoxical late nineteenth century tale, it anticipates many of the historical events in the following decades. Indeed, in this sense, the novella is ahead of its time. Meanwhile, it was in its height of critical arguments and debates in 1950-75, and also during the last quarter of the twentieth century some Feminists and Leftists assailed on the political grounds of *Heart of Darkness*.

Heart of Darkness is built on a series of paradoxes which in turn makes it a rich and problematic tale. At times, it is mentioned that civilization equals barbarism; however, it is a worthy achievement of mankind; or imperialism has some valuable goals but it is also cruel, atrocious, and hypocritical; if Kurtz gives up his soul to the devil, he does at least have a soul to bargain; it is better to possess awareness, yet to be unaware and ignorant is a merit. Perhaps, all these paradoxes are proved by the oblique narrative through an interface of light and dark, of white and black, of civilization and primitive.

In his treatment of colonialism, Conrad might have been under the influence of many novels that were available then. He must have read Swift's *Gulliver's Travel* (1726) and Byron's *Don Juan* (1819-24). In his description of Kurtz as a modern Faust, Conrad is indebted to Christopher Marlowe. Both Faust and Kurtz sell their souls to the devil only to get power and satisfaction, though Faust demanded power of knowledge. Kurtz is also similar to Bronte's Heathcliff who is depraved and corrupted but talented and notable. The characters originate from the traditional Gothic fiction by being hero-villain. In his journey to the heart of darkness, Marlow undertakes a Dantean imaginary journey towards the Inferno.

Conrad's skepticism about the brotherly enterprise of the imperial mission can be studied in terms of his Polish background and political assumption too. As deliberated earlier, his parents were among the Polish patriots who were exiled by the Russian authorities. Poland

was partitioned by Austria, Prussia, and Russia and Congo can be examined as being Poland symbolically at the hands of super powers of the time. Meanwhile, Conrad grew up in a family with a father who was an idealist and also involved in romanticism, Apollo Korzeniowski, and an uncle and guardian who transferred his skeptical opinions to the young Conrad, Tadeusz Bobrowski. Consequently, Conrad's sense of paradox and moral conflicts were sustained and strengthened by these two intimate relatives. However, the Polish Conrad chose to be an English after spending many years at sea and when he left the sea for good to be an author, he learnt from his seamanship experiences to respect duty and work. This can be traced in his whole career of writing and especially in his *Heart of Darkness* where he insists on work ethics and job priorities.

Terry Eagleton (1989) shows how Conrad's pessimism is related to the ideology of the Western bourgeois. Eagleton opines: "The pessimism of Conrad's world view is rather a unique transformation into art of an ideological pessimism rife in his period – a sense of history as futile and cyclical, of individuals as impenetrable and solitary" (p. 7).

Beth Sharon Ash (1999) refers to Marlow's experience of the loss of cultural meaning in *Lord Jim* and *Heart of Darkness*. Ash suggests: "Marlow is 'stuck' between his experience of the loss of cultural meaning and a process of mourning/reinterpretation. Unable to reassess inherited cultural idealizations and to mourn their loss ..." (p. 128).

Conrad responds to history, religion, civilization, and human nature in the process of writing *Heart of Darkness*. The tale is among his most dominant works in which the author challenges all these issues while being faithful and being humane. Cedric Watts (1998) highlights some extrinsic factors present in *Heart of Darkness*: "The burgeoning of what became known as cultural Modernism, and the consequent readiness of numerous critics to appreciate and commend the features they recognized as Modernist" (p. 49).

Conrad's antipathy to colonialism and imperialism in *Heart of Darkness* prophetically echoes and predicts the modern degeneration and disorder. The two World Wars showed how man became the victim of his own technology and industrial development. Kurtz's charismatic corruption can correspond to the twentieth century guise of Hitlerism, one tried to exterminate the brutes the other attempted to crush the so called trivial races. Both enjoy an intoxicating eloquence and mastery in leadership. Through the Hitler-like Kurtz, who has German origins, Conrad forecasts the future and the coming of bloodshed i.e., Holocaust and harsh racism. In his spectacular film *Apocalypse Now*, Francis Ford Coppola adopted and generated Conrad's *Heart of Darkness* to dramatize the Kurtzian decadence and self-destruction along with shedding light on twentieth century brutalities and absurdities. Even

T.S. Eliot's *The Waste Land*'s epigraph is a passage from Conrad's *Heart of Darkness* stressing Kurtz's 'The horror! The horror!' Both works reveal the fact that although the twentieth century man holds a secular life, for him death equals extinction. Viewed from this perspective, Kurtz's life at least has a meaning granted by the capacity of his evil and corrupted soul.

Paul Kirschner (1968) marks the soul-madness in Kurtz and its early symptoms in the Europe. The writer avers:

Kurtz was not rich enough for his fiancée's parents, and Marlow infers that 'it was his impatience of comparative poverty' which drove him out to the Congo. 'Comparative' well suggests the nature of those strivings that, garbed in idealism, drew other men to Kurtz 'by what was best in them', surrender to the will to power reveals the fragility of his ready-made humanitarian ideals. Pride, power, terror, and despair are in his face as he makes his famous summing-up: 'The horror!' (p. 46)

Therefore, ideas of absurdity, meaninglessness, nihilism, and isolation are current throughout *Heart of Darkness*. Incidentally, Conrad could affect Kafka, Beckett, and Woolf for whom the modern man is trapped in a chaotic world in which everyone has his detached individuality and no communication is endured. Death is another sharply depicted concept in *Heart of Darkness*; a death which comes only when Kurtz can achieve the realities of life and of his nature. It is a brilliant death which he could attain after he enjoyed a blissful and delighted life; a life full of passions and anxieties, but dazzling and triumphant. The same philosophy runs throughout Ernest Hemingway's novels and thoughts; a philosophy of death that insists on a man being a superhero whose life is dynamic and high-powered; someone who does not forget that the bliss and the joy have an unavoidable sustained relationship with death.

3. Conclusion

The dominant culture in both 'Youth' and *Heart of Darkness* is a Western one. In both novellas, Conrad portrays Marlow as a character who searches for meanings and truth in life. Marlow, a westerner, who is both an observer and an involved character in the events, comes across the East and Africa in 'Youth' and *Heart of Darkness*. In 'Youth', after arriving at an Eastern shore and fulfilling his yearning and attaining maturity, Marlow chooses to go back home and consequently selects Western tradition and way of life. In *Heart of Darkness*, after

finding the designs of colonialism vis-à-vis its lie, false promises, pretensions, and inhumane enterprise in Africa, the upset Marlow who is shocked and influenced by the cruel scenes in Congo and the ferocities there, returns Westward and tells a lie to the Intended about Kurtz and his last hours of life. Marlow's false speech about Kurtz who is viewed as a child of Western civilization and its outcome, shows that in spite of being horrified by what he observed in Congo Marlow becomes, as he was, a member of the same system and ideology whose essence depends on people like Marlow who close their eyes to the truth and indirectly support such convictions. The Marlow of 'Youth' does not accept his new and strange world of the East vis-à-vis Bangkok and returns to the West and conventional society while having an image of what he saw and experienced. *Heart of Darkness's* Marlow goes to the heart of the black Continent and his journey turns into an exploration of the darkness that exists in a human being i.e., Kurtz and his microcosm. Such a small world of Kurtz in fact reveals a macrocosm which Marlow is unable to see and face. He becomes quiet and at times does not comprehend the truth. In both stories, Marlow's power is shattered ultimately. In 'Youth', he finds out a better situation to develop his inner power and experience new worlds and culture but he only retains a memory and goes back home without any further search. In *Heart of Darkness*, he encounters a super power so immense and dominant that he remains speechless and capitulates to it and its system. It appears that Marlow finds the Western culture safe and reliable and hence to him any further step towards the East or the other non-western cultures of the world means insecurity and threat. Although he steps into the heart of Africa, his shield of western ideology and thought is so strong that it makes him follow it involuntarily – a typical instance of culture over Nature.

The kind of culture that one witnesses in Conrad's 'Youth' and *Heart of Darkness* emphasizes the fact that culture survives even though individuals who form it die or disappear. Kurtz dies but the dominant culture which is a Western one remains. In 'Youth', Marlow holds a culture which is dynamic and driving till the point he encounters another culture - an Eastern one. In fact, at the point when Marlow becomes aware of himself as a cultural being, he feels he can do new things and anything he likes. But he is not certain what is the right thing to do or his right doing may lead him into conflict with others. What Marlow reveals or the reader of Conrad's novella finds out is the fact that one's self-awareness as a cultural being surfaces when one confronts a different culture. Marlow acquires knowledge on his way to maturity in 'Youth'. Such a knowledge is part of a web called culture which includes other elements like power, law, morality, and so on. However, Marlow's confrontation with such new experiences and knowledge makes him be aware of

his "being" and his Socio-cultural identity. As an English man, Marlow goes through a process in which he internalizes the culture of his society and helps its stability. It is not only the stability of the key values and beliefs of his culture, but also the stability of the political structures and the structures of domination and exploitation within such a society. By leaving the Eastern shore of Bangkok in 'Youth' and telling a lie to the Intended in *Heart of Darkness*, Marlow paves the way for a politically colonialist structure which aims at exploiting and dominating other cultures. Indeed, Conrad portrays in these two novellas a process by which the dominant culture wields its political power and such power is maintained and perpetuated by people like Marlow. Interestingly, the cultural phenomena cannot be accounted in terms of superiority or inferiority, as there exists a fundamental incommensurability between the value-systems of different cultures all over world.

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Title

Traces of Hyperreality in Tom Stoppard's *The Real Thing*

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Biodata

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Abstract

The present study discusses the concept of hyperreality in Tom Stoppard's play, *The Real Thing*. In the hyperreal world, Baudrillard states, a constructed reality which has just some fake signs of reality and has no origin or exact referent takes the place of reality. In this study, the constructed reality, hyperreality, presents to be the result of the blurring boundaries between reality and fiction by the means of plays-within-the-plays, intertextuality, fusion of reality and fiction and trompe-l'audience in Stoppard's play. Besides, plurality and shifting of identities, characters' taking several roles, repetition and twining cause the signifiers to refer just to each other in an endless bound of signification which recalls Baudrillard's definition of hyperreal world as a self-referential world. In other words, self-referentiality and lack of originality highlight the emergence of hyperreality in the play. Furthermore, the one-dimensional and fascinating media with its seductive power manipulates postmodern man's mind and makes a hyperreal world.

Keywords: Hyperreality, Distorted reality, Lack of originality, Media, Baudrillard, Stoppard

1. Introduction

Postmodern era is bombarded with representation or re-imaging and distortions of reality, simulation and hyperreality which cast doubt, raise uncertainty about the real's validity, and make reality be masked and hidden. Tom Stoppard, as Mackean (2001) states, is an outstanding British playwright whose mind is occupied by "investigating reality" as the word 'real' in titles and themes of his plays suggest, but he tries to hide the truth in his plays and fills the audience's minds with "convincing illusions" (Jenkins, 1989, p. x). Although reality is investigated in Stoppard's works, the researchers of the present study propose that something hides or masks this reality and does not let it be revealed. This mask or distortion of reality is called hyperreality by Jean Baudrillard.

1.1. Jean Baudrillard's Theory of Hyperreality

Hyperreality is an "order of representation" that has "replaced reality" (Powell 1998, p. 58). It is, as Baudrillard (1988a) claims in *Fatal Strategies*, "more real than real" (p. 188). Hyperreality is "a world of self-referential signs" (Poster, 1988, p. 6). In other words, the hyperreal is the result of simulation process in which the natural world and its reference are replaced by "self-referential signs." Therefore, the subject-object distance dissolves and the real is vanished, independent object world is assimilated and artificial codes and simulation models define it (Kellner, 1994, pp. 53-54).

Baudrillard (1983) in *Simulations* offers "three orders of simulacra" and states that a third-order simulacrum produces a "hyperreal" or "the generation by models of a real without origin or reality" (p. 2). This order, as Kellner (1994) argues, is called simulation which is based on the "reproducibility of objects" according to a "binary model" (p. 171). The objects are reproduced, consequently, they become indistinguishable from each other and from the "generated model" (Kellner, 1994, p. 171). In the first and second-order simulacra, the real still exists, and the success of simulation against the real is measurable. Baudrillard is concerned with the third order, hyperreality, which has no real origin. Therefore, in the "third-order simulacrum", reality is no longer even as part of the equation (Lane, 2000, pp. 86-7).

In terms of signification relations, these orders of simulacra are defined as three kinds of links; in the first order, "imitation," there are "direct signifiers-signified links." "Indirect signifier-signified links" exist at the second order, "production." The third order, simulation or "hyperreal," includes "signifier-signifier links" (Kellner, 1994, p. 120). In other words, the number of the signifieds of a signifier is not "fixed." Not only are they changeable but also each signified is signifier of another referent or signified. Thus, signifiers refer just to each other and an "endless

chain of signification" occurs (Roman, 2001, p. 309). Baudrillard in *Simulacra and Simulation* (1988c) states that the hyperreal world is introduced by "liquidation" or extermination "of all referentials" (p. 167). "All the referentials intermingle their discourses," Baudrillard states, "in a circular, Moebian compulsion" (p. 176). He uses the "Moebius strip" as a metaphor for the rapid increase of models and simulation process which is an entangled "spiraled structure" (Kellner, 1989, p. 83). This makes a complicated and "circular" system without any starting or ending points, and any exact referents (Kellner, 1989, p. 83). In *Symbolic Exchange and Death*, Baudrillard (1988d) reiterates that the "finalities have disappeared." This statement equals death of "all referentials" (p. 120). Baudrillard in his essay, *The Hyperrealism of Simulation* (1988b) declares that "reality itself founders in hyperrealism" by the "meticulous reduplication of the real" through the reproductive medium," and the real is "volatilized" (p. 144).

Baudrillard believes that media plays an important role in making the postmodern universe. He asserts that mass media "prevents response" (Kellner, 1989, p. 67), and delineates it as a "simulation machine" which generates the reproduction of ideas, signs, codes and images results in existence and developments of the domain of hyperreality. Once media were thought to show, reflect or even "mirror" reality, whereas a new "media reality," that is, "hyperreality," seems even "more real than the real itself," rules the world. It makes the real be "subordinate" to the representation. Thus, the relation between reality and representation is reversed and the real fades away (Kellner, 1989, p. 68). Generally, media produces a sense of hyperreality to "homogenize" or manipulate the mass audiences (Kellner, 1989, p. 69). Powell, borrowing Fredric Jameson's idea about "postmodern city-dwellers" holds that they are living in a "hallucination", an "exhilarating blur," or "a reality evaporating into mere images and spectacles" (p. 37).

The world of hyperreality and simulation, Kellner (1989) emphasizes, is without static limits, "fixed reference" or definitive construction (p. 90). Baudrillard in *Simulacra and Simulation* (1988c) states that "liquidation of all referentials" (p. 167) and, in *Symbolic Exchange* (1988d), uncertainty and "indeterminacy" (p. 126) about the actuality and originality of reality, leads him to feel the sense of "skepticism" and "dark nihilism" (Kellner, 1989, p. 90).

2. Discussion

2.1. Blurring the Boundaries between Reality and Fiction

The Real Thing is constructed of two worlds, world of reality and that of fantasy or fiction. There are several moments in the play in which the demarcations between reality and unreality are blurred and the spectators, even the characters themselves, become uncertain and doubtful

about the reality of what they are watching or acting out, therefore, a sense of hyperreality or distorted reality pervades the play. In *The Real Thing*, these moments are made by means of plays within the play and "fusion of the outer play with the inner one" (Mancewicz, 2008. P. 90). Besides, literary techniques such as intertextuality and trompe-l'audience help the fusion of reality and fiction. These elements are completely defined in the following.

2.1.1. Play within the Play and Intertextuality

The play starts with a play within a play, Henry's *House of Cards*, and ends with another play, Brodie's TV play. Between these two inner plays there are John Ford's *'Tis Pity She's a Whore* and August Strindberg's *Miss Julie*. In other words, as McNabb (2006) states, *The Real Thing* has been enclosed by "embedded plays" (p. 2).

The play within the play helps the outer play better flourish its theme. *'Tis Pity She's a Whore*, is not totally presented in *The Real Thing*. It means that only the part that suggests the main theme of the play and can help the outer play is included in it. Henry's play, *'Tis Pity*, an inner play in *The Real Thing*, is the story of incest between Giovanni and his sister Annabella, played by Billy and Annie, presents the secret love of the characters they portray. Henry's play presents as a fictional model which frames his future private life with his wife, that is, self-referentiality of the play.

In *Miss Julie*, another inner play, the title character has affairs with her servant, "a man beneath her class," to indicate Annie's "debasement" for having "affairs with Billy" (McNabb, 2006, p. 5). Therefore, the plays within the play intensify the certain themes of the main play such as love, marriage, adultery and family problems. In other words, "the model, or the play supposed to be 'within,' freezes its meaning and controls the dramatic construction of the outer play" (Boireau, 1997, p. 137).

As Zozaya (1988) states each inner play attaches a "new layer" to the "central core" of the play (p. 194). Complex layering of the inner plays make reality more difficult to identify and hyperreality gets chance to run through the play. The play within the play makes an "imaginary world" in a "fictitious" work of art, for instance a play (p.189). In such plays some characters become "actors in the play embedded in the central piece" and others "take the role of the audience." Therefore, a "close relationship" is set between "stage" and audience (p. 189). Thus, the borderline between reality and fiction is blurred.

The line between reality and the "play-world-within-play" of *'Tis Pity*, is easily "blurred" in *The Real Thing*. For instance, the "audience" of the real play can see Annie and Billy, and Giovanni and Annabella, "simultaneously" within the "same actors" (Wilkinson, 2010, p. 54), therefore, it is hard for them to distinguish between the real and the fictional characters.

Stoppard "duplicates the texts of other authors" in his own play (Gigliano, 2006, p. 14). In the characters' dialogues of the main play, there are direct references to the inner plays such as "*'Tis Pity She's a Whore*" in Henry's speech (*The Real Thing*, p. 42), "Brodie's play? Yes, I read it" in Billy's speech (*The Real Thing*, p. 43), and "I saw *House of Cards*" in Billy's speech (*The Real Thing*, p. 45). Act 2, Scene iv is Annie and Billy's rehearsal play. They are rehearsing their dialogue but at a moment the lines between reality and fantasy are blurred and a hyperreal atmosphere pervades. For instance, when they kiss each other and Annie, playing the role of Annabella, kisses Billy and quietly call him by his real name, Billy. In other words, a fusion of their real selves and their roles happens in the play which makes the audience get confused.

As Boireau (1997) states "the inner plays are juxtaposed" in *The Real Thing* (p. 138). "However the play within the play may be initially recognizable in some of the constructions, its contours are soon blurred" (Boireau, 1997, p. 137). Therefore, the "inner play and the outer play," Boireau claims "merge into a new compound." "The inner play and the outer play absorb each other" and demonstrate their fictional nature" (p. 137). In other words, the realities of the play and the plays within this play overlap; thus, demarcations between reality and illusion are violated by floating from one play to the other.

Although Stoppard, Gigliano (2006) argues, "duplicates the texts of other authors" in his own plays (p. 14), in *The Real Thing* such "intertextuality" better serves and strengthens the plot (p. 39). For instance, "Annie's career as an actress provides Stoppard the opportunity to incorporate Strindberg and Ford's words into the script completely unchanged: an actress's life is full of rehearsals" (p. 40). "The title and theme" of *The Real Thing* are "borrowed" from Henry James' *The Real Thing*, a short story written in 1893 (Boireau, 1997, p. 137). Thus, the play has a "thematic intertextual connection to Henry James's story (Gigliano, 2006, p. 41). Besides, the play has "allusions" to Shakespeare's *Othello*, for instance referring to Annie and Henry's original affairs which is betrayed by a handkerchief, *Romeo and Juliet* and Noel Coward's *Private Lives*. Although intertextuality is vivid in Stoppard's play, the lines between embedded texts and his own writings are not obvious. Boireau (1997) argues:

Apart from *'Tis Pity She's a Whore*, a recognizable literary model, the other inner plays are barely distinguishable from the outer one, in both dramatic and theatrical terms. No demarcation line is perceptible between the fictional levels alternating in front of the spectator's eyes. (p.138)

Consequently, the play within the play, as Zozaya (1988) states, breaks the "barriers between fiction and real life" and let one "merge" with the other (p.193). It causes the spectators to

mistake the reality with illusion and ponder on the fictionality of real life and the reality of fiction which leads to the experiencing the hyperreal moments.

2.1.2. Fusion of Reality and Fiction

Stoppard uses, as McNabb (2006) states, "fictional scenes" and "other" play's scenes in his play (p. 4) which makes the "lines between the real thing and the scenes from script to be blurred" (p. 5). Due to this "disassociation between a real and a fictitious experience," the spectators come to this conclusion that one cannot rely on his or her "discernment" (Zozaya, 1988, p. 195). In Scene vi and viii, Annie and Billy play together in which the "boundaries between reality and artificiality" have been "dramatically blurred." The lovers in the play become "lovers in real life," and Annie, like Annabella, turns out to be a "whore" (Zozaya, 1988, p. 195).

Boireau argues (1997) about the levels of fictionality in Stoppard's plays as:

Retrospectively invested with fictitious status, the credibility of the first scene collapses like the house of cards Henry is building. Yet the reality status of the second scene is by no means equivocal itself; on the contrary, its ambiguity deepens as Max and Charlotte, the characters of the first scene and of Henry's play (the inner plot), retain their pseudofictitious names when re-entering the outer play. Max and Charlotte remain in character, though in different frames, at all times. Stoppard repeats the trick twice, in Scenes six and ten, adding further levels of fictionality. (p. 138)

The Real Thing presents behind-the-scenes of the play, that is, the personal lives of the actors, playwrights and their loves. There are several shifts from one play to another or from actors' lives to their real lives which make reality becomes too obscure. For instance, there are moments which the spectators think that the characters are living in the real world but it just turn out to be the world of play. The spectators are confused about what "the real dialogue in the play" is and when a character is "playing a parallel scene" (McNabb, 2006, p. 4).

Moments of hyperreality, in which the distinction between reality and fantasy are blurred, pervade in the play. For instance, [Max] "gives the bowl a shake and creates a snowstorm within it. Then, the snowstorm envelopes the stage" (*The Real Thing*, p. 6). Flowing the snowstorm over the stage makes a hyperreal moment. Besides, Max's dialogue "Lots of people don't have children, in real life" (*The Real Thing*, p. 12) presents Stoppard's emphasis on real life which suggests that there is other life, not a real one, a fantasy world or a hyperreal. Furthermore, Charlotte's speech "I'm a victim of Henry's fantasy" (*The Real Thing*, p. 11) signifies that in postmodern world of hyperreality, man is imprisoned in a fantasy, presented as real, world. Stoppard uses several repetitions of the sentence "He [Henry] takes no notice" (*The Real Thing*,

p. 27) while Annie tries to seize Henry's attention writing a fantasy, signifies how deeply a man is involved in an unreal world that cannot understand what real things take place around him.

Therefore, as Boireau (1997) states, Stoppard's plays are constructed of plays that are "both within and without" that reminds the audience that they are watching something fictional, "preferably written twice over" (p. 138). But the without or the outer play is more real as the main play than the plays within the play. When the inner and the outer play are mixed together, that is, the division between reality and fantasy is distorted, and distinguishing reality from fiction becomes probably impossible. Thus, Stoppard confuses the audience by blurring reality and semblance in order to make the audience "reconsider" their "conception," Zozaya (1988) points out "about reality and fiction" or unreality (p. 195).

2.1.3. Trompe-l'audience

Most of Stoppard's plays, as Zinman (2001) states, open with a "false front", a scene taken as real by the audience but reveals to be a "trompe-l'audience" (p. 121). This false front "tricks" the audience that the "performance" of the play is the "real" (p. 130). Zeifman (1993) refers to this trick as "structural dislocation" which presents "how difficult [it is] to know what precisely is the real" (p. 220). *The Real Thing* begins with a "gripping scene" (Hunter, 1982, p. 5) in which, as Delaney (1985) mentions in "Cricket Bats and Commitment," the "seemingly real" turns out to be "imaginative" (p. 45). The audience considers the first scene of the play, Henry's play, as the real thing before they see the second scene. For instance, in *The Real Thing*, "our false apperception is proved false yet again, as it turns out that although Charlotte is involved in an adulterous marriage, it is her husband who is the adulterer" (Gigliano, 2006, p. 61). Besides, the first scene of *The Real Thing* is presented a piece of Max and Charlotte's real lives, but it reveals to be a scene of Henry's play *House of Cards*. Thus, the first scene, Wilkinson (2010) argues, is an "allusion" proved to be "untrue" in the second scene (p. 53). In Scene i the audience "makes a mistake" and considers "fiction" as a "real." In Scene vi, such mistake is repeated on "the other way round," that is, "real life" is considered as "fiction." In Scene x, the audience falls into the "same trap again": it is just a scene of "rehearsing" (Zozaya, 1988, p. 194).

The strange beginning of the play, that is, being started by a false front, accompanied with multiple plays within the play, injects a sense uncertainty all over the play and makes the audience becomes skeptical of the reality of what is presented. Consequently, Stoppard makes his spectators, even his characters, interpret in the wrong way or misinterpret the realities.

Therefore, the audience is being repeatedly surprised by the numerous revealings which intensify the theme of hyperreality in the play because what is presented to them as reality is revealed to be unreal, then another reality is offered which there is no certainty in its actuality.

2.2. Multiplicity

Multiplicity or the plurality of referents or signifieds which as Roman (2001) states, causes the signifiers to refer just to each other in an "endless chain of signification" (p. 309) is a crisis in postmodern era. This crisis leads to uncertainty and doubt about the actuality of the presented reality. Studying cases such as taking multiple roles, "haunting repetition," (Boireau, 1997, p. 144) and twining in *The Real Thing* make this matter clear.

2.2.1. Taking Multiple Roles

The Real Thing, a blended play of inner plays within the outer play, provides for its characters the opportunity to take different roles and identities by keeping their own real roles or identities. In other words, the sense of acting or role playing is pervaded in the play. For instance, Annie, Max's wife and Henry's beloved not only acts out the role of Miss Julie in the August Strindberg play's *Miss Julie*, but also she plays the role of Annabella in *'Tis Pity She's a Whore*.

Max, Annie's husband, is the male lead in Henry's play *House of Cards*. The same happens for Charlotte, Henry's wife, who acts out the female lead in *House of Cards*, a character that is completely different from her stage persona. Charlotte's dialogue "thinking that I'm her... – It's me! – ooh, it's her!" (*The Real Thing*, p. 11) presents characters' multiple role-takings and signifies Stoppard's direct awareness of audience's confusion of characters' taking several roles.

Henry, the playwright of *House of Cards*, plays in *The Real Thing* the role he had written for his male character, Max, in his own play; therefore, "Stage characters," Hunter (1982) states, participate in "play-acting" (p. 10) or "actors play actors acting onstage and offstage in their real lives" (Turner, 2007, p. 115). Actors of *The Real Thing* are shifting between their real characters and their fictive ones they are acting out. Therefore, the audience is confused when the actors are the real characters of the play and when they are in their characters or they are acting out in an inner play. In other words, the playing roles are fused, the lines between reality and fiction are blurred and the spectators are faced with a hyperreal world.

2.2.2. Haunting Repetition

Boireau (1997) states that the "haunting repetition," (p. 144) is a mood of Stoppard's "metadrama" (p. 140). Stoppard is interested in "overemphasizing the fictional nature of the model and its double" thus, poses "repetitive dramatic situations" for making a "high level of improbability" (p. 139). In *The Real Thing*, as Zozaya (1988) states, every important issue in the play takes place "twice" or thrice. For instance, the beginning scene in Henry's *House of Cards*

reaches to its "significance" by being compared to the scene iii in the "real play," and to the scene ix, when Henry discloses "Annie's adultery" (p. 194). There is a "Chinese box-like succession of sets" in the play which starts from the "false" living room set, that is, a "set within the set," then moves to the "true" one. These two "living room sets" appear again and again in the play while the "couples are reconfigured" (Zinman, 2001, p. 131).

Stoppard "doubles actions by repeating a scene in the play" (Giglierno, 2006, p. 14). The first scene of the play within the play in *The Real Thing* repeats in the real lives of its characters, therefore, the inner play foretells the future and presents an illusion. But the illusion becomes reality when the real husbands in the play, Max and Henry, are confronted with their adulterous wives. Therefore, they bear a sudden confusion and provocation by such repetition. Besides, Stoppard relates the first scene to other moments of the play. For instance, the senses of Max's going through Charlotte's things, searching her "passport," are repeated by Annie's searching of Henry's "papers" in Scene iv, by Billy's searching for Charlotte's "diaphragm" in Scene vii, and by Henry's "trying to find a proof against Annie" in Scene ix (Zozaya, 1988, p. 195).

The structure of the play "doubles, trebles or quadruples itself within the play" (Zinman, 2001, p. 121). For instance, in Scene v Stoppard writes "Henry is alone, sitting in a chair, doing nothing (*The Real Thing*, p. 45). It's like the beginning of Scene i and Scene iii from Act I. In the same scene, Henry behaves the same as his fictive character in *House of Cards*, Max. Besides, the scene of adultery in Henry's play is repeated in a scene of the real play. Consequently, Stoppard "doubles actions by repeating a scene within a play" (Giglierno, 2006, p. 14).

"All the referentials intermingle their discourses," as Baudrillard (1988c) states in *Simulacra and Simulation*, "in a circular, Moebian compulsion" (p. 176). As Kellner (1989) in *Jean Baudrillard* emphasizes, Baudrillard uses the "Moebius strip" as a metaphor for the rapid increase of models and simulation process, an entangled "spiraled structure" which makes a complicated and "circular" system without any starting or ending points and any exact referents (p. 83). Baudrillard (1988d), in *Symbolic Exchange and Death*, reiterates that "finalities have disappeared", which means, death of "all referentials" (p. 120). Here in the play, *The Real Thing*, Henry's statement is significant:

How about "what free love is free of is love"? Another little gem. You could put a "what" on the end of it, like Bertie Wooster. What free love is free of love is, what?"- and the words would go on replicating themselves like a spiral of DNA... What love is free of love?- *free* love is what love, what? (p. 49)

Henry's dialogue clearly presents Baudrillard idea about how circular repetitive models, like DNA strip, entangled in each other and makes the identification of its beginning and ending points or referencing impossible.

In *The Real Thing* there are two illusionary mirrors. The play happens between "two facing mirrors, Life and Art," Simon (1984) argues, "reflecting what they see back and forth to infinity (mirrors playing an endless game of Ping-pong), except that one cannot be quiet sure which mirror is which" (p. 64). Trying to establish what they are reflecting with any certainty, one has to "keep turning one's head from one mirror to the other," yet the ending answer is in the "last image," the one in "infinity," to which neither the "dramatist personae nor the audience" can pass through. Thus, both have to accept one "uncertainty as a working hypothesis, but which one?" (Simon, 1984, p. 64).

Art works as a mirror that reflects reality. His deliberate repetition of certain scenes, Act 1, Scenes i and iii, Act 2, Scene v, suggests the possibility of imitation of life by art. Stoppard's "repetition of certain scenes" signifies that "life can imitate art" and life and art are inseparable (McNabb, 2006, p. 4).

2.3.2. Twinning

Zeifman (1993) argues that allusions to other works in *The Real Thing*, a form of "twinning" in the play, starts from the Act 1, Scene i when Charlotte slams the door, a slam that echoes "Nora's slamming in Ibsen's *A Doll's House*" (p. 218). The slamming door not only collapses the literal house of cards Max has been building, but also it breaks down their marriage, that is, the figurative house of cards. Besides, twinning also pervades in "props, costumes, and sets of the play" (p. 218). Zeifman (1993) discusses that the props such as the "cricket bat, the coffee mug, the phonograph records, the vegetable dip" and "handkerchief" are twined in the play (p. 218). For instance, Henry's handkerchief found by Max disintegrates Annie and Max's marriage, suggesting *Othello*.

The "costumes" are also twined in the play (Zinman, 2001, p. 131). For instance, Stoppard points out that "Charlotte enters barefoot, wearing Henry's dressing gown which is too big for her" (*The Real Thing*, p. 7) and "Annie enters from the bedroom door, barefoot and wearing Henry's robe, which is too big for her" (*The Real Thing*, p. 27).

The train setting, Zinman (2001) mentions, is another twinned set which presents both a "false" and a "true" one (p. 131) which their actuality is not easy to be grasped by the audience. The inner play, "House of Cards double the plot of *The Real Thing*," for instance, both Charlotte's husbands, the real and the fictional, are "architect," "Act 2 twins Act 1," Henry's two marriages "twin" one another and that wives are like each other (Zinman, 2001, p. 131).

The character's dialogues in the play, Zinman (2001) states, are also "twinned." For instance, Henry intends to join the "Justice for Brodie Committee" (p. 132) to be close to Annie; and when Charlotte objects his lack of right motivation, Henry replies, "what does he [Brodie] care if we're motivated by the wrong reasons" (*The Real Thing*, p. 23). Also when Billy decides to act in Brodie's bad-written play just to be close to Annie, she tells him "you shouldn't do it for the wrong reasons" (*The Real Thing*, p. 45). The "dialogue duplications," Zinman (2001) claims "resonate" in several ways in the play (132). For instance, when Billy begins with vigor their love scene from *'Tis Pity* on the train for declaring himself to Annie, "Oh, Annabella, I am quite undone!" she objectively replies, "Billy!" (*The Real Thing*, p. 46), but in a real rehearsal in Glasgow, Billy, in the role of Giovanni, says, "Thou wilt chide me, then. Kiss me" [He kisses her lightly.] and Annie says "Billy" and she returns his kiss (*The Real Thing*, p. 53). Stoppard "twins the dialogue," Zinman (2001) argues, as a "structural device," an "intertextual allusion" and people's repetition of others' speeches (p. 132). For instance, Debbie tells her father "exclusive rights isn't love, it's colonization" (*The Real Thing*, p. 50), and also Henry repeats Debbie's speech to Annie.

2.4. Lack of Originality

Originality is an important issue for Henry. He claims that Bach "has stolen" the music "note for note" from "Procul Harum" and tries to "play the original" for Annie (*The Real Thing*, p. 60). Besides, he confuses "Verdi with Strauss" among other repeated instances of his "ignorance." This "inability to define an origin" is "evidenced in the sequence of rehearsals" (Turner, 2007, p. 124). Furthermore, Max's repeated emphasis on Strindberg's play through his dialogue "Julie. *Miss Julie*. Strindberg's *Miss Julie*. *Miss Julie* by August Strindberg" (*The Real Thing*, p. 25) presents intertextuality and lack of originality of Stoppard's play. In other words, "Stoppard's plays always assert their textual origin." "Excerpts from the original plays," Boireau (1997) suggests, are "simply quoted," "performed on stage" and accepted as the inner play. The inner plays are "made visible and recognizable, closely bound up, structurally and thematically, with the outer play" (p. 137).

2.5. Self-Referentiality

The "circular self-reference" of Stoppard's plays (Brassell, 1985, p. 262) are vivid in his performance and language. He, as Boireau (1997) states, "exploits the equivocal and arbitrary relationship between signifier and signified" to "overemphasize the performative function of dramatic language" which means that a "speech-act can be repeated ad infinitum" (p. 141). In other words, his "self-referential language" of plays conveys "no fixed meaning but floating" (p. 142). Besides, "self-referential space in Stoppard's plays gives a strong sense of hyperrealism,

the very mark of trompe l'oeil, which advertizes its fake perspective and points to itself as a copy in the making" (p. 145). In *The Real Thing*, Henry's play, a play within the play, presents as a fictional model which frames his future private life with his wife. This foreshadowing shows a strong sense of self-refrentiality in the play.

2.6. The Effects of Media on Minds

The society, ruled by simulation and hyperreality, checks and determines ranges of public's responses and choices. Certain "models" and "codes," Baudrillard (1993) asserts in *Simulations* (p. 111), are introduced by the system to make the individuals react as it is pre-programmed in the domains of "economics, politics," social life and culture. Baudrillard claims that media imposes on the mass audience to think, feel and react as the media desires by distorting reality. In other words, media produces a sense of hyperreality to "homogenize" or manipulate the mass audiences (Kellner, 1989, p. 69).

In *The Real Thing*, there are so many instances of depiction of media's captivating power. For instance, Annie replies to Henry "You teach a lot of people what to expect from good writing, and you end up with a lot of people saying you write well" (p. 39) or "You may perhaps alter people's perceptions" (p. 41). Annie's responses to Henry signify how media, here drama, manipulates the minds by making hyperreal world. Besides, Brodie's play, "a plain reality" is considered as a "bad play" and Henry decides to "put enough illusion to its bare, rude truth to make it art-like, performable, real" (p. 64). Henry says "I tart up Brodie's unspeakable drive into speakable one" (*The Real Thing*, p. 61). It is done on TV but it is not what Brodie means to convey. In other words, his depiction of real reality is distorted. "The real Brodie," (p. 165) Jenkins refers, is the one who writes about reality but his reality is distorted and manipulated by media and a TV scenario writer. In Scene vi, Annie and Billy repeat Gionnina and Annabella's dialogues from *'Tis Pity She's a Whore* but as Turner suggests, "one can read the words of another" but can "imbue them with one's own voice and discursive purpose" (p. 124). Furthermore, Henry's dialogue "There is nothing real there separate from our perception of them" (p. 41) intensifies the manipulative power of media which provides the pre-modeled perception for the audience. In other words, Stoppard's "characters" do not search for an "author" nor for a "role" since the "role is already pre-defined by the model" (Boireau, 1997, p. 139). In other words, the characters' roles and theme of *The Real Thing* are pre-designed by its plays within the play.

Consequently, these inner plays control the presented reality of the outer play. The plays, inner and outer ones, as media, manipulate the spectators' minds to think and believe realities as the pre-designed media, a medium of pervading hyperreality, expects to accept them as reality.

2.7. Sense of Uncertainty

The Real Thing is a "hall of mirrors," Jenkins (1989) argues, that is, "honest statement and deceiving appearances go together" without canceling each other; therefore, the play is a "guessing-game to which there might not be a real answer" (p. 159).

"In betraying one 'reality' after another, for instance the first false scene, Stoppard toys with the very nature of theatrical illusion" (Jenkins, 1989, p. 160) and intensifies the sense of uncertainty in the play. In other words, Stoppard has "cheated" the audience and has demolished the audience's "well-rooted confidence" for discerning between "what is real" and "what is not" (Zozaya, 1988, p. 194).

Stoppard presents an "intrinsically fluid relationship," Sproule (2000) emphasizes, "between signifier and signified" (p. 6) which presents that he "resists" against "any one interpretation" (p. 9). He himself states that "It is a mistake to assume that such questions have that kind of answer [yes-or-no]. I personally think that anybody's set of ideas which grows out of the play has its own validity" (Delaney, 1994, p. 58). Stoppard emphasizes here that there are multiple interpretations or as Sproule (2000) sates "myriad of possible meanings" (p. 3).

3. Conclusion

The Real Thing consists of some imbedded inner plays which add fictional levels to the main play. In other words, it is a mixture of inner plays in a construction called the outer play. But this construction is not that much stable or fixed, that is, the demarcations between the real play and the inner plays, fantasy or unreality, are blurred by plays within the play, intertextuality and author's trompe-l'audience which make the spectators, even the characters, become confused in distinguishing and discerning between reality and what is presented to them as reality. In other words, they are trapped in a hyperreal world which Baudrillard refers to as a "world without a real origin" (*Simulations 2*). Although Stoppard emphasizes the originality through the mouth of his male lead character, Henry, but those references to originality are revealed to be fake. Poster based on Baudrillard's theories mentions that world of hyperreality is "a world of self-referential signs" (6) or "circular self-reference" (Brassell 262). The number of the signifieds of a signifier is not "fixed." Not only are they changeable but also each signified is signifier of another referent or signified. Thus, the signifiers refer just to each other and an "endless chain of signification" occurs (Roman 309). Such multiplicity is pervaded in *The Real Thing* by characters' taking several roles and identities while keeping their own. Actors are shifting between their real characters and their fictive ones they are acting out. Therefore, the spectators

are confused when they are the real characters of the play and when they are in their characters or roles. In other words, the playing roles are blended, the lines between reality and fiction are blurred, and the spectators are faced with a hyperreal world. Besides, frequent repetitions and twining lead to audience's uncertainty about the presented reality because of the possibility of the existence of multiple interpretations and meanings.

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Title

Different Kinds of Conflict in the Tales of Mystic Poems of Attar Neyshaburi's *The Conference of the Birds* Based on Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT)

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Abstract

One of the greatest mystical poems in the world is *The Conference of the Birds* by the Iranian author and poet Attar about whose life very little is known. This study psychologically analyzes 191 tales from *The Conference of the Birds* on the basis of Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) and with analytical-descriptive methods. Understanding Attar and the structure of different kinds of conflict in *The Conference of the Birds* according to TAT are the objectives which will have a new attitude towards a humanitarian approach in psychology. The tales are psychologically analyzed in two aspects of content and form. Exposition and affiliation were of the most distinguished needs. Among the most prominent of the pressures one can mention the affliction and uncongenial environment. The statistics gained from needs and pressures indicate that the stages of mysticism meaningfully

result in deduction of different kinds of conflicts. Interaction of needs and pressures leads to the self-recognition theme. Eventually, Attar's humanitarian approach to life is presented.

Keywords: Psychological approach, Mysticism, Conflict, The Conference of the Birds, Attar, Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT)

1. Introduction

Shaikh Farid ud-din Attar Neyshaburi is one of the Iranian authors and poets of the 6th century A.H. (1145- 1220 A.D.). Among his mystical poems, *The Conference of the Birds* is the most appealing and eloquent and should be considered the crown of Attar's poetry (Attar, 1974). One of the features of *The Conference of the Birds* is mysticism. Mysticism is the path to self-awareness and self-recognition. It helps people to understand themselves in order to be themselves. The need and the interest on the basis of which human beings want to understand themselves is the reflection of mystical spirit in mankind. In other words, mysticism is getting rid of self, the self that is the true enemy of mankind, the self that is the source of all miseries and poverties (Malekzadeh, 2006). Thus, *The Conference of the Birds* as a mystical work is the path to self-recognition. It is a tale that tells the birds' story, who with the leadership of a hoopoe, go to a long journey filled with problems in order to find the phoenix (Simorgh). The hoopoe brings different anecdotes in order to guide the birds. Therefore, another feature of *The Conference of the Birds* is its dramatic aspect. It is a drama that attempts to refine the readers as the result of their empathy with the hero. People will be filled with sympathy and fear and it will be sympathy for the characters with whom they have empathized. Therefore, the tragedy creates in them what in psychology is called "projection". Tragedy allows the audience to strongly feel these two emotions that are found in the difficult situations of real life. In the framework of theater, these emotions can be felt without danger or destructive results. Thus, tragedy puts emotions in a certain path and contributes to keeping the emotional balance of people and social peace (Aristotle, 1958). Hence, on this basis too, *The Conference of the Birds* leads to purge from the aspect of drama and helps self-recognition from the aspect of mysticism. Investigation of both areas is in the realm of psychology. Analysis of a dramatic-mystical work, such as *The Conference of the Birds*, that shows the approach from self-recognition to purge as a generic, must present the hidden psychological concepts in line with improvement of a stable social system. This is due to the fact that *The Conference of the Birds* is one of the most prominent mystical-artistic works in the world

literature (Attar, 2008). A psychological analysis of such a valuable and important work as *The Conference of the Birds* is new in itself and it may even expand the realm of psychology.

The majority of psychological criticisms have been based on Freudian psychology and ideas. A literary critic usually needs to apply other tools in order to be able to correctly interpret the concepts (Guerin et al., 1978). The new nature of the subject is due to the fact that for the first time, the psychological analysis has used TAT for criticism of a dramatic-mystical work to investigate the structure of different kinds of conflict from the psychological aspect.

In order to analyze *The Conference of the Birds*, TAT is used because this test is a psychological tool that evaluates the themes and deals with the characters simultaneously (Groth-Marnat, 1984). While we evaluate *The Conference of the Birds* using TAT, some new aspects of Attar's life and perspective will also be provided. This will effectively contribute to Persian literature because the existing information concerning Attar is miniscule (Attar, 2008).

2. Method

The present study will be done using analytical-descriptive methods. Since this is an artistic work and is investigated from the psychological perspective, it can be said that the present study has a psychological approach.

2.1. Statistical Population

The statistical population and sample of this research is all the tales found in Sheikh Farid ud-din Attar Neyshaburi's *The Conference of the Birds*. Its lines of poems exceeds 4725 (Attar, 2008). This book of poetry includes 191 tales and the main story is the journey to the Phoenix (Simorgh). It also has some separated parts; including introduction, The Valley of Quest, The Valley of Love, The Valley of Understanding, The Valley of Independence and Detachment, The Valley of Unity, The Valley of Astonishment and Bewilderment, The Valley of Deprivation and Death, and eventually the Ending.

Introduction: this part includes 133 tales. The author starts by praising God. Guiding readers in *The Conference of the Birds* starts with the narrative of the hoopoe. Five poems have been composed to describe each bird. The hoopoe introduces the Phoenix (Simorgh), who is great and the world is its sign. The chain of all beings is in the Phoenix's hands. Probably, all that the birds wanted and wished to have were in its hands (lines 742, 743). The hoopoe invites the birds to go on a difficult journey with him to meet the Phoenix (Simorgh).

For this journey, some birds bring some excuses and the hoopoe, in the role of the guide, warns them and tells them all they want will be found by the Phoenix (Simorgh). As a result, some birds accompany the hoopoe in the journey. At the beginning of the journey, the hoopoe speaks of the seven difficult valleys, after passing which they will reach the Phoenix (Simorgh) (line 3248).

The Valley of Quest: this valley includes seven tales. The first tale is between God and Satan.

The Valley of Love: this stage includes six tales. When one passes through the stage of Quest, they will be overwhelmed by love.

The Valley of Understanding: this valley has five tales. The self-less lover is on the path to perfection.

The Valley of Independence and Detachment: there are seven tales in this stage. As the name indicates, it is the valley of needlessness and detachment (Attar, 2008).

The Valley of Unity: it has five tales and it is also called the theism valley. It means when one was drowned in unity of God, they will lose and forget the awareness of being loss (ibid).

The Valley of Astonishment and Bewilderment: there are five tales in this valley. Astonishment and Bewilderment is the valley of pain, regret, and pity. Astonishment and Bewilderment overcomes all the existence. At this stage, the traveler is confused about their being or not being. It is a stage in which one becomes self-less and the "self" will be unstable (Sajadi, 1983).

The Valley of Deprivation and Death: there are eleven tales in this part. This is a valley in which speaking and listening is lost due to the Astonishment and Bewilderment of the previous stage. How will the ambitious lover and seeker realize their state of nothingness? How will the initial benefit-seeking individual be moved from the world of materialism to the sea of relief (lines 3973-3974). The ending of the main journey of the birds toward the Phoenix (Simorgh) is shaped here. Among all the birds that intended to see the Phoenix (Simorgh), thirty tired and confused birds are left. When entering the Phoenix' place, they did not find anyone else. These thirty birds, all together, formed the Phoenix (Simorgh) (lines 4265-4268). The unification of the thirty birds in "Simorgh" (literally meaning Thirtybirds), which is the main theme of *The Conference of the Birds*, (sattari, 2008).

Ending: there are twelve tales in this part that tell the story of Attar (lines 4483-4484).

2.2. Measurement tool

The tool used in this study is TAT, designed by Henry Murray in 1938 in the psychological clinic of Harvard University. TAT is a projection psychological test. It aims to unveil the main contents of the person's imaginative processes. The psychologist attempts to achieve repeated contents which might be the sign of needs and motivations in resolving people's relationships (Groth-Marnat, 1984). TAT is analyzed in two aspects of form and content. The form aspect deals with the form of story-telling, language, descriptions, and relationship of the stories (Karami, 2007). In the content area of interpretation, Murray deals with five areas: The Hero, Needs, Press, Themes and Outcomes, and Interests and Sentiments. This study of *The Conference of the Birds* merely deals with its content aspect (Groth-Marnat, 1984).

1. The Hero: hero is the person who has the main role of the story and the events of the story center around him/her. This test assumes that the testee projects its needs and feelings for the hero. Therefore, the first step in analyzing the story is identification of the story's hero (Groth-Marnat, 1984).

2. Needs: needs of the hero in this test are considered the motivations of the behavior. According to Murray, needs are the hidden energy of the behavior and motivate the person to activate in desirable conditions. He is also of the conviction that each need is being interpreted in the brain and it links the thought and the practice in a way that it will eventually lead to satisfaction of the need (ibid).

3. Press: the effect of the interactions of other characters with the hero has been called pressure by Murray. The other characters and the testee's interpretation of them, inform his/her perception of other characters and the images by which she/he lives.

4. Theme and Conclusion of the Story: theme mainly acts as an unintelligent force and it has been described by Murray as a combination of dominant needs with contrasting interactive relationships with one another or with environmental pressures and they will create the theme (Groth-Marnat, 1984). Eventually, the tales might end in one of desirable states such as successful or unsuccessful endings such as failure, punishment or inability.

5. Interests and Sentiments: interests and sentiments are analyzed separately. This is because the inventor of the story reveals his/her interests and sentiments not only through attributing them to the heroes but also through choice of subjects (Karami, 2007).

3. Results

Findings of the Study with Regard to the Content Aspect of TAT

- Heroes of *The Conference of the Birds* according to the content aspect of TAT

The first step in analyzing the story is identifying the hero. All characters of *The Conference of the Birds* can be divided into: 1. Symbolic characters 2. Moral-exemplar characters or 3. Complementary characters from whom the heroes are selected. The point is that the heroes, who are selected from symbolic and complimentary characters, have moral-exemplar features (Khosravi Khorashad, 2010).

- Needs and Pressures in the Heroes of The Conference of the Birds on the basis of Content Aspect of TAT

TAT was applied to 191 tales of The Conference of the Birds. After identifying the heroes, the different kinds and strength of needs and the consequent pressures were evaluated.

Table 1

Strength of Different Needs in Different Stages of the Conference of the Birds

Stages Needs	Introduction	Quest	Love	Understanding	Independence and Detachment	Unity	Astonishment and Bewilderment	Deprivation and Death	Ending
Achievement	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Acquisition	35	13	0	0	6	0	7	0	0
Aggression	14	0	4	0	0	0	0	7	0
Construction	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Counteraction	67	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	3
Dominance	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0
Exposition	252	16	13	14	19	14	9	18	12
Recognition	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Understanding	95	3	2	1	8	4	12	0	1
Affiliation	221	21	16	5	5	9	8	36	10
Deference	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Nurturance	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sex	14	0	4	0	1	0	0	2	13
Succorance	31	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	5
Autonomy	32	5	4	0	0	0	2	6	0
Change, Travel, Adventure	46	0	0	0	4	4	0	8	1
Excitance	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Playmirth	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Abasement	56	0	4	4	0	0	0	13	0
Blame Avoidance	8	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0
Cognizance	28	0	0	0	4	0	13	5	3
Harm Avoidance	21	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Passivity	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Rejection	44	0	4	2	1	0	0	5	4
Retention	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sentience	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	4	0

Needs: on the basis of Murray's needs, Table 1 conveys the needs in *The Conference of the Birds* include: Aggression, dominance, autonomy, change, travel, adventure, counteraction, rejection, abasement, succorance, achievement, deference, cognizance, sex,

sentience, exposition, blame avoidance, understanding, affiliation, nurturance, harm avoidance, acquisition, passivity, and retention.

Among these needs, the need for exposition with the strength of 367 and the need for affiliation with the strength of 126 are among the most prominent needs of *The Conference of the Birds*. This is while the need for passivity with the strength of 6 and the need for retention with the strength of 5 have allocated to themselves the lowest frequency. The need for playmirth, existence, recognition, and construction are among the needs that do not have a place among the heroes of *The Conference of the Birds*.

Table 2 Strength of different kinds of pressure in different stages of the Conference of the Birds

Stages Pressure	Introduction	Quest	Love	Understanding	Independence and Detachment	Unity	Astonishment and Bewilderment	Deprivation and Death	Ending
Acquisition	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Retention	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lack	9	4	0	0	3	0	4	0	0
Loss	58	2	4	4	1	5	10	6	1
Rejection	81	4	9	0	0	0	0	2	3
Uncongenial Environment	148	8	11	11	8	4	8	8	0
Dominance	57	4	0	0	0	1	0	4	0
Imposed Task, Duty, Training	47	0	0	5	0	1	4	0	0
Aggression	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0
Affliction	90	4	4	10	3	0	16	12	20
Death of Hero	34	4	0	0	9	0	0	5	0
Physical Danger	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Physical Injury	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Affiliation	7	0	0	0	0	2	4	5	0
Deference	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nurturance	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sex	6	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Succorance	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Birth of Offspring	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Claustrum	27	0	3	0	9	0	0	0	4
Cognizance	49	0	0	3	14	0	3	0	4
Example	23	4	0	0	4	0	0	0	8
Exposition	39	0	0	0	3	0	3	2	0
Luck	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Pressures imposed on the heroes of the tales include: dominance, aggression, affiliation, affliction, loss, claustrum, uncongenial environment, death of hero, lack, succorance, imposed task, duty, training, sex, physical injury, cognizance, rejection, example, and exposition. Among different pressures, the pressure of uncongenial environment with the strength of 224 and the pressure of affliction with the strength of 204 are among the most prominent pressures. Physical danger, luck, sex, acquisition, succorance, retention, deference with the strengths of 9,9,8,7,5,1,1 have respectively allocated the least amount of pressures to

themselves. The pressure of birth of offspring and nurturance cannot be found in *The Conference of the Birds*.

- Themes in *The Conference of the Birds* on the Content Aspect of TAT

The contrast between needs and pressures leads to the theme of self-recognition which results in heroes' unity in different aspects of their personality and will eventually leads to catharsis and ultimately transcendence of dimensions of heroes' personality.

- Interests and Sentiments of Heroes of *The Conference of the Birds* on the basis of the Content Aspect of TAT

Among the most prominent interests of Attar Neyshaburi, which he has projected upon his heroes, one can mention love. Since a considerable number of dramatic scenes are about facing death, one can assess Attar's anxiety of facing death as high. Attar is not afraid of death, but the anxiety of facing the after-death world has confused him. These conflicts cause different kinds of conflicts.

3.1. Struggle and Conflict

In a dramatic work, conflict can be defined as a background that links the fundamental moments of the drama and interprets their existence and their significance. It is a sort of situation which emerges on the basis of crisis and in which the crisis is expanded and reaches its climax on the ground of conflict. This climax is a background for future conflicts. Conflict is a container in which all elements and components of drama are presented (Qaderi, 2007). Based on the nature of the opposing forces in the plot, conflict is of different kinds which are detailed below.

They are: man against nature, man against fate, man against man, man against him/herself, man against society, and man against community (ibid). In any dramatic work of art conflict is like the beat of the heart (Egri, 2006) and the suspension takes this beating, anxiety and stress to its peak. The suspension is one of the sensual states of the spectator and is their psychological reaction to other factors.

Fig. 1 indicates the individual's conflicts at different stages of *The Conference of the Birds*. Conflicts of people against society, against man, against nature, against fate, against themselves have allocated to themselves the highest space in the introduction. Table 1 demonstrates that the strength of needs of heroes decreases at the valleys of Quest, love, Understanding, Independence and Detachment, unity of God, Astonishment and Bewilderment, Deprivation and Death and Table 2 is indicative of decrease of pressure at different stages of *The Conference of the Birds*.

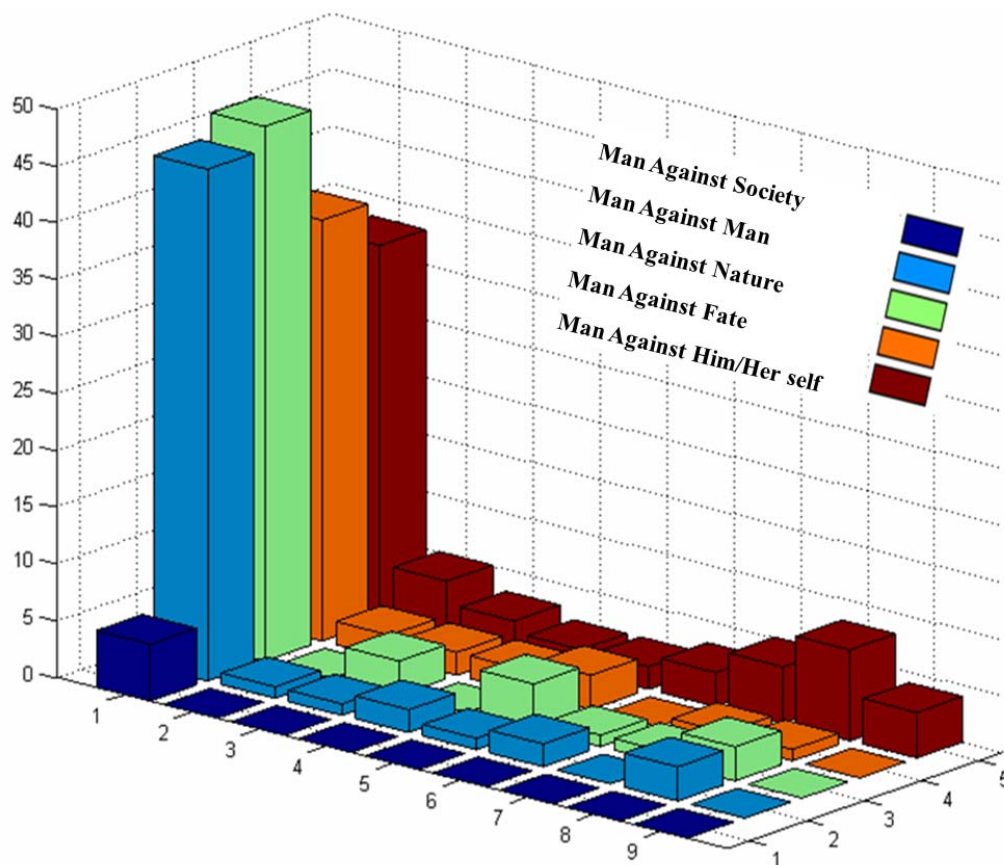


Figure 1. Different kinds of conflict at the stages of The Conference of the Birds

- Conclusion of the Story of *The Conference of the Birds* on the basis of Content Aspect of TAT

The majority of conclusions have successful and sophisticated endings. The characters are awarded or punished based on their activities and their thoughts. There is sometimes the pressure of dominance or fatalism which the characters need to accept unconditionally (Khosravi Khorashad, 2010).

4. Discussion

Sheikh Farid ud-din Attar Neyshaburi is a mystical poet who lived in the autocratic regime of the 6th century. He has written many works, the most prominent of which is the mystical book of poems of *The Conference of the Birds*. This book of poems has 191 tales. This study is the application of TAT on all tales of *The Conference of the Birds*. The first step in the path of self-recognition is the individual's own Quest and want. Quest means wanting (Mo'in, 1985). Wanting a thing is only possible after that thing comes into existence. The mystic seeks the thing that he/she yearns and wants to have all that is yearned. He/She needs to seek all the yearned within him/herself, and he/she might not even achieve it if it is desired from the

external world (sajadi, 1983). When the birds enter the valley of Quest, they need to make every effort to purge their hearts (ibid). The first valley has many difficulties and hardships. These hardships are due to the fact that the real Quest needs to appear in the heart. If so, religion or profanity will not have meaning any more. The majority of people are of the conviction that they know well what they want and what is the best for them. However, people sometimes have some goals or motivations of which they are not aware (Epstein, 1991). Therefore, the reactions which are in conflict with the person's understanding of his ideal self need to be analyzed (Franken, 2005). The ideal self is the best self one can have and it is the combination of the person's wishes and dreams (Schultz, 2008). The ideal self in *The Conference of the Birds* includes the purge of the soul and achieving the desired whole and thus the emergence of the perfect human being, the perfect human being who is aware of the nature and the nobility of heart and mind. A mind that has no place in Attar's mentality and the love that is sacred to him. The exchange of soul and body for becoming aware is a great motivation for showing the greatness of Attar's beloved. Attar's beloved is not an easy one to get. According to Bach's (1804-1872) interpretation, gods are the embodiment of the human being's ideal nature and they are the unconscious tools of self-recognition and self-transcendence. Freud, too, agreed with this interpretation (Wulff, 2007). On this basis, it can be said that Attar wants to humanize the unattainable God. Showing God's characteristics, he propels the reader towards his ideal god in *The Conference of the Birds* (Baumgardner, 1990). Heroes of the tales of *The Conference of the Birds* show humanity in order not to have guilty conscience; they show chivalry so not to be secluded; they sacrifice themselves so not to feel guilty; they are committed so not to be tried by their superego. In order not to be strangled, they behave manly. They make efforts to relieve their souls. There is no doubt that these people are in love with themselves. The heroes of *The Conference of the Birds* make every effort to free themselves. More interestingly, they are approved by those who hear them. For this reason, they serve even the wrong-doers and bad people and like them. Bad people might even serve the good and their acts might free the chivalrous. These people show the least amount of self-conflict. Social compatibility is in its height. According to *The Conference of the Birds*, when a mystic gets close to the ideal self of a perfect human being, he/she has achieved victory. Before understanding and dealing with the ideal self, one needs to have a comprehensive understanding of the concept of human being and the internal aspects. Self-recognition includes a way of thinking about the world and about human being's capability to deal with the world. Self-recognition expresses the past, the present, and the future. It might

be with conscious or unconscious (Franken, 2005). When dignity of the person reaches the high levels, self-recognition has taken place.

Here, Attar expresses his understanding of the reality of God and human being's inferiority in the frame of the story of the journey to the Phoenix (Simorgh). However, before the journey takes place, the hoopoe describes the greatness of the Phoenix (Simorgh) in order to create suspension. As the result of this suspension, birds became so eager to see the Phoenix (Simorgh) and they take the trip. It is undoubtedly impossible to see and achieve such a situation without facing any problems. There are many obstacles, hurdles, hardships and problems on the way which are realized in the form of pressure. As it can be seen, suspension leads to Astonishment and Bewilderment. It can be seen that internal and external conflicts are formed through needs and pressures imposed on the characters. The characters of *The Conference of the Birds*, like any ordinary individual, have certain interactions with the outside world in their daily life. These interactions are sometimes sources of troubles. Having a dramatic interpretation, it can be said that they are the sources of creating crisis. The conflicts with which the characters of *The Conference of the Birds* have to deal with include man's conflict against him/herself, man's conflict against nature, man's conflict against fate, man's conflict against self, and man's conflict against the society.

The decrease of need will reduce the fights and conflicts for achieving the demands, thus it will reduce the conflicts as well. The main struggle and conflict of Attar's heroes is against themselves and it exists until the last stage. It can also be said that this conflict is facing death and having a new interpretation of Attar. While the tales are independent of one another, the conflict of the characters in the tales changes from beginning to end of *The Conference of the Birds* and is assessed wisely. From a psychological viewpoint, the motivation of characters is different at different stages of *The Conference of the Birds*.

The tales that are in the introductory part of *The Conference of the Birds* have different kinds of conflicts considerably. It seems as if the characters are in this world to fight. They fight against themselves, others, and the nature. The characters of this stage are those who are just about to start the journey to the hoopoe. Some of them dissuade from the journey because of the hardships and difficulties and bring some excuses. These are the people with superficial attachments. Their perceptions are limited to a few demands. Their intellectual perception is not deep. Their judgment and perception is superficial. The birds, being in the role of the world characters, are captivated by their animosity. They are world-lovers whose scope of attention is limited to the surface. In the role of a guide, the hoopoe is responsible to guide others at a desirable level. The hoopoe attempts to increase people's

understanding. It gives awareness to people. The birds which did not trust the hoopoe and gave excuses were those who were interested in keeping their position. They ignore the fact that they can add new understandings to their previous understandings or can change their previous understandings in order to decrease their emotional situation and that they can search for the information that is more compatible with their existing understanding (Feranken, 2005). When a number of birds trusted the hoopoe and step in the path of righteousness, their understanding and recognition will increase. As a result, their conflicts will decrease. Therefore, these birds decrease their emotional and anxious situation and will be more compatible with regard to understanding themselves. Benson (1975) believes that high motivation is the characteristic of those who suffer from negative emotionality, anxiety, and injured soul. On the other hand, low motivation is the feature of those with low emotionality and those who are more careful. Conflict is different in the nine different stages of *The Conference of the Birds*. The characters in the first stage conflict to fulfill their satisfaction. Environmental pressures act as obstacles and do not let them achieve their demands. Thus the character starts fighting and fights his environment, those who are around him and even himself and his fate. However, as the story goes through the path of perfection and the mystical stages, things change. The character will become deeper and wiser with regard to thoughts and moralities. Thus human beings are regarded outside physical dimensions. It seems as if the person is on a path to grow a perfect character. This person does not stop fighting during the process of growth, but organizes a wise battle. The characters thus look at themselves instead of trying someone to blame by looking at their environment and at those who are around them. The conflict decreases by the passage of stages until the last stage when the conflict of the person is only internal, being free of other types of conflicts. Self-recognition helps the person to stop fighting with man. It teaches him not to escape environmental fate, but to resist it. Philanthropy and generosity of characters continues until other people gain more significance. The needs of other people have priority over one's own needs. Philanthropy and humanitarianism have priority over any other concept. This is even more evident in the dramatic dialogue of the tales. Each person, by nature, tends to escape injuries. Love of one's own life can be found in any person. When one talks of man's nature, the animalistic nature is also involved. Attar creatively expresses the sacrifice of the lover so to first keep man away of the animal nature with the help of wisdom and to highlight the great differences between human beings and animals. No animal moves itself towards danger. When a person moves towards problems and does not escape difficulties, it can probably be said that this person has a stable and strong "ego". Sacrificing

oneself for love is one of the main reasons behind the travelers' energy and activeness. In such a condition, "id" is at the service of "superego". The successful characters of *The Conference of the Birds* create a new world by their thoughts and mentalities and with the help of their internal motivation and mental freedom. Attar changes people's perspectives towards nature, life and existence. To him, it is evident that when a person finds the real light, he then finds his noble self. A noble person is the one whose existence matches his nature and the world in every sense (Bugental, 1976). Attar's ideology leads to an end-oriented behavior. The feature of an end-oriented behavior is that it has a positive goal, whether this goal is one of the worldly needs or is the desire to have a life beyond this world (Wulff, 2007). Attar believes that the world is just a deception and that dealing with it makes people unaware of their identity, leading to a situation when the huge indicators of humanity are not recognized. The basis of this view is that, in true unity, human beings attain a state of needlessness. Thus, Attar's world view is humanistic.

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Title

Signifying Narratives: Revolting Voices in Alice Walker's and Maya Angelou's Narratives

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Biodata

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Abstract

The act of writing about traumatic events, particularly about Black female victims who experienced rape, by Black women writers because of the way it demonstrates a kind of narrative that inclines to break the established codes, is an effective task for breaking down the walls of silence and speechlessness around sexual exploitation of Black women. In looking at the literary representation of Black women as rape victims, this paper will examine Alice Walker's *The Color purple* (1982), Maya Angelou's *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings* (1970). Reading the novels as trauma narratives, this paper aims to explore how Walker and Angelou offer a kind of narrative technique which inclines to demonstrate their desires to transform indirectly experienced form of horror as a black minority into life-giving stories. In other words, these writers through the act of writing react toward their unconscious desire that feels traumatized and needs to heal through writing.

Keywords: Angelou, Authorial voice, Healing, Silence, Walker

1. Introduction

During the last decades of the twentieth-century Black women writers depicted the Black voiceless female victims who suffer from pain, specifically the pain of being raped and their inability to express it. The articulation of rape trauma through the narrative point of a fictional character can be also regarded as a healing process for the writers whose trauma stories are created as fiction. In looking at the literary representation of Black women as rape victims, this paper will examine Alice Walker's *The Color purple* (1982), Maya Angelou's *I*

Know Why the Caged Bird Sings (1970). Reading the novels as trauma narratives, this paper aims to explore how Walker and Angelou offer a kind of narrative technique which inclines to demonstrate their desires to transform indirectly experienced form of horror as a black minority into life-giving stories. In other words, these writers through the act of writing evoke not only the trauma of the specific individual but the collective suffering of the larger community and their authorial voice through their novels can be considered as a form of reaction to their unconscious desire that feels traumatized and needs to heal through writing. Henke (1998) proposes that writing down the memories of a trauma has the potential to be a powerful form of scriptotherapy. Although Henke's book concerns autobiographical writing, her idea is also applicable for loss through narration in trauma fiction, where a similar process can be said to occur. Literary works may not merely retell traumatic experience but also possibly a coming to terms with the past through narration. In this case study, the voices of these African-American writers are not those of victims but of survivors. Walker and Angelou's ideas and actions suggest that not only does a self-defined, group-derived Black women's standpoint exist, but also the act of narration helps them to work through with their traumatic past. Deborah Horvitz (2000) indicates that narrative offers a unique possibility for healing because not until the victim encounters and translates her unspeakable tragedy into her story can she envision a future devoid of violence. This, she believes, is also true of fictional characters. As she explains:

Fictional characters experience trauma and, subsequently, as a self-protective response, repress its memories. And, it is within the discourse of healing that the operative dynamics among memory, remembering, and narrative converge. Then they may find both the capacity to remember and 'the words to say it,' making healing possible (2000).

The articulation of the traumatic text requires representational strategies that provide a textual memory-site for working through traumatic moment. Coming to voice is not as simple as it sounds; Angelou and Walker show that they know the true nature of trauma and its manifestation. They share a belief in the therapeutic use of narrative as a means of confessing and confronting present feelings of pain. They are familiar with the traumatic experiences and this knowledge enables them to build literary techniques that convey the painful experiences of trauma.

Walker and Angelou's novels, represent a kind of black quest to make the text speak. These writers develop clear and insistent authorial voices that speak through a variety of narrators, precisely, through their protagonists, Celie and Maya. They have written about

their own narratives and their lives, the self-reflexive nature of the narratives produced by these African American women makes it possible to establish the connections between the author's, narrator's, and protagonist's voices in each of the two narratives under consideration. Moreover, the narratives share a common tradition, a tradition that is specifically female as well as African American. The development of this female African American tradition has resulted in the healing and also the empowerment of the voices under consideration.

2. The Quest of the Authorial Voice

Throughout their narratives Walker and Angelou define the act of writing as involving the search for change. This means that writing about the voiceless victims are ways in which the author continues to engage with hope and the possibility for change. They not only express their own difficulties in accessing their voices, but they also write about the hard situations in which their protagonists resist to survive and gain a voice. The function of writing, as it creates and changes meaning, is like the healing of trauma in which one needs to retell the traumatic events. This highlights the psychological necessity that during the hardest times, the times in which one is rendered the most voiceless, it is of great importance to retell, speak, convey and then come to terms with traumatic past.

2.1. *The Color Purple*

In *The Color Purple* Alice Walker creates the character of Celie, a Black immature girl who is sexually abused by her stepfather. Celie reacts to repeated abusive rape by writing letters that are addressed to God but always remain unsigned, indicating her lack of confidence in imagining herself as a person who has the right to own something. As the novel progresses, Celie starts to address her letters to her sister Nettie and the novel begins to include letters from Nettie to Celie, establishing a literary line in which writing becomes a reciprocal exchange among black women. In constructing her novel in the form of letters, Walker makes use of the literary conventions of the epistolary novel to recount painful sexual assault and at the end of novel by the help of a woman blues singer, Shug Avery, makes Celie to understand sexuality as a source of pleasure rather than victimization.

By creating Celie and giving her the language to tell of her sexual abuse, Walker adds Celie's voice to muted yet growing discussions of the sexual politics of Black womanhood (Collins 2000). Walker asserts that the American society is a racist, sexist and colourist capitalist society which operates on the basis of unnatural hierarchical distinctions. *The Color Purple* helps the reader to realize the painful experiences of Black women in American history.

Walker doesn't just describe the injustices against Blacks, but, forces us to become a member of an oppressed race as we struggle to hear the traumatic memories of Celie.

Celie's journey of self-discovery is symbolic of the "Womanist process" embedded in the Afro-American folk-art tradition of their survival culture. This is a tradition in which the Black American women, despite heavy oppression, expressed their creativity in such crafts as gardening, cooking and quilting (Harris, 2010). To sum up then the journey of Walker's women in search of an authentic identity is to restate the role of the Black woman as a creator and also to define her relationship with the change in American society.

In an early assessment of Walker's work, Barbara Christian (1980) noted her attention to the recurring motif of the Black woman as creator and how the black woman's attempt to be whole relates to the health of her community. A womanist is pro-woman, not anti-man. Against a binary world view, Walker uses her novels to resist the implication of Western dualism that man should dominate all of nature, including woman. Womanist thought is changing. We can no longer hold on to the old categories that decide who is in and who is out. If we silence each other's voices, we will silence ourselves.

Celie dedicates her last letter to God, stars, trees, sky, people, everything and repeatedly to God. She addresses to everything that incorporates godly spirit and thanks for being reunited to her sister and her children. The future looks promising and Celie feels young and energetic. "But I don't think us feel old at all. And us so happy. Matter of fact, I think this the youngest us ever felt. Amen (Walker, 1982). This symbolizes a new beginning for Celie. She has survived despite of all the brutality and violence she had experienced and is ready to start a new life. She has developed from being an insecure and inferior girl into a strong and well-balanced woman. She has learned to tear down the restraining identity imposed upon her because of the fact that she is a woman. Walker chooses the traditional happy ending where everyone is united and forgiven for all of their sins. The miserable past is left behind and everybody is entering a bright future. She writes about the states of mind and the pain of the characters, in this regard, she does not avoid her own pain, but seeks to signify it for others, as she does for herself, and survives it.

2.2. I know why the caged Bird Sings

Black women's autobiographical writing has been featured by a unique literary inheritance. The inheritance is a rich one rooted not only in written literary models, but also in the African American oral tradition of spiritual narrative and bearing witness, in traditions of protest, in work song and blues, in Anglo- European aesthetic and linguistic models, and in rich and

subtle variations of diverse origin (Braxton, 1998). This kind of narrative mode allows the writer to make use of the text as a realm in which she can share her ideas and experiences with the readers; this will result in a kind of testimony that will create self-healing for the writer and bear witness for the reader.

In *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings*, Angelou recreates her child-self in the persona of Marguerite Johnson. She narrates her story of childhood sexual abuse through a painful autobiographical account of the traumatic impact of rape on an eight-year-old victim, a young girl devastated by a brutal sexual abuse experiences a great psychological disorder and suffers from its aftermath effects. The novel opens with the poignant, halting voice of Marguerite Johnson, the young Maya Angelou, struggling for her own voice under the vapid doggerel of the yearly Easter pageant:

What you lookin at me for?

I didn't come to stay. . . .

These two lines prefigure the entire work. "What you look in at me for. . . is the painful question of every black girl made self-conscious and self-doubting by a white world critical of her very existence. The claim that she didn't come to stay increases in irony as the entire work ultimately affirms the determination of Marguerite Johnson and, symbolically, all of the unsung survivors of the Middle Passage to do that very thing- -to stay. To stay is to affirm life and the possibility of redemption. (Braxton, 1998). Maya struggles throughout *Caged Bird* to acquire acceptance, recognition, authentic self, caring, and love. It is also the story of a Black girl's growing up, in a color-coded society that in countless ways had told her "you can't, you won't". It is an affirmation that life, if we have the courage to live it, will be worth the struggle.

Angelou's writing about being raped as a child was a path breaking work in women's autobiography, as *Caged Bird* was published at a time when most rape victims and sexually abused children were encouraged to stay silent; Angelou's honesty opened the door for other women to share their stories. Despite the tragedy she endured, bitterness does not haunt the work, as Angelou writes about her family and community with love. Critic Sidonie Ann Smith(1973) points out the importance of Angelou telling this story in the form of autobiography: That she chooses to create the past in its own sounds suggests to the reader that she accepts the past and recognizes its beauty and its ugliness, its assets and its liabilities, its strengths and its weakness.

In the act of narrative articulation, the trauma story becomes a public, potentially communal testimony that sets the stage for self-healing. The retelling of unaffordable pain

gives the survivor a heroic status as the bearer of unspeakable truths. Angelou's struggle to find the written words that could contain and communicate what she felt was a historically unspoken and as yet, unspeakable condition for Black women. In *Caged Bird*, she successfully reconstructs the experience of rape trauma in the form of a coherent testimony, even as she heroically struggles to overcome obsessive-compulsive flashbacks of her traumatic experience. She is articulate and clear about her condition she knows who has silenced her and the Black community, and why. Her search for voice was looking to create a literature that would be able to write honestly about the times in which speechlessness and silence were still the dominant mechanisms of the day.

Angelou's adult narrative voice recounts the experience of rape in a testimonial tone that relieves psychologically the horror of the child's terrible pain: The act of rape on an eight-year-old body is a matter of the needle giving because the camel can't. The child gives, because the body can, and the mind of the violator cannot (Angelou, 1970). Marguerite, the stunned rape victim, is so severely traumatized that she tries to keep the abuse a secret even from herself, since the only means she has at her disposal are frank denial [. . .] and a legion of dissociative reactions" (Herman, 1992).

Accusing herself of being guilty, a traumatized Marguerite retreats into the post traumatic silence. What he did to me, and what I allowed, must have been very bad if already God let me hurt so much(Angelou, 1970) she reasons. Participation in forbidden sexual activity, Judith Herman (1992) tells us, confirms the abused child's sense of badness. Any gratification that the child is able to glean from the exploitative situation becomes proof in her mind that she instigated and bears full responsibility for the abuse.

The explicit purpose of Angelou's autobiographical project is defined in terms of self-conscious narrative recovery in the genre of testimonio. In the healing autobiographical project, the narrator plays both analyst and analysand in a discursive drama of scriptotherapy. According to Judith Herman, the organized narrative reformulation of traumatic experience can virtually restructure the mind's obsessive-compulsive processing of embedded personal scripts. As Janet Liebman Jacobs observes,

In this retelling of the rape, Angelou reconstructs the child self who simultaneously experiences the suffering of the victim while responding to the remorse of the victimizer. Immediately after the assault, the perpetrator is [. . .] asking that she, the abused child, understand that he did not mean to hurt her. [. . .] In that moment of awareness, the physical and emotional boundary violations converge as the child feels

both her pain and the pain of the abuser. Empathy is thus engendered under conditions of sexual violence. (1994)

Herman's first and second stage, the establishment of safety and remembering occurs for Maya when she meets Mrs. Bertha Flowers, a black Stamps matron who supplies her with books to encourage her love of reading. Mrs. Flowers functions as an appropriate antidote to Maya's poignant self-loathing. The boost in self-esteem is the lifeline that Maya needs to carry her through post-rape trauma. Maya's "lessons in living" with Mrs. Flowers awaken her conscience, sharpen her perspective of her environment and of the relationship between blacks and the larger society, and teach her something about the beauty and power of language. Emotionally and intellectually strengthened by this friendship, Maya begins to compose poetic verses and ring songs and to keep a scrapbook journal in which she records her reactions to and impressions of people, places, and events and new ideas that she is introduced to by books (Braxton 1998).

Another powerful element which helps Maya to recover herself is her connection to the black community. When trauma becomes a shared experience it helps the victim to find a witness to the story, who is also a co-creator of the trauma meaning and reconciliation. Part of what helps Maya survive and feel more confident in herself is her connection to the strong role models offered by her grandmother and Mrs. Bertha Flowers who takes Maya under her wing and coaxes her out of her shell. This mutual communication is therefore of importance in dispelling the sense of isolation which lies at the core of the narrated trauma experiences. This is done through the involvement of the community in formulating expression, by witnessing, and through personal involvement in victim's story.

Angelou writes in the tradition of African American authors who, according to Valerie Smith (1973), in their manipulation of received literary conventions [. . .] engage with and challenge the dominant ideology. At the conclusion of the first volume of her autobiography, Maya Angelou/ Marguerite Johnson has stopped serving white masters and, in the process, has become an independent woman. She gives birth not only to a healthy boy but to a revitalized sense of herself as an African American woman spiritually empowered and psychologically liberated from the effects of childhood sexual abuse. As Joanne Braxton (1998) reminds us, the Black female autobiographer, unlike the solitary male hero, uses language—sass, invective, impertinence, and ritual invocation—to defend herself physically and psychologically. Angelo's autobiographical narrative can be considered as an act of scriptotherapy, an articulation of the traumatic past that allows Angelou to recover

herself and bring meaning into her own life-story and to reconstruct an enabling, communal testimonio from the shattered memories of childhood tragedy.

3. Conclusion

Maya Angelou's *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings* (1970) and Alice Walker's *The Color Purple* (1982), attempt to recover unspoken aspects of the past- principally Black women's sexual exploitation- by reading the silences and oppressions in Black women's histories. An unclaimed experience, as Cathy Caruth calls it (1996), trauma is a phenomenon that is not experienced upon occurrence and thus forecloses witnessing from within the experience itself. It is this inability to witness the traumatic event from the inside that Shoshana Felman and Dori Laub (1992) have asserted, lies at the very heart of trauma.

Narratives of trauma always bespeak the inherent conflict in trauma between an untellable event in the past and the necessity to narrate and testify to the experience in the present in an effort to perhaps work through it. Angelou and Walker's frequent use of the same rape story can be seen as intertextual reenactments of a traumatic return after a period of repression to an unclaimed moment of rape in an earlier source and so demonstrate how trauma is represented not merely through temporal references and repetitions within a single text but also across time in various versions by different artists.

The communal voice of black women possesses the power not only to destroy but also to create. They attempt to break silence around rape through assertions of an alternative feminine voice. They define themselves and their characters differently, disengage them from the cultural scripts of sexuality and gender that produce them as feminine subject. Rape can destroy a woman's autonomy and self-image, yet, Walker and Angelou transform this potentially destructive event into an opportunity to celebrate their resistance to negative stereotypes about the black female body. In each work the author sets into the narrative framework, women who are abused physically, legally, psychologically, and socially by male codes. The central figures in the works are restricted by the lack of free expression and authentic self. These women are considered worthless, without any authentic identity. However, at the end of stories they become authentic figures with the power to possess and live their own lives.

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Title

Is Reading Mistreated in a Translation Class?

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Abstract

Reading is the initial act and the essential part of any L2 to L1 translation bustle. In spite of its importance, it has not received due attention it deserves for much attention has been paid to the act of translation at the cost of developing necessary reading skills. This study attempts to examine this effect through comparing the

reading time of two groups of undergraduate students who study in two different departments, i.e., English language and literature and translation departments. Using a TOEFL reading text, this paper has found a significant difference in the reading speed of the two groups. As the results show, Literature students have done much better than Translation students in terms of reading speed. In addition, we have scrutinized those aspects de rigueur of reading comprehension from the cognitive perspective and suggested ways of enhancing reading comprehension in translation classes.

Keywords: Reading speed, Reading comprehension, Translation, English Literature, Cognitive Psychology

1. Introduction

To a reader who is fairly cognizant of the nature of translation and its required underlying skills, it sounds axiomatic that translation has some shared areas with other important language skills, notably reading comprehension. But surprisingly enough, reading, as Mitchell (1995, p:95) rightly argues, is only rarely mentioned in books on translation theory. It nearly requires little comment that to be able to translate is to be able to read (Steiner, 1975, p: 189; Simpson, 1975, p:257; Picken, 1983, p:282; Wills, 1982, p:87; Bell, 1987, p:407; Hatim and Mason, 1990, p:39). Reading comprehension seems to play a central role in translation to the extent that without proper understanding of the text and the required encoding ability, translation, if viewed from the perspective of reception, would cease to operate. It is interesting to note that translation proper is a dual enterprise drawing upon both reception as well as production (Newmark, 1981, p:246; Edwards, 1992, p:202). In fact, it is the former ability that precedes the latter and functions as prerequisite for production. Hence, whatever is produced when a text is actually rendered depends fundamentally on correct reception of the text. This becomes more evident when translation begins from a foreign language to the first language.

In the face of the centrality of comprehension in translation, translation practice is thought to directly affect reading comprehension skills. To illustrate this effect, one needs to examine some principles upon which reading comprehension operates. I would tentatively begin with the important principles governing reading comprehension skills from the view point of cognitive psychology. The problem is that while reading comprehension is a heavenly gift to the practice of translation, the reward it receives is not often worth taking. To the best knowledge of the present writer, this inappropriate trade-off has not so far

received a deserving attention. This will be explicated in the following discussion, which includes controlled vs. automatic processing, separating important from peripheral information, and guessing strategy vs. over-reliance on the dictionary.

2. Review of Literature

Reading is an important skill in Translation courses, because students have to read many texts and understand them fully in order to be able both to understand different theories and concepts around translation and also to translate efficiently. They need to be able to use adequate reading strategies and comprehend the texts fully. Reading is a complex cognitive activity of constructing meaning from a text in the shortest time possible in order to be able to communicate and of course to be able to translate. The purpose of reading is decoding a text and comprehending it as fast as possible for which reader use a variety of strategies for guessing the unknown words and structures. So speed is an important factor in reading comprehension.

One of the other purposes of reading is automaticity, to the point where you just focus on meaning without paying attention to the structures of the sentences, which requires remarkable speed. It requires continuous practice, development and refinement. Of course some may argue that speed is not as important as accuracy in comprehending and retrieving the content (Austin, 2000), but as we all know reading is a social as well as cognitive process (Linda G. Fielding and P. David Pearson, 1994) and speed is a key factor in a world of globalization and competition, where in all of our daily activities we need to be fast enough to success. Although one may argue that translation students spent a lot of time on reading, decoding and translating texts, they do not learn reading skills and strategies, and so may foster wrong habits of reading. Previous studies have shown (Manning and Manning, 1984) that simply spending time on reading different text is not sufficient for improving reading skills. For acquiring reading skills and learning its strategies, one must be directly instructed by the teacher and must focus on these skills, in order to become a proficient reader and become motivated in reading and decoding texts (Fielding and Pearson, 1994).

In traditional translation classes in Iran, which continues to the present time, reading is not regarded as a skill, and is taken for granted. Students in these classes have to just read the text sentence by sentence, without even knowing about the subject of the text and its context. They are not taught how to read text as efficiently as possible and in the shortest time possible. They may also foster bad habits of reading, and may even miss some of the potential

meanings of the words which are specific to particular contexts i.e. the possibility of multiple interpretations, as well as implications which are not explicitly stated in the text, conceptual meaning, understanding relationship in the text structure and parts of a text through lexical-grammatical cohesive devices and indicators in discourse because they only resort to dictionary whenever they face an unfamiliar word and they have not been learnt to make assumptions about the possible meanings of the words in different contexts. So students must be taught and given time to practice comprehension strategies while reading texts for translation. As Pearson and Dole (1987) put it:

Explicit instruction, the name given to one such widely researched model, involves four phases: teacher modeling and explanation of a strategy, guided practice during which teachers gradually give students more responsibility for task completion, independent practice accompanied by feedback, and application of the strategy in real reading situations.

Motivation is also an important factor which affects reading skills. The very first requirement of translation is understanding the text itself at first hand, so whenever students face with difficulty in reading and understanding a text, they may become extremely demotivated to translate that text. If a student cannot read a text fluently and with a desirable speed, he may lose his motivation to read and to translate it. Students, who do not know how to decode and recognize words, cannot comprehend a text. Decoding doesn't mean just to check it in the dictionary, because some times words have special meanings in the contexts and cannot be found in dictionary definitions and if a student does not have advanced reading comprehension skills such as being able to guess the meaning according to the co-text and context, he will miss the appropriate meaning of it in translation. Students who have difficulty in decoding the meanings of words in a certain time, will not tend to interact with more difficult texts because of lack of motivation and often will dislike reading and of course translating. They will not develop sufficient language skills and strategies needed to become proficient readers. They cannot develop certain strategies to take advantage of structures and comprehension cues and so will resort to some extra tools such as dictionary for decoding the text. The type of instruction that they receive from their teachers will also affect their reading comprehension. The teacher must directly teach the strategies for reading comprehension, but in translation classes, teachers do not do so, so the translation class is the slaughter site of reading. Simply providing opportunities for students to read texts will not help them acquire comprehension and speed learning strategies.

Their major objections for the use of translation in language teaching can be summarized as follow: first, it does not help students improve their communicative skills and was

detrimental both to fluency and language automaticity. Second it encourages the use of L1 in classroom instead of L2 and they do not learn to think in the language they have learnt. Third, translation may just be useful for learners with analytical and verbal-linguistic learning strategies. And finally because translation is an extremely slow, difficult, and laborious task which focuses on accuracy rather than fluency and may not be always rewarding. (<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/translation-activitieslanguage-classroom,2009>, cited in *G. Kavaliauskienė*). Although these accusations may not be true for all the skills, but some of them are true about reading skill. For example, as this article supports, due to some cognitive factors and habits which are made up in the learners mind during translation courses, it can be detrimental to reading speed, automaticity, and fluency. The reasons are argued in the article in detail, but to point some, as we all know translation students have been used to translate every text sentence by sentence without taking a look at the whole and even without knowing about its topic. They just focus on the form of the sentences while translating a text, and whenever they face an unfamiliar word they simply check it in the dictionary. So when they read a text for different purposes other than translation, they will subconsciously focus on the form, they will also translate each word in their minds and these unconscious processes slow down the process of comprehension. Interestingly, although translation was not favored by English language practitioners, it existed with various degrees of legitimacy among other languages (Cook, 2007).

But in the recent century, as a result of social and political changes in the world and emerging of new directions in the study of language, the attention of theorists turned towards bilingual teaching and translation and they adopted a positive view of the merits of translation as an effective technique in language classes, and it again gained its significance and became a legitimate activity. Recent studies show that, at least in some circumstances, translation can be effective.

Cook (2010) an advocate of using translation in EFL classes maintains that it can help students learn better because it makes them focus on the forms of language and become aware of the new language's differences with their own thus it can be used as a communicative action in language classrooms and gives them an insight into how language works and enables them to use the language. He also refers to some evidence from psychology that elaborate processing needed to deal with translation, which can aid retention of memory and will make L2 structures more resistant to forgetting (Bialystok & Hummel, 1995. cited in Cook, 2010). Cook also argues that there is no evidence that translation

necessarily slows down language production. The following research questions are therefore proposed:

1. Do undergraduate students of English Language and literature read a reading text quicker than undergraduate students of Translation?
2. And if so, is there any significant difference in the reading speed of the two groups?
3. What are the main cognitive processes of reading as it stands and reading in a translation class?

3. Methodology

This study is a quasi-experimental design. The students were not selected on the basis of random selection, hence, we make no claim on the generalizability of the findings.

Participants

Two groups of EFL students from 2 different universities participated towards the completion of this study. The first group consisted of 37 senior students of English Translation Studies. The second group of participants, who took part in the test, consisted of 27 senior students of English Literature. It's worth mentioning that in both groups participants consisted of both males and females. The age range was 20-24.

Instrument

The main instrument of this study was a reading text of 28 lines with a general topic taken from a TOEFL sample book. After reading the text the participants were asked to answer 10 multiple choice comprehension questions about the reading.

4. Procedure

Participants were selected from two universities and were asked if they would volunteer to participate in this study. They were also asked to read the text carefully and answer the 10 comprehension questions. No time limitation was imposed on them. When they finished with the task, their exact reading times were recorded for later data analysis. Each student's task result was evaluated and graded. Only the students who answered at least half of the questions correctly were accounted in this study. The average time and average score of each group were measured and compared with one other.

5. Results

The results show that Literature students have done significantly better than Translation students in terms of reading speed (See Table 1). For reasons of space only the average numbers were stated in the following table.

Participants	Average Reading Time (Min)	Average Reading Score (from 10)
English Literature	12.58	7.53
Translation studies	24.15	7.47

Table 11. The average Time and Score

Independent samples T- Test

Group Statistics					
Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	students	
.35411	1.77055	12.6884	26	English literature	second
.60391	3.52139	23.8626	34	Translation studies	

Table 2. Descriptive results of the study

Independent Samples Test										
t-test for Equality of Means							Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	df	t	Sig.	F		
Upper	Lower									
-9.63622	-12.71228	.76807	-11.17425	.000	57	-14.549	.001	11.407	Equal variances assumed	second
-9.76896	-12.57953	.70007	-11.17425	.000	51.261	-15.962			Equal variances not assumed	

Table 3. Independent Samples t-test of the study

As the results in Table 3 indicates, there is a significant difference between the performance of the two groups. Therefore, the results show that the way reading is treated in the translation class of the study is detrimental to the development of the reading skills, in particular the speed of reading.

6. Discussion

As speed is considered an important factor in reading comprehension (Alderson, 2000) showing mastery of the skill, in this study we attempted to investigate the reading speed of two groups of EFL students majoring in two different EFL fields of study. The main purpose was to examine if their majors exert an influence on their reading speed as a measure of reading fluency. As the results show the average scores of both groups were the same, showing that they did the same in terms of comprehension and understanding. But as the above table shows, English Literature students did much better than English Translation students in terms of time and speed. But what are the main reasons for slow processing of information among Translation students?

It is well established in the field of cognitive psychology that language acquisition can be characterized as a gradual moving process from one state to another. Learners normally begin language learning from a fragile state of unknown or disequilibrium (Brown, 1996) to a solid state of equilibrium. As learners gain more knowledge about what they learn, i.e., their movement from disequilibrium to equilibrium state, they gain more control over what they learn and thus leave more space for attention. This gradual movement, which is characterized by accumulation of knowledge and more control over what people learn, is a process which is in Shiffrin and Schneider's (1977) view called *controlled vs. automatic* processing. In fact, automatic processing emerges from practice and does not of necessity require attention as far as identifying words are concerned and runs too quickly. In contrast, controlled processing entails attention and is mostly used for unfamiliar and difficult tasks. Shiffrin and Schneider (op.cit., p:178) stress the importance of automaticity by saying: 'In order to have both fluent reading and good comprehension, the student must be brought beyond accuracy to automaticity in decoding'. Based on the above distinction, the skill of reading should ultimately reach the automatic processing since the quick understanding of a written text is required by the skilled reader. On the other hand, the novice reader is characterized by the controlled processing that he applies to reading. Beginning readers need to switch attention back and forth from decoding to comprehension. In so doing, the reading act is slow and laborious. The following table characterizes this dichotomy:

Controlled processing	Automatic processing
More attention	Less (if any) attention
Slow process	Quick process
Novice learners	Skilled learners

Table 4. Controlled vs. automatic processing features in language acquisition process.

In short, language acquisition based on the automaticity theory is a process of fostering learners to move from a controlled state of procedural knowledge to an automatic state wherein language processing is seen as an activity which requires less attention to sources of language and quick language processing. The theory fairly covers listening as well as speaking activity. A reader who has reached automatic processing knows the grammar and the lexicon of the language which he has mastered. He does not need to look for word meaning and cram over grammar. When it comes to listening, he does not have to decipher each word in a slow manner. Words are identified and processed at the quickest possible rate thus leaving him more space for understanding the content of the message. And in a similar vein, he does not have to have extended pauses in his speech. He would focus on the content of what he wants to say rather than on the appropriateness of pronunciation and accuracy of grammar.

In translating, the translator's activity is generally a slow motion activity in which the translator, as a starting move, attempts to read each sentence or ideally the whole paragraph to initiate translation. At this point, no matter how skilled a translator is, the unit of translation process is more often than not a sentence. That is, the translator needs to read each sentence and translate it to either his L1 or L2. Here we are concerned with the former. If we are going to schematize the process, it would be sentence A to sentence B design, in which sentence A is the foreign language while sentence B is the source language. In other words, the translator needs to read sentence A, stop and then translate and produce sentence B, which is the recreation of sentence A. The point is that due to the translation task the process of reading to understand a text is interrupted. The process of writing the equivalent involves pauses in the normal course of reading which in turn makes reading nothing more than a controlled process, a process which requires attention not perhaps in terms of quick decoding but in terms of pauses made for the purpose of *accuracy* in translation. In fact, the translator does not seem to have any other option other than to understand each sentence and translate it. This, on the long run, can be detrimental to the act of reading and naturally to the prospective reader who would want to reach automaticity in both reading and understanding.

It is now endorsed in the reading literature (see for instance, Hosenfeld's 1977, p:115; Smith, 1978, p: 230; Alderson and Urquhart, 1985, p:189; Cotterall, 1990, p: 50; Jaakeslainen, 2000, p: 270) that the reader must be given awareness that not all information in the text are worthy and that he must skip unimportant sections to the benefit of getting more from the text. This can save his energy to tackle the rest of the text thus freeing his

attention to resolve other information by refraining from spending time on repeated trivial information in the text.

The shift of attention from unimportant to important points in the text is said to indicate an advanced application of the reading strategy (Brown et al., 1986). They contend that the ability to regulate one's allocation of attention reflects mastery level and is a late developing skill achieved by a coordination of various forms of knowledge. Brown et al. (p: 61) define these forms of knowledge as:

'(1) information concerning current knowledge, i.e. what is known and not yet known; (2) knowledge of the task demands; (3) knowledge of the relative importance of various elements of texts, i.e. what is important to know and what can be disregarded; and (4) the strategic knowledge to adjust allocation of effort in response to the above information'.

What seems clear in the subject's strategy application is the presence of monitoring comprehension. This comprehension monitoring strategy can be found in translation too when the translator is in the process of reading for meaning. It follows then that the two skills use similar processes in retrieving information from the written text, but the point is that such a retrieval is done for different purposes. In contrast to the reader's task of identifying and separating important information from the trivial, the translator's task is to give equal weight to different parts of the text. Obviously, there is nothing wrong as far as task demands are concerned. A translator should proceed according to the very nature of translation, that is, verbatim translation. However, the point of concern is that a long exposure to translation diet, unless otherwise required, can impose negative side effects on the reader's *selective attention*, an attention that ignores the irrelevant stimuli and attends only to the relevant cues. It is a matter of more concern when translation practice becomes the reading godfather.

It also impinges on main idea construction strategy (Lyons, 1981; Afflerbach, 1990), which reflects an attempt to achieve the essence of reading comprehension. The construction of the main idea which usually happens at the end of each paragraph and is clearly a sign of a relatively late developing skill in most skilled readers requires one to make a list of all the *important information* from the text in a reprocessing manner in order to make a text representation which reflects the subject's attribution of importance to parts of the text rather than making use of redundancy in the text for making hypotheses.

A cognitive strategy that the novice readers usually employ to solve comprehension problems and in particular extract word meaning is using the dictionary. But for many reading scholars, resorting to the dictionary is not recommended as soon as the reader encounters a problem of word meaning. This is because readers are normally advised to use other beneficial

strategies which enhance reading comprehension ability such as guessing the meaning from the context, predicting the flow of information so that they can make hunches as to where to find the relevant information. The point in making hypotheses is that hunches are relative in terms of propositional validity, that is, what we guess may not always be right. Guesses are sometimes right and sometimes wrong. But the true worth of guessing strategy resides in mental development and creativity in reading and this is undoubtedly one of the prime objectives of any reading comprehension plan, so to speak.

While suggestions on reading tend to provoke guessing in word identification, the translator is normally expected to provide the closest possible word for the target text. After all, the translator is not allowed to use equivalent words based on his hunches, since if he does, he often does not do justice to the original text, i.e., keeping the meaning of the original text. So the difference between reading as an independent activity and reading in translation activity resides in what we call *relativity* and *exactness* difference (see Table 5).

Word identification in reading as part of translation activity	Exact
Word identification in reading as an independent activity	Relative

Table 5. Relativity of word identification in reading and translation

As can be seen, word identification in reading comprehension and in translation differs in terms of the degree to which words are to be identified on the basis of verbatim equivalence. While in translation equivalent word meaning should meet the highest possible degree of closeness, thus requiring the translator to rely more often than not on the dictionary, in reading the reader is recommended to rely less on the dictionary and resort more to guessing meaning from the context. It should also be born in mind that too much reliance on using the dictionary may cause one to get stuck with it and is harmful to developing other independent strategies such as inferring meaning from the context.

7. Conclusion

In this study, we examined the effect of translation on reading comprehension skills, especially on reading speed and presented some reasons from the cognitive side to justify the results of the study. The results obtained as to the purpose of the study can hopefully be interpreted as having some implications for Translation teachers and students in EFL contexts, in order to improve their reading skills along with translation skills.

Three key areas in reading which get improper influence from translation activity were discussed. They covered controlled vs. automatic processing, separating important from

peripheral information, and guessing strategy vs. over-reliance on the dictionary. In order to neutralize the improper effects of translation on reading skills, several suggestions are in order. Students should be given enough opportunity to practice quick decoding in order to understand the meaning before they are actually asked to translate. This practice is important in as much as not only it activates their background knowledge to know better what the text is all about, but it lessens the possible translation effects on their reading behavior. They should also be informed that the requirements of reading tasks are different from those of translation. This would develop in them a sort of meta-cognitive ability which sharpens their decisions when they approach a translation task.

To compensate for the lack of selective attention due to translation tasks, a course of translation should require practitioners to focus on important sections of the text. Here I would propose two important exercises which satisfy the above concern. They are scanning and main idea construction exercises. Scanning is one valuable asset in this regard. Students can scan a text in search of important information before really attempting to translate. They should know that scanning is done for the purpose of finding general kinds of information. Questions related to specific names or words and later on ‘what is this selection about?’ can create meta-cognitive abilities in both reading and translation. Hence, books and pamphlets of translation should contain questions which address both exercises which assist reading comprehension and exercises which help students develop translation ability. Since main idea construction is one important reading comprehension skill, and is necessary even for translation purposes, translation texts should contain questions which ask students construct main idea of each paragraph they read. In this way students would get a coherent view of different paragraphs which would on the whole assist them to translate the text better. Thus, and ideally, a translation exercise should initially be a reading comprehension exercise. Upon fulfilling the requirements mentioned above, students should be asked to proceed rendering the text to their own language.

Students should be discouraged to rely too much on the dictionary. They should rather be told to understand words in the context. All words are not equally important in a given context. In addition, the students should be told that when the sentence context does not clearly define the word, its meaning often becomes clear later in the same paragraph. However, translation is a risk-free area. A text when rendered, is expected to be as close to the origin as possible. Students should make sure that their translation is the most exact one. There is nothing wrong with it. But the point is that too much reliance on the dictionary is harmful to learners' ability to guess. Therefore, in order to meet the requirements of both

reading and translation, students should be given opportunity to try their own guesses. The process, thus, is as follows. Ask student- translators to guess the meaning of the unknown words based on the context. Ask them also to check their own guesses through looking up those words which are unclear to them in a dictionary when they want to finalize their translation. This process would naturally seem more time-consuming. But this would prove more fruitful to developing better language ability, hence better language cognition.

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Title

Contrastive Rhetoric in Translation: a Case Study of Metadiscourse in Falk's *Linguistics and Language* and Its Translations into Persian

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Abstract

The present study compares the amount of using different types of metadiscourse in an English source text (ST) and its two related Persian translations as the target texts (TT). The corpus of the present contrastive study consists of four chapters of an academic book - *Linguistics and Language* by Julia Falk (1978) - as a ST and its two corresponding translated Persian texts by Khosro Gholamalizadeh (1398) and Ali Bahrami (2001). In order to understand the differences of using metadiscourse between Persian and English, Hyland's (2005) classification of metadiscourse was used. His model involves *interactive* (transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses) and *interactional* metadiscourse (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers and self-mentions). Identifying

different types of metadiscourse in ST and TTs, One-way Anova tests and T-tests were used to find the differences. The results indicated that although both types of metadiscourse are used in ST and TTs, there is no significant difference in the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse between ST and TTs. In addition, there is no significant difference in the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse between the two Persian TTs.

Keywords: Translation, Metadiscourse, Interactive metadiscourse, Interactional metadiscourse.

1. Introduction

Metadiscourse is one of the “ways of understanding language in use” (Hyland, 2010, p. 126) that can promote the audience's perception of the text and it is one of the branches of discourse. The theoretical basis for the term metadiscourse has been derived from Halliday's (1985) classification of language macro-functions (Vande Kopple, 1985, p. 83). It is noticeable to know that metadiscourse is one of the fundamental issues in all of the languages -both spoken and written- and is of paramount importance in linguistics. In spite of its significance in language, translation and academic writing, translation scholars pay a little attention to it in translation studies. In other words, recognizing metadiscourse is marginalized in this domain. Mauranen (1993, p. 9) describes that by using different types of metadiscourse the writer tries to show his or her presence in the text and shows the reader “how the text is organized”. Hyland (2005, p. 37) defines metadiscourse as “the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community”.

Metadiscourse and contrastive rhetoric (CR) are interrelated. There have been numerous contrastive analyses researches, performed on the field of metadiscourse among different languages like English and Japanese or English and Persian. Some contrastive studies have been done between English and Persian. But, Most of them are related to the use of metadiscourse in writing (Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2007; Faghih & Rahimpour, 2009; Noorian & Biria, 2010; Rahimpour, 2006, etc). However, there is no contrastive analysis in the field of translation and metadiscourse between English and Persian.

The present study attempts to make a comparison between the number of using interactive and interactional metadiscourse in a selected academic text by the original author

and different Persian translators. The purpose is to see whether the amount of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in the translated texts by Persian translators differ from each other in comparison to the source text (ST). To achieve this aim, a close contrastive study should be made among different translated versions of the same ST.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Contrastive Rhetoric

One of the delicate aspects of a translator's work in the process of translation is an appropriate translation of metadiscourse. It can be achieved by the translator's knowledge of this field. Since the root of metadiscourse is in contrastive rhetoric (CR) (Rahimpour, 2006, p. 17), it is necessary to be familiar with this concept. There are two aspects of rhetoric: classical rhetoric and new rhetoric. New rhetoric includes generative rhetoric and contrastive rhetoric (Rahimpour, p.20). The history of contrastive rhetoric can be investigated from Aristotle's CR that includes invention, memory, arrangement, style, and delivery (Hyland, 2005). The element of arrangement makes the basic for Kaplan's article (Connor, n.d, p.6). He mentions that "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, and that part of the learning of a particular language is the mastery of its logical system" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 14). In Kaplan's point of view, the linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the first language interfere with writing in the second language (cited in Conner, 1996, p.7). The effect of Sapir Whorf's (1921) hypothesis is obvious in Kaplan's (1996) contrastive rhetoric. He himself also mentions the term "neo- Whorfian" to explain the notion of contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 2005, p.279). As we know, Sapir Whorf's *linguistic Relativity* states that: "The linguistic structures of different languages, which can be very diverse, encourage or oblige their speakers to pay greater attention to certain aspects of the world at the expense of others. At the same time these structures of course reflect the word-view of culture concerned" (Armstrong, 2005, p.16). It focuses on the fact that culture through language, effects the way we think. Therefore, language can shape people's thoughts. They believed that each cultural group has its own unique world view. As a result each culture is unique in itself.

Kaplan (2005) wrote his article in the development of contrastive rhetoric. He used the "model of concerns in contrastive rhetoric" and described the learner's difficulties in their second language writings. This model includes a generator (L2 writer) – text (L2) – receiver (L1 reader). He mentioned three major obstacles contrastive rhetoric has met: observation,

categorizing features and finally clarifying the features to make a comparison. He added that syntactic and lexical features are the most important ones in the text, because they cause a reasonable cohesion and coherence in the text. He also defines discourse pragmatic as “the use of types and patterns of discourse in different communicative situation or the comparison and contrast of types of text within and across language and social groups” (p.7).

Many investigations have been done in different languages in the domain of contrastive rhetoric and academic and professional writing among different cultures in 30 past years. An investigation which was done by Ventola and Mauranen (1991) in EFL writing in Finland shows interesting results. They studied cultural differences between Finnish and English speakers’ writings. The writing of Finnish native speakers who write in English was compared to the writing of English native speakers. The results of their study showed that Finnish writers used connectors less frequently and in a less varied fashion than native English speaking writers. Moreover, the Finnish writers had difficulty in using the article system and there were differences in thematic progression (pp.457-492).

Another investigation in this domain is Hatim’s (1997) study. His research centered on contrastive rhetoric in Arabic writing that deal with typology argumentation for contrastive rhetoric. He believes that Arabic argumentation may be heavy on through- argumentation but Western argumentations are characterized by counter arguments: "It may be true that this [Arabic] form of argumentation generally lacks credibility when translated into a context which calls for a variant form of argumentation in languages such as English. However, for Arabic through- argumentation remains a valid option that is generally bound up with a host of socio- political factors and circumstances, not with Arabic *Per se*. It is therefore speakers and not languages which must be held accountable" (p.53).

Katchen’s investigation in 1982 which compared Persian and English contrastive rhetoric revealed that Persian writers do not state the introduction and conclusions as a separate title in their essays. In addition, many paragraphs lack topic sentence. Similarly, in 1987 Ostler analyzed some Arabic and English articles in order to find the differences in applying contrastive rhetoric in these two languages. Her findings show that Arabian students tend to elaborate parallel structures in their writing.

2.2. Metadiscourse

In 1959, Zellig Harris used the term metadiscourse for the first time “to offer away of understanding language in use” (Hyland, 2005, p.3). It is important to know that the theoretical basis of metadiscourse stemmed from Halliday’s (1985) metafunctions that are

ideational, interpersonal, and textual. There are different definitions which are given by the scholars for the term metadiscourse. The most important definition which is given by Hyland (2005) states that “the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community” (p. 37). Hyland (2004) argues that “metadiscourse is interpersonal in that it takes account of the reader’s knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs and that it provides writers with an armory of rhetorical appeals to achieve this”(p.161). According to Mauranen (1993) metadiscourse is also called metatext or metalanguage and it is regarded as “a text about text or a discourse about discourse” (p.3). Mauranen (1993, 2008) used the terms ‘text reflexivity’ or ‘discourse reflexivity’ to refer to metadiscoursal uses of language. He suggested that “[t]hrough metatext, the writer steps in explicitly to make his or her presence felt in the text, to give guidance to the readers with respect to how the text is organized, to what functions different parts of it have, and to what the author’s attitudes to the propositions are” (p.9). Another definition which is presented by Crismore (1983) focuses on the relationship between the author and the reader. She describes metadiscourse as “the author’s intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to direct rather than inform the readers” (p.4).

Considering above mentioned definitions, we can say that metadiscourse is the writer’s own language when he considers his own thinking or his audience’s thinking (Amiryousefi & Eslami Rasekh, 2010, p.163). Common examples of metadiscoursal phrases which are used in many writings are as follows: *It is clear that...*, *in other words...*, *notice that...*, *as a matter of fact*, etc.

There are different classifications of metadiscourse. Vande Kopple's (1985, pp. 82-92) categorization of metadiscourse includes two dimensions: *textual and interpersonal*. On the one hand, Textual metadiscourse consists of four sub-divisions: text connectives, code glosses, validity markers and narrators. On the other hand, Interpersonal metadiscourse consists of three sub-divisions: commentaries, attitude markers, illocution markers.

Another classification is related to Crismore et.al (1993). This classification also includes two branches: textual metadiscourse and interpersonal metadiscourse. *Textual metadiscourse* includes two sub-divisions: *textual markers* and *interpretive markers*. Interpersonal metadiscourse includes hedges, certainty markers, attributers, attitude markers, commentary.

The next categorization which is considered as the framework for the present study is related to Hyland (2005). His taxonomy includes two main parts: *interactive* and *interactional* metadiscourse (p.49). Each of these parts accommodates five sub-divisions.

Interactive metadiscourse in Hyland's taxonomy include transition, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses. Hyland (2005) believes that "Interactive metadiscourse helps writers to make links between arguments, between different parts of the text, between current and other texts, and between what the writer believes the reader knows and what needs to be made clear" (p.166). Interactional metadiscourse cause the reader to be involved in the text (Hyland, 2005). It includes hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self mentions and engagement markers. It is showed that almost 40% of all metadiscourse in a text book is interactional metadiscourse (Hyland, p.163). In the case of the use of interactional metadiscourse in article writing investigation revealed that the writers of the soft fields like humanities and social science use more interactional metadiscourse in their writing than the writers of hard fields (p.144). Therefore, interactional metadiscourse can be defined as "features that draw the reader into the discourse and give them an opportunity to contribute to it and respond to it by alerting them to the writer's perspective on propositional information and orientation and intention with respect to that reader (p. 52).

Ädel (2006) reported that two main types of metadiscourse are "metatext" and "writer-reader interaction". The former refers to "aspects of text itself, such as its organization and wording, or the writing of it". The latter emphasizes on the relationship between the writer and the reader. In other words, "it refers to linguistic expressions that are used to address reader directly to engage them in a mock dialogue" (p.37).

2.3. The Significance of Genre and Register in Translation of Metadiscourse

Suau (2010, p.1) proved that applying genre and register analysis to the translation of specialized texts can yield good results. Like any other language features, metadiscourse may occur in different genres and it is totally depends on the context in the first step and on the audience in the second step. Following the author of the text, the translator has to use metadiscourse markers. In his contrastive survey, Le (2004) shows that in academic genre evidentials (which is one of the sub-divisions of interactive metadiscourse) enable the authors to show how their own work relates to earlier work in the same major. Similarly, self mentions (which is one of the branches of interactional metadiscourse) in academic texts was often used to construct the text and present decisions.

Having the idea that "metadiscourse should not be seen as an independent stylistic device", Hyland and Tse (2004, p. 175) mention that the importance of metadiscourse is on the rhetorical aspect and within a specific context. They analyzed 240 L2 postgraduate dissertations include almost 4 million words in some universities of Hong Kong and studied

how these students use metadiscourse in their writing. Selecting six different majors, they chose 20 masters and 20 doctoral dissertations for each of these six majors. Their finding shows the writers of these dissertations are tended to use more interactive forms instead of interactional forms. These writers use transitions and hedges more frequently than the other features. They believe that the relationship between the elements in an argument is related to the writer's awareness of himself/ herself and his/ her reader (Hyland & Tse, pp.156- 177).

The study of metadiscourse does not limit itself just to a specific genre. Dafouz-Milne (2007) tries to explore the role that metadiscourse markers in media in English and Spanish through a contrastive analysis. Based on her quantitative analysis both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse exist in English and Spanish newspaper columns. However, the texts written in Spanish used a higher number of textual metadiscourse markers than did the texts in English. The Spanish texts included a lower number of interpersonal metadiscourse markers than the English texts (Dafouz-Milne, 2007, p. 101).

Metadiscourse is the result of the register (Halliday, 1978) and we should know that “register describes changes affecting language when this is used in a specific context, following field, tenor and mode” (Suau, 2010, p.5). These variables correspond to the three metafunctions ideational, interpersonal and textual. Applying an appropriate register in translation of metadiscourse is an important factor, since formal and informal register in translation lead to completely different affects on the audience. It means that using formal or informal register for the same text may result a positive or negative effect. Since “metadiscourse is part of register” (Suau, p.8), it varies from one language to the other and from one genre to the other (Suau, p.7). Therefore, the use of metadiscourse in translation clarifies the differences among languages such as English- Persian and Persian- English.

2.4. Translating metadiscourse

There are a few researches which have been done until now in the case of the relationship between metadiscourse and translation. One of the most important translation scholars who talks about metadiscourse is Christiane Nord (2007). Of course, she chose the name metaconnection instead of metadiscourse. Adopting Jakobson (1960), she considers metacommunication as a specific variety of the phatic function which is responsible for starting, maintaining and closing a communication and it is basically culture based (Nord, 2008, pp. 283- 293).

Williams (2010, p.73- 90) in his article outlines the main types of metadiscourse features and analyzed them on the translation student works in the in the University of Ottawa. He discussed metadiscourse markers are used by the author to guide the reader. He believes that

translation students have some difficulties in translation of metadiscourse markers in interactive feature. Adopting Jane (1974, pp. 207-208), Williams said that “students fall into the trap of overgeneralization of rules, procedures and solutions learned” (William, p.88).

Suau (2010, pp. 1- 15) takes into account metadiscursive elements in translation of scientific texts in English and Spanish. She believes that translation can be considered from different point of views and pragmatic perspective is the most important one in which genre and register apply in translation process. Finally she concludes metadiscourse is very similar in English and Spanish within the same genre, with the exception of very specific traits such as the passive voice in English or the impersonal forms in Spanish.

In another similar research Suau and Dolon (2007) studied the importance of metadiscourse in a specific genre. They selected the genre *Promotion of Touristic Services and Products*, and focus on the relationship between the sender and receiver of a message which is one of the main aspects of translation. They believe that well translation of the texts can lead to a positive image on the reader. Describing differences between Spanish and English metadiscourse in this genre, their aim was to state the necessity to teach metadiscourse “as a separated linguistic item.”

3. Research Questions

Through the study an attempt is made to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between the selected source text and its related two corresponding Persian translations in the use of *interactive* metadiscourse?
 - 1.1. Is there any significant difference between the two Persian translations in the use of *interactive* metadiscourse?
2. Is there any significant difference between the selected source text and its related two corresponding Persian translations in the use of *interactional* metadiscourse?
 - 2.1. Is there any significant difference between the two Persian translations in the use of *interactional* metadiscourse?

The answers of these questions will be revealed through the study.

4. Methodology

4.1. Corpus

The corpus of the present study consists of four chapters of *Linguistics and Language* by Julia Falk (ST) and its two corresponding translated Persian texts by Khosro Gholamalizadeh

(1398) and Ali Bahrami (2001). These four chapters which were selected based on their length, are as follows:

1. Chapter 8: Phonetic Features
2. Chapter 14: Deep Structure and Transformations
3. Chapter 18: Linguistic Change: Related Languages and Dialects
4. Chapter 21: Native Language Acquisition

The reason for selecting this book as the corpus of the study was that finding the author's trace was possible in it. Moreover, there were two available Persian translations for it. Since the study is a contrastive one, there should be at least two corresponding translations for the selected ST book. Another reason for selecting this corpus is that in selecting an academic book an attempt was made to choose a book written by the expert of the selected genre.

In this study, the total corpus size for four chapters was 27102 words. It should be noticed that an attempt was made to find some chapters which had almost the same length in order to be comparable. An important point is that since both English and Persian are analytic languages, they are comparable (Rahimpour, 2006, p.88).

4.2. Design

The selected design for the study was quantitative method since it includes quantitative analysis. Through this study, text linguistics variables are taken in to account. It was necessary to control some variables like the writers' native language, topic, and length of the chapters. Therefore, in the present study, language and culture were independent variables and different types of metadiscourse were dependent variables.

4.3. Procedure

First of all, four chapters of *Linguistics and Language* by Julia Falk in English and its two related corresponding translation versions in Persian were read. The chapters were selected by considering the length of the chapter. In order to provide enough data, the average number of the pages of selected chapters was regarded about 15 pages. It noticed that many metadiscourse markers were used similarly in the context while their function and their categorizations were different. Therefore, a close study was done in selecting and analyzing data. Considering propositional and metadiscoursal features, the researcher identified metadiscoursal devices in the context. In the next step, the sentences which included different types of interactive metadiscourse were separated alongside their two Persian translations. The same process was done for the interactional metadiscourse and its sub-divisions. Finding the two types of metadiscourse in the corpus, interactive and interactional metadiscourse were counted separately in ST and TTs.

4.4. Data Analysis

One-way Anova tests were used to find whether there is any significant difference between ST and TTs in the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse in English and Persian. T-tests were used to find whether there is any significant difference the two Persian TTs in the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse in English and Persian. All of the processes were done by Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

4.5. An Example of Metadiscourse Analysis in English and Persian Translations

The following example of the corpus shows how the writer and the two Persian translators use metadiscoursal features in the text. Different types of metadiscourse are shown in brackets.

ST: Change is part of the nature of the language, but [transition] particular changes are not predetermined. Any one of a number of changes may or may not [hedge] take place in a development of a language. If [transition] one group of speakers is separated from other speakers, the subsequent changes in the language of the two groups are often quite different. While [transition] both groups initially may have spoken the same language and the same dialect, after a period of separation and normal linguistic change, their speech will [hedge] no longer be the same. New dialects or even new languages may [hedge] evolve (Falk, 1978, p. 280).

ترجمه ی خسرو غلامعلی زاده (ص، 391): تحول بخشی از ماهیت زبان است، اما [transition] تحولات خاص از پیش تعیین نمی شوند. اتفاق عدم اتفاق هر تحولی در یک زمان امکان پذیر است. اگر [transition] گروهی از سخنگویان از سایر گروه ها جدا شود، تحولات حادث در زبان این دو گروه اغلب متفاوت خواهد بود. هر چند [transition] هر دو گروه قبلا به زبان و لهجه ی واحدی سخن می گفته اند، اما [transition] پس از یک دوران جدایی و تحول زبانی هنجار، گفتارشان دیگر یکسان نخواهد بود. بدین ترتیب [transition] لهجه های جدید و حتی زبان های جدید ممکن است [hedges] ظاهر گردد.

ترجمه ی علی بهرامی (ص، 326): تغییر بخشی از ماهیت زبان است، ولی [transition] تغییرات خاصی را از قبل نمی توان [hedges] مشخص کرد. هر یک از تغییرات ممکن است [hedges] در رشد یک زبان حادث شود و یا حادث نشود. اگر [transition] گروهی از متکلمین از بقیه جدا شوند، تغییرات منتج در زبان این دو گروه غالبا کاملا متفاوت از هم خواهند بود. اگرچه [transition] هر دو گروه در اول به یک زبان و یا یک لهجه صحبت می کرده اند ولی [transition] پس از گذشتن مدتی از جدا شدن از هم و تحول عادی زبانی، گفتار آن ها دیگر شبیه به هم نخواهد بود. ممکن است [hedges] لهجه های جدید و حتی زبان های جدید پدید آیند.

5. Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

5.1. Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference between the selected source text and its related two corresponding Persian translations in the use of *interactive* metadiscourse.

One-way Anova test was used to examine the above hypothesis. Table 1 indicates the results of the One-way Anova test to show the differences between the source text and its two related corresponding Persian translations in the use of *interactive* metadiscourse.

p-value	Fisher statistics
0.889	0.118

Table 1. Results of the One-way Anova test of English ST and Persian TTs in the use of interactive metadiscourse

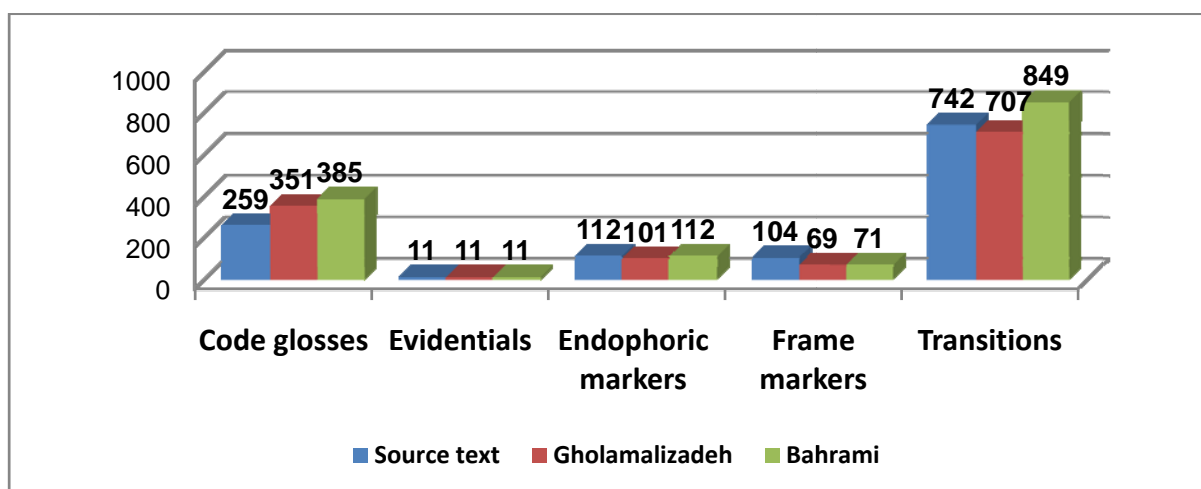


Figure 1. Bar graph for English ST and Persian TTs in the use of interactive metadiscourse

As table 1 displays, the p-value of observed One-way Anova test is 0.889 which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, 0.889 was significant at a level 0.05. As a result, hypothesis 1 is confirmed.

5.2. Hypothesis 1.1

There is no significant difference between the two Persian translations in the use of *interactive* metadiscourse.

T-test was used to examine the above hypothesis. Table 2 indicates the results of the T-test to show the differences between the source text and its related two corresponding translations in the use of *interactive* metadiscourse.

	Mean	Std.Deviation
Gholamalizadeh	61.95	66.763
Bahrami	71.40	80.496

p-value	T statistics
0.688	-0.404

Table 2. Result of the T-test of two Persian translators in the use of interactive metadiscourse

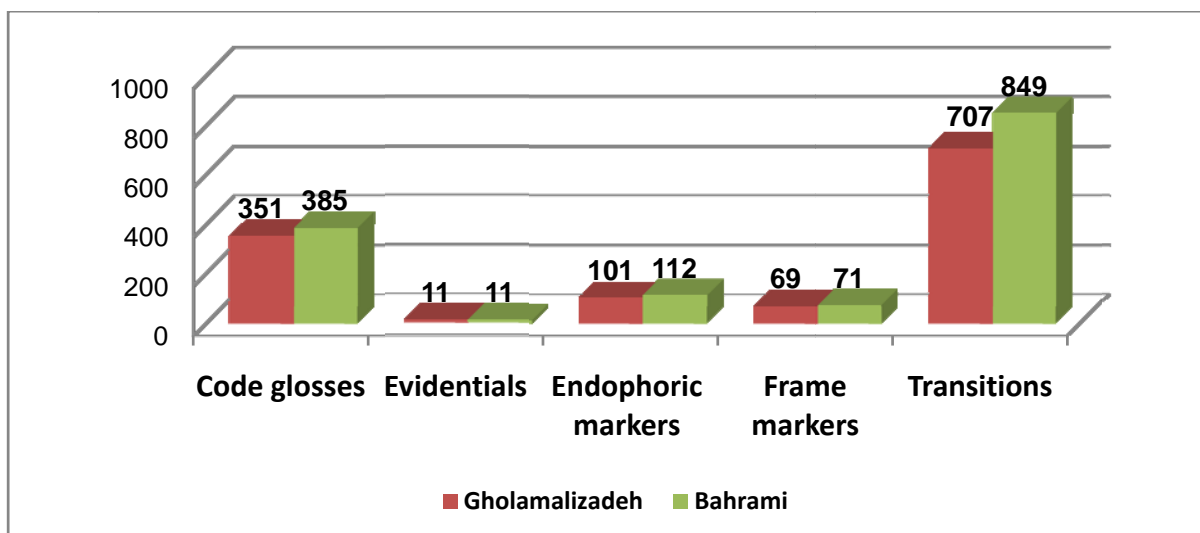


Figure 2. Bar graph for the two Persian translations in the use of interactive metadiscourse. As table 2 displays, the p-value of observed T- test is 0.688 which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, 0.688 was significant at a level 0.05. As a result, hypothesis 1.1 is confirmed.

5.3. Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference between the selected source text and its two related corresponding Persian translations in the use of *interactional* metadiscourse.

One-way Anova test was used to test the above hypothesis. Table 3 indicates the results of the One-way Anova test to show the differences between the source text and its two related corresponding translations in the use of *interactional* metadiscourse.

p-value	Fisher statistics
0.684	0.382

Table 3. Results of the One-way Anova test of English ST and Persian TTs in the use of interactional metadiscourse

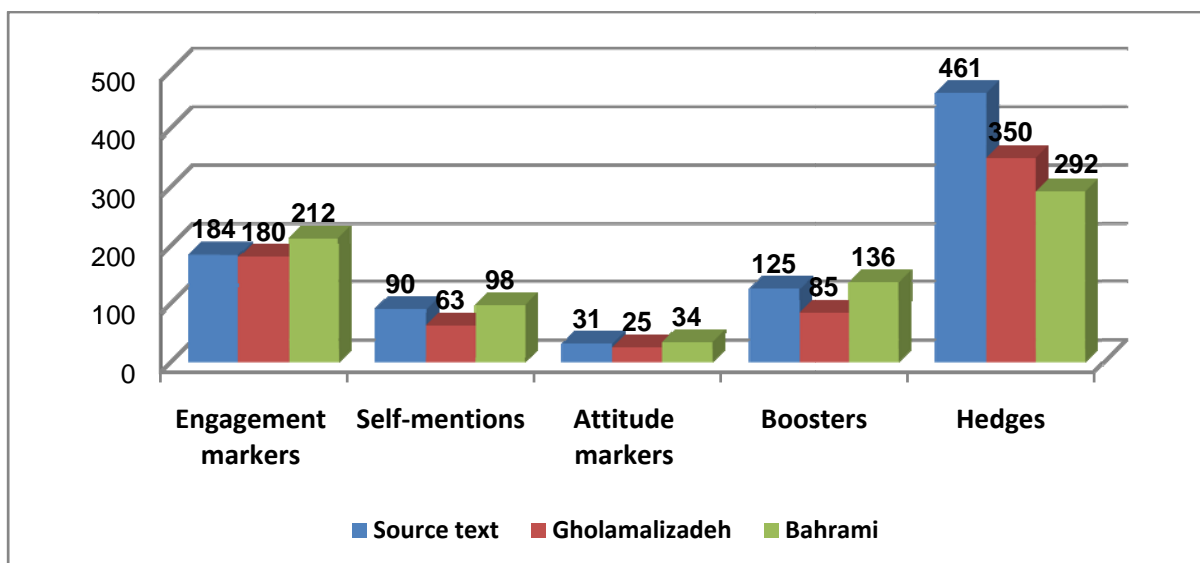


Figure 3. Bar graph for English ST and Persian TTs in the use of interactional metadiscourse

As table 3 displays, the p-value of observed One-way Anova test is 0.684 which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, 0.684 was significant at a level 0.05. As a result, hypothesis 2 is confirmed.

5.4. Hypothesis 2.1

There is no significant difference between the two Persian translations in the use of *interactional* metadiscourse.

T-test was used to test the above hypothesis. Table 4 indicates the results of the T-test to show the differences between the source text and its two related corresponding translations in the use of *interactional* metadiscourse.

	Mean	Std.Deviation
Gholamalizadeh	35.15	32.425
Bahrami	38.6	25.706

p-value	T statistics
0.711	-0.373

Table 4. Result of the T-test of two Persian translators in the use of interactional metadiscourse

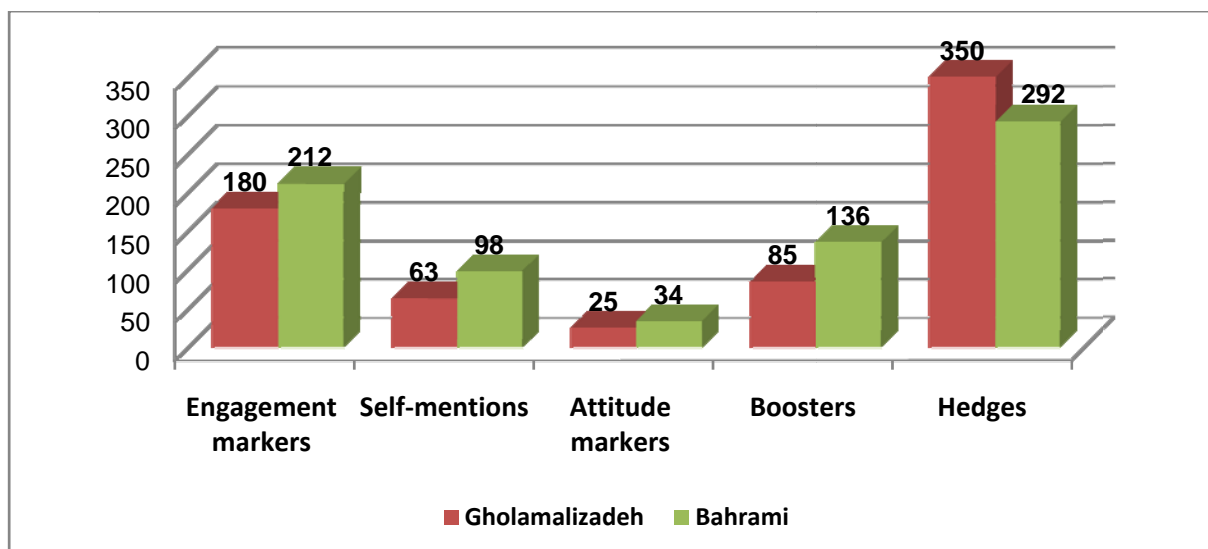


Figure 4. Bar graph for the two Persian translators in the use of interactional metadiscourse

As table 4 displays, the p-value of observed T-test is 0.711 which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, 0.711 was significant at a level 0.05. As a result, hypothesis 2.1 is confirmed.

6. Conclusion

In the present study, Hyland's (2005) classification of metadiscourse was selected as the theoretical framework. He divides metadiscourse in two types: interactive and interactional metadiscourse. On the one hand, interactive metadiscourse includes: transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses. On the other hand, interactional metadiscourse involves: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers. Selected chapters and their Persian translations were read carefully and the above mentioned two types of metadiscourse and their sub-divisions were found both in ST and TTs. It was observed that all sub-divisions of interactive and interactional metadiscourse are used in Persian translation of the ST. However, there may be some changes in their types. For example, hedges may change to boosters in the process of translation. The results showed that interactive metadiscourse are used more than interactional metadiscourse in the ST and TTs. The results of the One-way Anova test and T-test showed that there is no significant difference between ST and TTs in the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse. In addition, there is no significant difference between the two Persian TTs in the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse. It shows clearly the effect of the ST on the TT. The results also indicated that the order of using interactive metadiscourse in ST and TTs was in this way: hedge, engagement markers, boosters, self-mentions, attitude markers. While, there were no special order in interactional metadiscourse sub-divisions in ST and TTs.

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Title

Teaching Translation A Suggested Model to Remedy the Difficulties

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Mansoureh Sajjadi is a lecturer at English language department of Islamic azad university abadeh branch. she presented lectures nationally and internationally about vocabulary learning, time intervals and learning words by mnemonic devices and untranslatabilities of Persian language. she has published a book entitled Translation Studies about principles of translation.

Abstract

The present article deals firstly with some theoretical reflections about the translational process and the various approaches to verge on texts to be translated. Then, a sequential work procedure carried out with undergraduate translation students. All the aspects presented and analyzed here respond to empirical matters. The methodology, consisting of a step-by-step, either sequential or successive procedure for workshops, has proven quite successful in translator training at an undergraduate level.

Keywords: Untranslatability, Translation methodology

1. Introduction

Translation is ultimately a human activity which enables human beings to exchange ideas and thoughts regardless of the different tongues used. Al Wassey (2001) views the phenomenon of translation as a legitimate offspring of the phenomenon of language, since originally, when humans spread over the earth, their languages differed and they needed a means through which people speaking a certain language (tongue) would interact with others who spoke a different language. Every translation activity has one or more specific purposes and whichever they may be; the main aim of translation is to serve as a cross-cultural bilingual communication vehicle among peoples. In the past few decades, this activity has developed because of rising international trade, increased migration, globalization, the recognition of

linguistic minorities, and the expansion of the mass media and technology. For this reason, the translator plays an important role as a bilingual or multi-lingual cross-cultural transmitter of culture and truths by attempting to interpret concepts and speech in a variety of texts as faithfully and accurately as possible. Most translation theorists agree that translation is understood as a transfer process from a foreign language—or a second language—to the mother tongue. However, market requirements are increasingly demanding that translators transfer texts to a target language that is not their mother tongue, but a foreign language. This is what Newmark calls "service translation." This fact makes the translating process a harder task, sometimes resulting in a mediocre output that should undoubtedly be revised and post-edited before delivery to the client. There are many thorns that can mortify us during the translation process, whatever the nature of the text we face, and translators should be aware of them. The first problem is related to reading and comprehension ability in the source language. Once the translator has coped with this obstacle, the most frequent translation difficulties are of a semantic and cultural nature (Tricás, 1995):

Linguistic untranslatability" (cognates, i.e. true and false friends, calque, and other forms of interference; institutional and standardized terms, neologisms, aphorisms, etc.), and "cultural untranslatability," (idioms, sayings, proverbs, jokes, puns, etc.).

Similarly, we quite often run into those painful "not found" terms, for which not even the best dictionary, an expert in the topic or a native speaker of the source language can provide us with a solution to convey an accurate meaning. We should always bear in mind that one of the greatest virtues of a good translator is what that is called "contextualized intuition,". Whatever the difficulty in the translation process, procedures must aim at the essence of the message and faithfulness to the meaning of the source language text being transferred to the target language text.

To a great extent, the quality of translation will depend on the quality of the translator, i.e. on her/his knowledge, skills, training, cultural background, expertise, and even mood! Newmark (1995) distinguishes some essential characteristics that any good translator should have:

- Reading comprehension ability in a foreign language
- Knowledge of the subject
- Sensitivity to language (both mother tongue and foreign language)
- Competence to write the target language dexterously, clearly, economically and resourcefully

In addition, Mercedes Tricás refers to *intuition*, or common sense as the most common of all senses; in other words, making use of *that sixth sense*, a combination of intelligence, sensitivity and intuition. This phenomenon works very well if handled cautiously:

Apart from the previously mentioned aspects, it is relevant to emphasize the necessity for sound linguistic knowledge of the SL and the TL, an essential condition, yet not the only one, to begin swimming up the streams of professional translation. However, neither knowing languages nor being efficiently bilingual is enough to become a translator. For more than twenty years, translation theorists have been pointing this out, and yet many people believe and claim that knowing two or more languages is identical to knowing how to translate properly. We must banish this idea. Delisle (1980) states it clearly:

Linguistic competence is a necessary condition, but not yet sufficient for the professional practice of translation. In addition to reading comprehension ability, the knowledge of specialized subjects derived from specialized training and a wide cultural background, and the global vision of cross-cultural and interlingual communication, it is a *must* to learn how to handle the strategic and tactical tools for a good translating performance.

Hence the importance of a didactic translation approaches: A methodology that allows the development of an effective and efficient transfer process from one language to another. As is widely known by those committed to the field, translation as a formal professional activity with a theoretical background is relatively new. Thus, a number of terms have recently been coined for the subject called Translation Theory.

2. The Global Approach

With regard to the principal approaches to a translation text, the most renowned translation theorists (Delisle, Newmark, Nida, Nord, Kussmaul) are in agreement on the following aspects:

Firstly, there is comprehension and interpretation of texts which implies the management of the approach principles to various types of texts, considering the textual, referential, cohesion and naturalness levels. This competence includes reading comprehension and message interpretation (encoding and decoding).

Secondly, re-wording is also important. It means the application of the various strategies for the restitution process of the message (re-coding) by choosing the appropriate method(s), techniques and procedures. Among the most frequently used procedures for the restoration of ideas contained in a translation unit, a translator may resort to transfer, cultural or functional

equivalent, synonymy, transposition, modulation, compensation, reduction and expansion or amplification (See Newmark, P., 1995: *A Textbook of Translation*). These skills constitute the essence of translating competence and should most strongly emphasize in the training prospective translators. For this purpose, it is also indispensable to make effective use of different types of documentation: Parallel texts, monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, encyclopedias, term data base, informants, and other sources.

And thirdly, translation theorists give great importance to the assessment of the result, i.e. evidencing the capacity to confront the translated text with the original text, being able to assess earnings and losses and showing self-correction capacity. It is the accurate revision of the output that will definitely result in a final translation of higher quality.

3. The Specific Approaches

According to most translation theorists, the specific approaches to text translation tend to be similar. On the one hand, it is necessary to use one or more translating approaches or models. On the other, there is always a way of approaching an SL text, whether the translator chooses the author-centered traditional model, the text-centered structuralistic model or the cognitive reader-centered model. Depending on their training, translators will adopt one model or another, but many will tend to tend to an eclectic integration of the three approaches.

Translators should be aware of the fact that incorrect comprehension of a text considerably decreases the quality of the translation. We must, therefore, use reading comprehension strategies for translation (underlining words, detecting translation difficulties, contextualizing lexical items—never isolating them -, adapting, analyzing, and so on.)

Finding solutions to dilemmas is a constant in the work of the translator. This includes translating problems such as linguistic or cultural "untranslatability," being able to manage losses and gains, solutions to lexical ambiguity, etc., through various mechanisms such as compensation, loans, explanatory notes, adaptation, equivalence, paraphrasing, analogies, etc.

Translators should also be aware that meaning is not only conveyed by words. Hence adequate decoding and re-coding of nomenclatures, figures, tables and charts; standardized terms, acronyms, metonyms, toponyms, etc. is a matter that must be properly considered.

A good translator should define some essential starting-points for the approximation to a text to be translated, such as the author of the text, the aim of the text, the readership, and the standard to be used, for which it is important to identify and categorize the author, the message, the kind of discourse, the translator and the readership. Another important aspect is the pre-editing of the original text to detect eventual source text defects, on the one hand, and

the post-editing of the translated text to verify the use of the most adequate syntactic, semantic and graphemic levels (recognition of the reviser's role), on the other hand.

Among formal matters, translators should be aware of and control the sound effect and cadence of the translated text ("translating with the ear") to avoid cacophonous combinations and calque on the source language.

Regarding the use of translation procedures and strategies, translators must constantly make choices, in each paragraph, sentence or translation unit, so as to decide which of them is the most useful for the transfer of the ideas in the text being translated. It means adapting the most suitable strategies and techniques to the requirements of the text rather than adopting a certain technique and using it for ever.

Last, but not least, translators should observe the essence—in terms of meaning and sense, register and style, etc.

4. Translation methodology

This approach attempts to develop some workshop activities for the translation process—as a cooperative activity with the students—through a graded and sequential procedure. We must assume that students have sound linguistic knowledge, both theoretical and practical, and a wide cultural bilingual background, achieved during their first years in college.

This methodology, consisting of a step-by-step procedure workshop, (stages may sometimes be sequential and successive, sometimes, alternated) has proven quite successful in my classes in terms of students' motivation, productivity and the quality of their work. However, I do think that this methodology can be improved.

4.1 . The teacher makes a selection of the material to be translated. Texts must be chosen according to previously defined objectives for translation practice, taking into account the degree of difficulty of the texts (semantic, cultural, stylistic, etc.), the topic or the specific knowledge area (science and technology; social, institutional, economic and/or political topics; and literary or philosophical works), the translation problems to be solved, and so on.

4.2. After browsing through the text (scan reading and/or skim reading), the students, assisted by their teacher, should identify the source, the norm, the type of text, the register, the style and the readership of the text selected. It is a kind of game of the imagination in which the text is real but the client and her/his needs are imaginary.

4.3. The students should read the whole text at least twice: The first reading will be comprehensive and general, to become acquainted with the topic and to understand the original, always bearing in mind that meaning is context-determined.

4.4. The second reading must be a "deep" reading, placing emphasis on items where translation problems may appear. In other words, this is what is called "reading with translation intention," i.e. doing pre-editing and assessing the quality of the writing (Reminder: Not all texts are well written). In my opinion, when translating into the TL, if the translator detects mistakes (usually due to misprints) in the original text, s/he should be entitled to amend them in her/his version if too obvious or else consult the client or an expert in case of doubt. When doing this "reading with translation intention," students should first underline unknown terms and then they should mentally confront potential translation difficulties in the text with suitable translation procedures.

4.5. The teacher then divides the text into as many segments as students in the group. Depending on the degree of difficulty and the length of the text, these segments may be paragraphs, columns, pages or even whole chapters. Then, each student is assigned a fair portion of the text. The segment distribution order should rotate so that a different student begins a translation unit every time.

4.6. If the topic is already quite familiar to the students, they do a preliminary translation. As this is the first approach to the text, it will probably lack naturalness, since students tend to transfer SL units of translation to TL units of translation ("one-to-one translation," Newmark, 1995). This first approach can often be made orally and suggested annotations may be written in the margins.

4.7. If the topic is completely unknown to the students, they should consult complementary literature. In other words, before beginning the transfer process, they should resort to various documentation sources, especially parallel texts (those which are similar in nature and style) in the language of the original. This allows them to achieve a deeper understanding of the topic under study.

4.8. Once the "one-to-one" version is accomplished, the students do a second version of their own translation—this time a written draft—handling the most suitable translation strategies and procedures and being faithful in the transfer of ideas.

4.9. With the original text in front of her/him and being careful to follow the same correlative order of the SL text, each student reads out her/his own version of the translated text, making the necessary pauses between sentences.

- 4.10. The students and the teacher follow the reading of each text attentively. As a monitoring activity, everybody should feel free to stop the reading at the end of a given sentence and have the reading of the segment repeated, when the situation warrants comments, suggestions, questions, contributions, etc. The students have to "defend" their work against criticism.
- 4.11. During this procedure, the students and the teacher need to set up all necessary conventions with regard to the homogeneity of the terms and the coherence and cohesion of the final version.
- 4.12. As Newmark (1995) states, "*translation is for discussion*" (Newmark, 1995b). Students should then be encouraged to take notes and discuss the in_ convenience of the contributions and comments arising from this analytical reading of each one of the different versions proposed.
- 4.13. As a metacognitive activity, the students, assisted by the teacher, analyze the translation strategies and procedures used, and discuss the reasons taken into account in the choice of each analyzed criterion: "*The ability to discuss translations in an objective way is central to a translator's competence*", (Kusssmaul, 1995).
- 4.14. The students hand in the final version of their revised and post-edited segments, which have already been amended in the light of the whole text. The work must be typed, double-spaced and paged according to the original.
- 4.15. The teacher makes a final revision (second post-edit), gives formative evaluation and makes comments, emphasizes findings, "happy" solutions and creative acts, on the one hand, and analyzes failures and weaknesses in the process, on the other.

5. Profile of the Student

- 5.1. Sound linguistic training in the two languages
- 5.2. Knowledge covering a wide cultural spectrum
- 5.3. High reading comprehension competence and permanent interest in reading
- 5.4. Adequate use of translation procedures and strategies
- 5.5. Adequate management of documentation sources
- 5.6. Improvement capacity and constant interest in learning
- 5.7. Initiative, creativity, honesty and perseverance

- 5.8. Accuracy, truthfulness, patience and dedication
- 5.9. Capacity for analysis and self-criticism
- 5.10. Ability to maintain constructive interpersonal relationships
- 5.11. Capacity to develop team work
- 5.12. Efficient data processing training at user's level (an introductory course is NOT enough)
- 5.13. Acquaintance with translation software for MT and MT edition

6. Profile of the Educator

- 6.1. Sound knowledge of the SL and the TL, translation theory, transfer procedures, cognition and methodology
- 6.2. Comprehension of what translation is and how it occurs (Bell, 1994)
- 6.3. Permanent interest in reading various kinds of texts
- 6.4. Ability to communicate ideas clearly, empathically and openly
- 6.5. Ability to work out synthesis and interrelationship of ideas
- 6.6. Capacity to create, foster and maintain a warm work environment, "*an atmosphere of sympathetic encouragement*" (Kussmaul, 1995)
- 6.7. Capacity to foster search and research
- 6.8. Accuracy and truthfulness; critical, self-critical and analytical capacity
- 6.9. Clear assessment criteria

7. The Infrastructure

- 7.1. Terminological resources (tools to save time and to make translation more profitable): Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, specialized dictionaries, encyclopedias, glossaries, various texts on translation theory and practice, access to international data processing nets, informants, expert and other sources.
- 7.2. International collaboration via congresses, symposia, seminars, conferences, inquiries through international nets, etc.
- 7.3. PCs, translation software, printers and printing material, term data bases.
- 7.4. Appropriate environment: The right place and enough time for reflection: Ideally, a translation laboratory.

8. Evaluation

As suggested by Kussmaul (1995), it is a good practice to classify the kinds of errors/difficulties. The most frequent types of difficulties arising from translation that I propose to assess in any translation are the following:

- 8.1. Comprehension, sense and ideas
- 8.2. Lexico-semantic level
- 8.3. Morphosyntactic level
- 8.4. Writing style and register
- 8.5. Spelling and punctuation
- 8.6. Creative solutions to translation problems
- 8.7. Transfer and re-wording (use of translation procedures)
- 8.8. Cohesion and coherence
- 8.9. Assessment of the result and post-edition
- 8.10. Format

The method of penalization of errors must be previously established, using clear criteria, and placing emphasis on the lack of coherence, especially regarding meaning and sense, whether it is due to faulty translation, missing items or the wrong application of lexical, semantic, grammatical, graphemic and/or cultural transfer. I suggest being drastic with text omissions, but I find it important to point out to the students all the positive aspects of meaning of her/his translation.

9. Conclusion

Translators must undergo permanent training. Their productive capacity, however, should not always be measured or weighed in terms of pages, words or hours done, but rather taking into account the quality of the output or finished work—work that consumes lots of neurons (although it stimulates many others).

It often shocks me to hear some people in my country say that MT has come to solve their translation problems... Undoubtedly, those of us who are acquainted with translation software know the enormous output difference between a machine-translated text and a human-translated text. In order to solve translation problems, a human translator must make use of his/her cleverness, creativity, curiosity, intuition, ingenuity, reflection, resourcefulness, and much more; a machine, however, no matter how well-fed it is, is unable to discriminate or discern.

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Title

Domesticating and Foreignizing Literary Works and Their Relations to Expertise in Translation

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Abstract

The present study is an attempt to investigate domestication and foreignization strategies and the application of their relevant procedures in the work of experienced and novice translators. In particular, the study aims at finding out whether there is any difference between experienced and novice translators in the kind, frequency and consistency of the adopted procedures. To this end, two English novels and their two Persian translations done simultaneously by experienced and novice translators were compared and investigated using Venuti's procedures for domestication and foreignization illustrated in his books. The results of the study suggest that domestication and foreignization as approaches to deal with cultural words constitute a continuum with novice translators closer to the domestication and the experienced translators closer to the foreignization. Therefore, they are different in terms of the kind and frequency of the adopted procedures and very consistent in their use of the procedures in dealing with different cultural categories. Novice translators make the non-figurative expressions of the ST figurative but experienced translators do not. The data provides support to the argument that, by explaining and familiarizing

foreign and exotic cultural words of the original work, novice translators tend to achieve the comprehensibility and transparency expected by the target readers. They seem to be more mindful of the market needs, by paying more attention to the TT's intelligibility and the level of readers' knowledge. These factors also seem to help them enhance the acceptability of their translations in the view of publishers as a way of increasing the number of copies printed or reprinted.

Keywords: Domestication, Foreignization, Procedure, Strategy

1. Introduction

During the evolution of Translation Studies different theories and strategies have been proposed by many scholars as to how to translate the texts. The early strategies were limited to the textual (linguistic) level and recent ones are concerned with meta-textual levels. Language is an integral part of any culture. Literary texts are manifestation of both the language and culture of a nation. In literary translation, specific problems arise from culture-bound terms, literary devices, genres, attitude and time of the original text. The translator must choose the best strategy or a combination of them to tackle these problems. Domestication and foreignization are two terms in translation studies coined by Lawrence Venuti. The initial decision consciously or unconsciously made on domestication and foreignization would affect the whole process of translation. According to Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997) domestication leads to a target text that is easily recognizable and thus comprehensible to the target readership and foreignization leads to a text that constantly reminds target readers of cultural differences.

As Bassnett and Lefevere (1990) and Bassnett (1991) argue since the cultural turn appeared in translation studies in the 1990s, the dispute of literal and free translation has been viewed from a social, cultural and historical perspective. Literal and free translations are techniques to tackle the linguistic forms but domestication and foreignization are concerned with the cultures. In the former the source culture is replaced with the target culture and in the latter the differences of the source culture are preserved. For a long time there was a great attempt to make the translations, in Venuti's word, "fluent", "transparent" and "natural" for target readers because of various factors including political, socio-cultural and economic. This makes the translator "invisible" and creates an "illusionistic effect"; the illusion that this is not a translation. So always the dichotomy of domesticating or foreignizing lies on the way of the translator in the decision-making process of translation.

As Venuti (1995) argues translation as a social activity happens in a context which is not bereft of mutual relations: it shapes a culture and is shaped by the culture. Venuti pays a great deal of attention to the context when he states that innovations and deviations of foreignizing translation are defined against the norm set by other translation discourses in target language culture.

To what extent should a text be domesticated and foreignized? How much is the degree of domestication and foreignization in different language pairs? “Determining whether a translation project is domesticating or foreignizing clearly depends on a detailed reconstruction of the cultural formation in which the translation is produced and consumed: what is domestic or foreign can be defined only with reference to the changing hierarchy of values in the target language culture” (Venuti, 1998b, p. 243).

According to Dimitrova (2005) the translators’ experience seems to be a crucial factor in choosing the kind of overall translation strategy in order to reach the intended meaning and purpose of the translation and to be accepted in the target language and culture. This study is an attempt to explore domestication (making the source text more comprehensible and familiar to the target readers) and foreignization (retaining every peculiarity of the original) and the procedures of applying them in the works of experienced and inexperienced translators in translating from English into Persian.

The present study was an attempt to carry out an analysis and description of domestication and foreignization strategies and their application through different procedures based on Venuti’s own procedures and examples. Meanwhile, the main purpose of this research was to find whether there is a difference in the type and frequency of the procedures of applying domestication and foreignization in the target texts between experienced and novice translators in reaching the intended purpose of the translation and whether the translators are consistent in doing this or not. Therefore, the following questions were raised:

RQ1. Is there any difference between experienced and novice translators in terms of the type and frequency of the procedures in domesticating and foreignizing literary works from English to Persian?

RQ2. Are experienced and novice translators consistent in their use of domestication and foreignization procedures?

2. Methodology

Based on Venuti’s theory of domestication, it was assumed by the researchers that novice translators tend to domesticate more than experienced translators to serve the target readers’

expectations and level of education, needs of the market, social norms and values. Therefore, they tend to differ from more experienced translators in terms of the type and frequency of the procedures adopted in the process of the translation. Also it was assumed that both experienced and novice translators tend to be consistent in their strategy in order to reach the intended meaning and purpose of the translation. Regarding the cultural issues in translation studies, Venuti's theory of 'domestication' (making the source text more comprehensible and familiar to the target readers) and 'foreignization' (retaining every peculiarity of the original) provides a useful theoretical approach in the area of intercultural transfer. These two strategies can be found especially in the translation of literary texts. The procedures of applying these strategies are also taken from Venuti's own examples in two of his books i.e. *The Translator's Invisibility* and *The Scandals of Translation*.

3. Data

The corpus of the study consists of two English novels along with two Persian translations for each one. The translations are done almost at the same time once by an experienced translator and once by an inexperienced translator. From each English novel, an adequate number of words were selected randomly to be investigated for data analysis. Chapters 1, 2, 8 and 9 of the novel *The Namesake* that roughly amounts to 40400 words and chapters 1 to 21, 25 to 30 and 70 to 76 of the novel *The Da Vinci Code* that roughly amounts to 41000 words. In this study a prolific translator namely Gorgani and Reishahri were considered experienced translators and Haghigat and Ganji were considered inexperienced translators.

The researcher started locating and identifying instances of culture-specific items including proper names, foods, clothes, geographical places, units of measurement, months, means of transportation, historical, religious, artistic, mythological terms, idioms, expressions, similes, and metaphors in the English novels as mentioned in Aixela, J. F. (1996) cited in Alvarez & M.C. A. Vidal. Then by comparison of the original texts with their translations as well as the comparison of the translations with each other, the researcher proceeded to trace them in the Persian translated texts done by the experienced and novice translators to determine which of the domestication and foreignization procedures shown in table 1 is adopted in translating them, whether the translators are consistent in doing this or not and which one is the most frequent procedure. In other words, we investigated the texts to determine what kind of solution had been adopted by the experienced and novice translators in facing these cultural items. All of these instances were identified, categorized and

tabulated manually. Finally the frequency of each procedure was counted and presented in tables and the overall percentage of domestication and foreignization used by each translator was calculated and mapped on graphs.

Table 1. Procedures of Domestication and Foreignization According to Venuti

Domestication Procedures	Foreignization Procedures
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Explanation ▪ Cultural equivalence ▪ Addition ▪ Deletion ▪ Using figurative expression for non-figurative expression ▪ Euphemism / Expurgation ▪ Syntactical adjustment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Loan word / Transliteration ▪ Calque translation ▪ Literal translation

The Da Vinci Code

In the following tables the type and frequency of every procedure adopted in domesticating and foreignizing of *The Da Vinci Code* by the experienced translator i.e. Reishahri and novice translator i.e. Shahrabi&Ganji are presented.

Table 2. Type and Frequency of the Domestication Procedures in the DaVinci Code Translation by Reishahri and Shahrabi&Ganji

	Explanation	Deletion	Addition	Making figurative	Cultural equivalence	Syntactical adjustment	Expurgation/ Euphemism
Reishahri	12	127	1	1	15	5	5
Shahrabi & Ganji	118	6	3	21	82	14	5

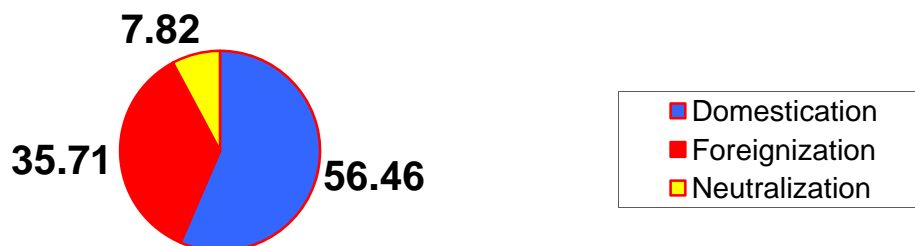
Table 3. Type and Frequency of the Foreignization Procedures in the DaVinci Code Translation by Reishahri and Shahrabi&Ganji

	Transliteration /Loanword	Literal	Calque
Reishahri	70	27	8
Shahrabi & Ganji	123	6	16

In the table 2, the highlighted cells show that the most frequent domestication procedure adopted by the experienced translator is *deletion* and by the novice translator is *explanation*. The most frequently used foreignization procedure by both translators in the table 3 is *transliteration*.

From 309 number of instances analyzed in the translation of *The Da Vinci Code* by Reishahri, 56.46% is domesticated and 35.71% is foreignized and 7.82% is neutralized.

Figure 1. Percentage of Domestication, Foreignization and Neutralization by Reishahri in *The Da Vinci Code* Translation



From 309 number of instances analyzed in the translation of *The Da Vinci Code* by Shahrabi & Ganji, 61.17% is domesticated and 35.62% is foreignized and 3.19 % is neutralized.

Figure 2. Percentage of Domestication, Foreignization and Neutralization by Shahrabi&Ganji in *The Da Vinci Code* Translation



Shahrabi & Ganji has used footnotes to reveal every possible aspect of the key words such as *pagan* and *ideograms* in the story to lead the readers to grasp the meaning throughout the story:

Pagan symbolism (p.5)

نشانگان پگانی

Pagan: معنای اصلی این واژه شرک است، اما در زبان امروز پگانی گری به ادیانی گفته می شود که عموماً خدایان متعدّد دارند. آن ها را در طبیعت می جویند، ریشه ی خود را هم در ادیان چندخدایی ماقبل موسی می دانند، نظیر مهرپرستی در ایران و هندوگری در هند و ارباب انواع یونان و روم و درویدیسمدر گُل و بریتانیا و جز آن . جلوتر با

مفهوم کلمه در بطن داستان بیشتر روبرو می شویم. لازم به گفتن است که به اعتقاد بسیاری از گروه های پگانی امروز، نظیر ویکاهای، اعتقاد به کیش پگانی در تضاد با ادیان ابراهیمی نیست و شما می توانید پس از این که در مراسمی گرد آتش پای کوبی کردید، شمعی در کلیسا به نیت مریم باکره روشن کنید. (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 7)

Even in some cases they relate those foreign terms and concepts to the Persian historical events and ceremonies in favor of familiarizing the text as can be seen in the following examples:

May Day(p.80)

اول ماه می در اروپای قرون وسطی و امروزی روز جشن بهاره که یحتمل در مناسک کشاورزی پیشامسیحی ریشه دارد؛ به ویژه در سنت تجلیل از فلورا، الهه ی بهار در اساطیر روم. این جشن را اکنون بیشتر کودکان به افتخار ظهور دوباره ی گلها اجرا میکنند. از گذشته رقصی نیز ویژه ی این روز بوده که در آن رقاصان با در دست گرفتن نواری به گرد میله ای از گل، به نام دیرک می، پای کوبی میکنند. هم چنین است جشن نوروز در ایران که با پدیداری بهار انجام می گیرد. (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 91)

In dealing with these culture-specific terms, it seems that Shahrabi & Ganji want to over-inform the target readers by their **118** number of explanations mostly in the form of footnotes. On the other hand, Reishahri as an experienced translator has not used any footnote with the above examples and throughout the story she has translated the cultural terms just literally without any added information or has simply deleted them. Except for **12** number of in-text explanations as in the following examples:

The mystical teachings of the Kabbala drew heavily on anagrams. (p.82)

روش های مرموز کابالا (Kabbala) زبان سری عبری، تنظیم مجدد کلمه ها را شامل می شد. (ریشهری، ص 78)

Wicca(p.20)

ویکا_ پرستش نیروهای طبیعی و جادوگری_ (ریشهری، ص 22)

The other translation procedure that is different in rate between Reishahri and Shahrabi&Ganji is *cultural equivalence*. Shahrabi&Ganji have employed this procedure **82** times but Reishahri **15** times. As the following examples show in most cases where Shahrabi&Ganji have used a *cultural equivalence* for a CSI (culture specific item), Reishahri has resorted to *deletion* or *literal* translation instead. Reishahri with **127** instances of *deletion* is standing at the top in order not to interrupt the comprehensibility, readability and fluency of the translated text for the readers.

JosemaríaEscrivá's spiritual book The Way (p.24)	کتاب معنوی "طریقت" اثر ژوز ماریا اسکریوا (ریشهری، ص 27)	Literal	کتاب دینی خوز هماریا اسکریوا به نام صراط (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 28)	Cultural equivalence
the woman showed no signs of letting up. (p.7)	_____	Deletion	زن به هیچ وجه قصد کوتاه آمدن نداشت (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 8)	Cultural equivalence
Crux gemmata (p.21)	_____	Deletion	"چلیپای مرصع"	Cultural equivalence

Changing plain language into figurative language is another solution for familiarizing and making the translated text comprehensible. As Larson (1984) states, sometimes an idiomatic expression in the target language can best communicate the source text content so "[t]he translator also needs to develop sensitivity to the use of idioms in the receptor language and use them naturally to make the translations lively and keep the style of the source language. There will often be words in the source language which are not idioms, but are best translated with an idiom" (Larson, 1984:116). Shahrabi&Ganji have changed 21 non-figurative sentences into figurative ones in the TT but Reishahri has resorted to this type of change only once.

Langdon was reaching the end of his patience.(p.39)	لانگدون تحملش تمام شد (ریشهری، ص 40)	Literal	کاسه ی صبر لنگدان داشت لیریز می شد. (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 45)	Making figurative
until he could retire with the lucrative pension. (p.61)	_____	Deletion	سپس با حقوق نا نو آبداری باز نشسته شود. (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 69)	Making figurative

In case of *syntactical adjustments*, wherever it has been possible the two translators have drawn on the potentialities of the Persian language to make familiar the odd syntax of the source text for target readers. They have changed the point of view in expressing ideas and changed the original passive sentences to active one in Persian.

Tell me where it is hidden (p.3)	به من بگو کجا آن رامخفی کرده ای. (ریشهری، ص 6)	Syntactical adjustment	بگو کجا پنهانش کردید (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 4)	Syntactical adjustment
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The following examples show the difference between the two translators:

The curator was attacked in his office, (p.27)	متصدی موزه در دفترش مورد حمله قرار گرفته، (ریشهری، ص 30)	Literal	توی دفتر کار رییس پیش حمله میکنند؛ (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 32)	Syntactical adjustment
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Generally speaking, Shahrabi & Ganji as novice translators in translating *The Davinci Code* are careful to retain the CSIs' form and make TT more reader-friendly simultaneously. It seems that Shahrabi & Ganji have observed the TT readers' level of knowledge of arts and mythology of the source text. Berman (1985: 89 cited in Venuti 1998a:11) propounds that "Good translation is demystifying: it manifests in its own language the foreignness of the foreign text". In practice, achieving a balance between foreignization and domestication would help enhance the equivalent effect of cultural elements.

Instead, Reishahri as an experienced translator has tried to smooth over the heterogeneity of the source text by *deleting* or just *transliterating* most of the historical, artistic and mythological terms, to narrate it as smoothly and fluently as possible. Her translation is running a 'homogenizing' discourse and a continuous narrative. It seems that both of the experienced and novice translators work toward the same goal i.e. comprehensibility of the TT, but they reach to this end through different ways.

In the process of the ST and TT analysis, the researcher encountered the cases that were neither domestication nor foreignization but culturally neutral equivalences which give the core meaning of an idiom, expression etc. This can be best called **Neutralization** that is applied to the translation of the items that do have a general form. Reishahri resorted **23** times to neutralization and Shahrabi & Ganji **13** times. Here are some samples of neutralization adopted in different situations:

The final line hit Langdon like a kick in the gut. (p.57)	خط آخر پیام، مانند مشتتی محکم، به او ضربه زد. (ریشهری، ص 57)	Neutralization	خط آخر مثل پتکی روی سر لنگدان فرود آمد. (شهرابی-گنجی، ص 64)	Cultural equivalence
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The Namesake

Let's discuss the second novel *The Namesake*. The type and frequency of every procedure adopted by the experienced translator i.e. Gorgani and the novice translator i.e. Haghghat in domesticating and foreignizing *The Namesake* are presented in table 4 and 5.

Table 4. Type and Frequency of the Domestication Procedures in The Namesake Translation by Gorgani and Haghighat

	Explanation	Deletion	Addition	Making figurative	Cultural equivalence	Syntactical adjustment	Expurgation/ Euphemism
Gorgani	11	5	1	0	16	10	4
Haghighat	41	19	4	46	51	28	5

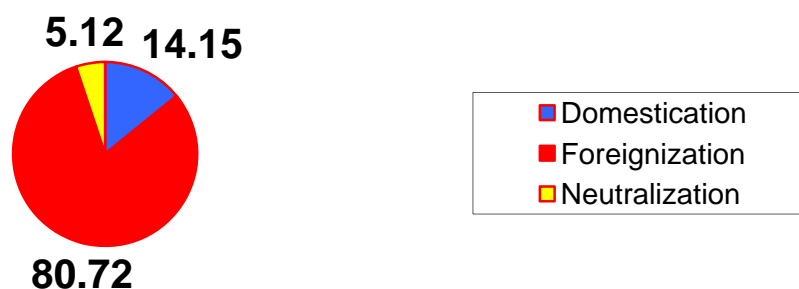
Table 5. Type and Frequency of the Foreignization Procedures in The Namesake Translation by Gorgani and Haghighat

	Transliteration /Loanword	Literal	Calque
Gorgani	168	91	9
Haghighat	125	7	8

In table 4, the highlighted cells show that the most frequent domestication procedure adopted by the experienced and novice translators is *cultural equivalence*. The most frequently used foreignization procedure by both translators as shown in table 5 is *transliteration*.

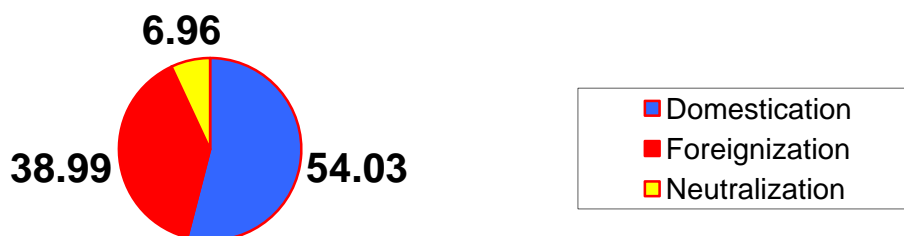
From 327 instances analyzed in the translation of *The Namesake* by the experienced translator i.e. Gorgani, **14.15%** belongs to domestication, **80.72%** to foreignization, and **5.12%** to neutralization.

Figure 3. Domestication, Foreignization and Neutralization Percentage by the Experienced Translator Gorgani in the Translation of *The Namesake*



From the same analysis on the translation of the novice translator i.e. Haghghat, **54.03%** goes to domestication, **38.99%** to foreignization, and **6.96%** to neutralization.

Figure 4. Domestication, Foreignization and Neutralization Percentage by the Novice Translator Haghghat in the Translation of The Namesake



In the translation of *The Namesake* the significant differences in adopting translation procedures in various situations by the experienced translator i.e. Gorgani and the novice translator i.e. Haghghat are in adopting figurative language, Literal, Cultural equivalence, Transliteration and Syntactical adjustment.

There is a significant difference in adopting figurative expressions in place of non-figurative ones: Haghghat has adopted this procedure **46** times and Gorgani had not adopted it even once. The followings are examples in detail:

She'd been astonished (p.6)	متحیر شده بود (گرگانی، ص 13)	Literal	انگشت به دهن می ماند (حقیقت، ص 15)	Making figurative
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Haghghat in rendering culture-specific items of the original text tries to bring a close equivalence from the Iranian culture to reduce the foreign sense of the words and to contribute to the domestic color of the translation for satisfying the target readers' expectations. He has used this procedure **51** times but Gorgani **16** times.

a pair of men's shoes....She saw the size, eight and half , and the initials U.S.A (p.8)	اندازه ی آن را دید، هشت و نیم (گرگانی، ص 16)	Literal	سایز کفش چهل بود، (حقیقت، ص 17)	Cultural equivalence
Betrothal (p.9)	نامزدی (گرگانی، ص 17)	Literal	شیرینی خوران (حقیقت، ص 19)	Cultural equivalence

Also it seems that Haghghat by deleting **19** numbers of foreign elements is reducing the foreignness of the original but Gorgani who pursues very closely the original text has deleted **5** times only as in the following examples:

The final bowl contains payesh , a warm rice pudding (p.39)	آخرین کاسه حاوی پایش است، یک پودینگ گرم برنج (گرگانی، ص 57)	Transliteration	ظرف آخر حاوی پوره ی گرم برنج است (حقیقت، ص 55)	Deletion
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Most of the explanations are in the form of brief in-text added information so as not to disturb the reader's attention; except for 3 footnotes out of **11** explanations by Gorgani and **41** explanations by Haghghat. Some examples are as follows:

Handsome in a Lord Mountbatten sort of way (p.2)	نحیف و خوش قیافه مانند لرد مونت باتن (گرگانی، ص 9)	Transliteration	یک جورهایی شبیه لرد ماونتبتنانگلیسی، حاکم هند، است (حقیقت، ص 11)	Transliteration+ Explanation
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In case of syntactical adjustments, it seems that Haghghat used the Persian language potentialities **28** times to avoid the oddness of the original work's syntax by converting the passive voice to active and breaking a long sentence into several sentences. But Gorgani used this procedure only **10** times.

She is told that she is still in early labor (p.3)	به او گفته می شود هنوز در مراحل اولیه ی زایمان است. (گرگانی، ص 9)	Literal	دکتر به آشیما می گوید هنوز اول کار است. (حقیقت، ص 11)	Syntactical adjustment
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In *The Namesake* novel as well there were some cases that had been *neutralized*. Gorgani has resorted to neutralization **17** times and Haghghat **25** times as shown by the following examples:

there are certain images that wipe him flat . (p.20)	هنوز تصاویر مشخصی هستند که افسرده اش میکنند. (گرگانی، ص 31)	Neutralization	هنوز تصویرهای بخصوصی هست که حالش را بد میکند. (حقیقت، ص 32)	Neutralization
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Figure 5. Comparison of Domestication, Foreignization and Neutralization Between Experienced and Novice Translators: Reishahri and Shahrabi&Ganji

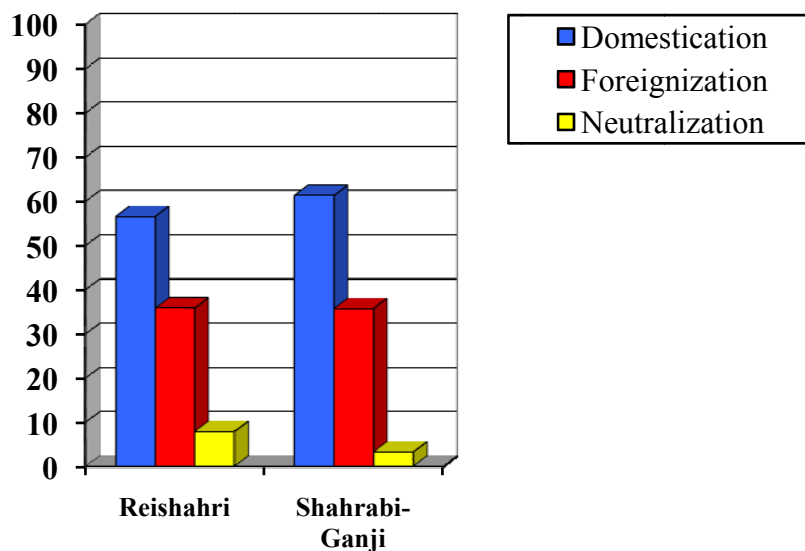
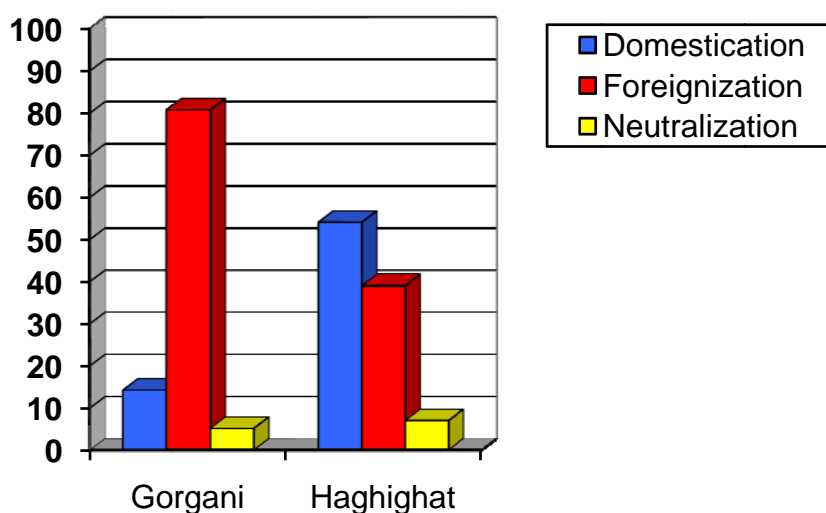


Figure 6. Comparison of Domestication, Foreignization and Neutralization Between Experienced and Novice Translators: Gorgani and Haghighat



4. Results and Discussion

Based on the results of this study we can depict that:

- 1) According to the results obtained from the corpus of this study it is confirmed that novice translators domesticate more than experienced translators do.
- 2) Experienced and novice translators adopt the same kind of procedures of domestication and foreignization but they differ in one procedure i.e. *making figurative*. Novice translators make the non-figurative expressions of the ST figurative but experienced translators do not.
- 3) As tables 2 and 4 show the most frequent procedure of domestication adopted by the experienced and novice translators in *The Namesake* is *cultural equivalence*. But in *The Da Vinci Code* the procedure of *deletion* is mostly used by the experienced translator and *explanation* by the novice translator.
- 4) The most frequent procedure of foreignization adopted by the experienced and novice translators in all of the translations is *transliteration*.
- 5) The data provides support to the fact that experienced and novice translators have been very consistent in their use of the procedures in dealing with different cultural categories.
- 6) Novice translators provide adequate information needed by the readers of the TT but experienced translators' strategy might be an indication that they expect the reader to already know the foreign terms and if he/she doesn't, it's his/her duty to go and find the hidden meaning and discover the exotic foreign elements of the ST.
- 7) Generally speaking, novice translators are careful to retain the CSIs' form by transliteration and provide explanation for them. In practice, they try to achieve a balance between foreignization and domestication by preserving the foreign elements of the ST and making the TT more reader-friendly simultaneously.
- 8) Foreignized translations are republished fewer times than domesticated translations. It seems that foreignized translations are not to be judged acceptable by publishers and target readers in Iran.
- 9) There is an in-between translation strategy adopted by both experienced and novice translators that is *neutralization* of the cultural elements of the ST.
- 10) The number of adopted euphemism and expurgation is equal among experienced and novice translators. It shows that they are both careful about the taboos and unethical issues of the target culture.
- 11) The number of additions is not so significant in all of the translations.

5. Conclusion

According to the results obtained from the corpus of this study it was confirmed that novice translators domesticate more than experienced translators do, so they differ in the frequency of the procedures adopted. Experienced and novice translators adopt the same kind of procedures of domestication and foreignization but they differ in one procedure i.e. *making figurative*. Novice translators make the non-figurative expressions of the ST figurative but experienced translators do not. The data provides support to the fact that experienced and novice translators have been very consistent in their use of the procedures in dealing with different cultural categories. Generally, novice translators are careful to retain the culture specific items by transliteration and providing explanation for them. In practice, they try to achieve a balance between foreignization and domestication by preserving the foreign elements of the ST and making the TT more reader-friendly simultaneously. Novice translators provide adequate information needed by the readers of the TT but the experienced translators' strategy might be an indication that they expect the reader to already know the foreign terms and if he/she doesn't, it's his/her duty to go and find the hidden meaning and discover the exotic foreign elements of the ST. In the process of the ST and TT analysis, the researcher encountered the cases that were neither domestication nor foreignization but culturally neutral equivalences which give the core meaning of an idiom, expression etc. This in-between translation strategy adopted by both experienced and novice translators can be best called *neutralization* of the cultural elements of the ST. The number of adopted euphemism and expurgation is equal among experienced and novice translators. It shows that they are both careful about the taboos and unethical issues of the target culture.

Translating a text from one language to another usually requires that a choice is first made between two basic translation strategies that is domestication and foreignization. Economic considerations of the novice translators may underlie choosing a domesticating strategy. Novice translators domesticate more than experienced translators to make their work intelligible so as to get their work be accepted and easily understood without any effort on target readers' part. Fluency of the translation leads to republishing and more sales. Publishers in turn, exclude translations that avoid transparency. Several reprints of their translation in the market are also testifying their success in reaching to this end.

Reishahri's translation is published two times but Shahrabi&Ganji's translation as novice translators has been republished eight times with 5000 circulation. Gorgani's translation is published once with 1650 circulation. Haghghat's translation as a novice translator has been republished three times with 1500 circulation. The foreignized translations are republished

fewer times than domesticated translations. It seems that sheer foreignized translations are not to be judged acceptable by publishers and target readers in Iran.

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ریشهری، نوشین، (1384)، *رمز داوینچی، انتشارات نگارینه، تهران*.

Title

Translation Criticism on Google Translation of Proper Names in Tourism Texts

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Abstract

The translation of proper names seems to be an effortless task. This study aims at determining the translation of proper names. First, the article presents the theoretical consideration that deals with different aspects of proper names translation in tourism texts and the issue of their translation. Second, the translation strategies provided by the translation theorist, Vermes (2003) used for this research are explained. Then the discussion proceeds to the quantitative analysis of the translated proper names. The research has been carried out on tourist brochures translated from Persian into English by Google translate. After analyzing the strategies of transference, translation, substitution and modification, the strategy of transference has proved to be the most frequent one in all proper names translation which were applied in this study.

Keywords: Proper Name, Translation Procedures, Transference, Translation, Substitution, Modification

1. Introduction

The translation of proper names is one of the most difficult areas any translator usually faces. Simply, proper names are not like other words translation of which can be easily found in

dictionaries. Most of us may simply think that proper names are usually not translatable. The process of translating proper names sometimes turns out to be problematic. Imagine the names خشااریار شاه (Khashaayaar the King) from tourism text being translated as Xerus, lacking the correct Persian pronunciation and the negative and positive cultural connotation of these names in the Persian culture. Translation will not be able to transfer the exact or at least approximately exact local color and nationality of source text into target text.

However after we compare the translations with the source text, we can observe that translators do various sorts of things with proper names in order to decrease these problems (Jaleniauskiene and Cicelyte, 2009). Thus the main aim of the present article is to analyze the strategies which are applied for the translation of proper names in tourist brochures. A variety of translation strategies have been proposed by different translation theorists: Peter Newmark, Jean-Paul Vinay, Jean Darbelnet and Christian Schaffner. All of them used different classification or even different terms to label their strategies but in fact, their procedures are similar. For this research Verme's (2003) translation strategies have been chosen by analyzing proper names in the translated tourist brochures.

Therefore, the present study will focus on proper names in tourism brochures. It will aim at determining the procedures applied in Google translate and at how effectively it has managed to render the same cultural atmosphere and national sense of the source text.

2. Theoretical Preliminaries

2.1. Proper Names

As Nord (2003) mentioned:

“Unlike generic nouns, proper names are mono-referential, but they are by no means mono-functional. Their main function is to identify an individual referent. In the world, proper names may be non-descriptive but they are obviously not non-informative: if we are familiar with the culture, a proper name can tell us whether the referent is male or female or their geographical origin or place”. (p.3)

Although many scholars provide their own definitions of proper names, this article refers to the definition given in the Oxford Concise English Dictionary 2001: a proper name is a name for an individual person, place or organization having an initial capital letter. According to Newmark (1988 as cited in Shabani, 2008) categorization, proper names consist of people names, names of objects and geographical terms.

2.2. Machine Translation

The translation of natural languages by machine, first dreamed of it in the 17th century, has become a reality in the late of 20th Century. Computer programs are producing translations, not perfect translations, for that is an ideal to which no human translator can aspire. Machine translation of natural language, commonly known as MT, has multiple properties. The term machine translation (MT) refers to computerized systems responsible for the production of translations with or without human assistance (Nirenburg & Wilks, 2004). It excludes computer based translation tools which support translators by providing access to on-line dictionaries, remote terminology databanks, transmission and reception of text, etc.

Although the ideal goal of MT systems may be to produce high quality translation, in practice the output is usually revised (post edited). However, the types of errors produced by MT systems differ from those of human translation (incorrect preposition, articles, pronouns, verb tenses, etc.). Translation quality of MT systems may be improved either by developing more sophisticated methods or by imposing certain restrictions on the input.

2.3. Google Translate

Google translate is a service provided by Google Inc. to translate a section of a text, or a web page into another language. The service limits the number of paragraphs or range of technical terms that will be translated. This service was introduced in 2007. Some language users are asked for alternate translations such as for technical terms to be included for future updates of the translation process. Google translate like other automatic translation tools has its limitations, while it can help the reader to understand the general content of a foreign language text, it does not always deliver accurate translations. Some languages produce better results than others. As of 2010, French to English translations is very good.

Because Google translate uses statistical matching to translate rather than a dictionary/grammar rules approach, translated texts can often include apparently nonsensical and obvious errors, as well as inverting sentence meaning (Wikipedia, 2010).

3. Theoretical Framework

During this study some strategies on the translation of proper names on the light of Google translate are discussed. In the practical part the analysis of translation strategies, applied for proper names by Google translate, is based on Vermes's (2003) classification of translation strategies by narrowing down all the strategies into four main groups. In addition some observations whether the translated proper names comply with the mentioned principles are made. The materials for the present practical quantitative analysis comprise tourist brochures

translated from Persian into English by Google translate. Proper names which are the main focus of this study include tourist brochures of some historical places of Iran. Then the translation procedures suggested by Vermes (2003) for translating proper names will be introduced. These procedures applied to all three categories of proper names i.e. personal proper names, names of objects and geographical terms. Based on Vermes's (2003) suggestions, in translating a proper name, translators have four basic strategies: transference, translation, substitution and modification. Each is defined in the following way:

3.1. Transference

It is the process of rendering the name in the target language in the original form. In his own words, Vermes (2003) states that transference occurs when we decide to incorporate the source language proper names change into the target language text. An example is شیراز (Shiraz).

3.2. Translation

It means rendering the source language names or at least part of it by the same target language expression in the target text as the original name does in the source text. A simple example would be the rendering of فارس (Pars).

3.3. Substitution

It is replacing the source language name by a conventional target language correspondence which replaces the source language item in the translation. This applies to a large number of geographical names. In such a case when there is a conventional correspondence available in the target language, it would seem to be the translators' first and natural choice. An example would be the conventional rendering of قم (Qom).

3.4. Modification

Vermes (2003) defines modification as the process of choosing the source language name a target language substitute which is logically unrelated to the original.

On the whole, Vermes's (2003) classification and labeling of strategies seems to be clear and quite relevant in the analysis of the translated proper names. In addition, it seems they cover all procedures that could be applied for rendering proper names into English to some extent. Therefore, his strategies will be used for the practical part of this article.

4. Method

Since the focus in this study is the translation of proper names in tourist brochures, some tourist brochures in different places of tourist interest were selected. They were famous historical

places of Iran and the reason for choosing these brochures among available ones is that there are more instances of proper names in such places:

- Hafezieh
- Saadieh
- Ganjnameh
- Choghazanbil

First of all tourism texts were translated by Google translate, afterward different proper names were looked up in the original texts and matched with the corresponding expression in the translation. For each name only the first occurrence in the texts was recorded. Then the translated names were sorted out into four groups according to the strategies the Google translate used in dealing with them. The strategies were transference, translation, substitution and modification.

Subsequently, the names in each group were assigned to various translational categories of proper names introduced by Newmark (1988 as cited in Shabani 2008): personal names, names of objects, geographical terms. Then under each strategy, the number of occurrence in each category was mentioned against the total number of occurrence in the given category. This was done to determine whether there are characteristic differences in the treatment of the various categories of proper names.

5. Results and Discussion

The analysis has shown that there are different ways to translate proper names while translating them from Persian into English. Google translate mostly deals expertly even with difficult proper names by applying different translation strategies. Summing up the translation strategies applied in the translation of 61 proper names used by Google translate is illustrated in table 1.

Table 1

The frequency of the strategies used for translating proper names

	Transference	Translation	Substitution	Modification	Mistranslation	Total
Personal names	13	4	3	0	4	24
Names of objects	9	5	1	0	2	17
Geographical terms	12	4	4	0	0	20
Total	34	13	8	0	6	61

Table 2*The percentage of the strategies used for translating proper names*

	Transference	Translation	Substitution	Modification	Mistranslation	Total
Personal names	38.2	30.7	37.5	0	66.6	39.4
Names of objects	26.4	38.4	12.5	0	33.4	27.8
Geographical terms	35.2	30.7	50	0	0	32.8
Total	55.7	21.3	13.2	0	9.8	100

It has been determined that the strategy of *transference* is the most frequent one in the translation of proper names since it was used in the translation procedures as 55.7% of proper names and 9.8% of them were mistranslated in which non of those four translation were used.

6. Conclusion

As displayed in table 1, among the translation procedures proposed by Vermes (2003) for translation of proper names, only three procedures were applied by Google translate, i.e. transference, translation and substitution. The main procedure used for the translation of personal names was transference (38.2%). For names of objects, the *translation* procedure was mostly used (38.4%). Most of geographical terms were translated by *substitution* procedure (50%). The point which is important to be mentioned here is that although proper names must not be translated, Google translate translated 30.7% of personal names. For example it translated:

زينت الملك = decorate almolk
 قوام شيرازى = Shiraz consistency
 منصور رستگار = successful Mansour
 شوریده = frenzy
 فصیح الملك = eloquent almolk

Beside the mentioned weak point, it should be said that in Google translate, transference procedure was used properly according to their Persian phonology. For example:

حافظیه = Hafezieh
 پاسارگاد = Pasargad
 گنجنامه = Ganjnameh
 چغازنبیل = Choghazanbil

All in all, it can be concluded that some basic strategies are used in Google translate in the process of proper names translation from Persian into English:

- If proper names do not cause any problems of pronunciation and are the same in English language, they are usually simply reported like سعدی (Saadi)
- If proper names include letters which are not present in the English alphabet, they are adapted phonologically like قرآن (Quran)
- To adapt proper names from Persian, this adaptation are used, "ش" is often changed into "sh". "ق" into "gh" as in:

شیراز = Shiraz

چغازنبیل = Choghazanbil

- Geographical items and country names were mostly transferred from Persian into English.

بوشهر = Bushehr

هگمتانه = Hegmataneh

همدان = Hamedan

Finally, It seems that Google translate was not completely successful in translating proper names from Persian into English. Since the goal of this study was to determine which of the four translation procedures introduced by Vermes (2003) was used for translation of proper names, it could be concluded that Google translate has not accomplished this goal effectively because 9.8% of proper names were mistranslated which was not anticipated in the beginning of the study.

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Title

A Contrastive Analysis of Personification and Hyperbole in Translations of *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

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Abstract

A descriptive study carried out to examine, translation procedure(s) of Newmark (1988) which have been applied for translating personification and hyperbole by H. Honarmandi (1350), M.T. Bahrami Haran (1374), Z. Pirzad (1389). And also, to find out whether there are significant differences among the frequencies of the use of each procedure in this book. This analysis is focused on 51 personification and hyperbole along with their equivalents extracted from "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*" and its three translations. In conducting this research the English text was compared with three Persian translations to find their equivalences in TT. Then, the obtained data has been analyzed and classified in terms of Newmark's procedures which have been applied for personification and hyperbole. Finally, the metaphorical expression in ST and their equivalences in TT has been compared in terms of the frequency and percentage of each type which has been used in these three translations. The analysis of data revealed that the following procedures were used in translating personification and hyperbole: **1)** reproducing the same image in the TL; **2)** replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image; **3)** deletion, and

among them p1 is the most frequently applied procedure and p6 is the least applied procedure which have been used for translating personification and hyperbole in these three mentioned translations.

Keywords: Contrastive analysis, Literary Translation, Figurative language, Personification, Hyperbole, NEWMARK's procedures.

1.Introduction

Translation is an activity that poses many problems for translators. According to Catford (1965), translation is "an act of transference, in which a text from the source language is replaced by its equivalent in the target language" (p.20). Newmark (1988) states that, among the various kinds of *translation*, *literary translation* in general, and *poetry translation* in particular, seem to be the most difficult ones since form and meaning in such texts have a very close relationship. The diversity between a SL and a TL and the differences in their cultures make the process of translating a real challenge. He also added "*literary translation* is the most testing type of *translation*". Among these problems, this study will focus on the translations of hyperbole and personification as forms of figurative languages. Figurative Language - language using figures of speech- is language that cannot be taken literally (or should not be taken literally only). Abrams(1993) considers personification to be related to metaphor when he writes "another figure related to metaphor is personification, or in the Greek term ,Prosopopeia, in which either an inanimate object or an abstract concept is spoken of as though it were endowed with life or with human attributes or feelings. As a figurative item, it's hard to be translated literally, there are two forms of personification translation, figurative and nonfigurative form. The figure of speech ,or trope, called hyperbole (Greek for "overshooting ") is bold statement ,or the extravagant exaggeration of fact or of possibility; it may be used either for serious or ironic or comic effect. Reaske (1966), defined *hyperbole* as "the figure of speech which employs exaggeration" (p. 34). Sometimes it is used for comic purpose but more often it used seriously. Such deliberate exaggerations in the source language text may be understood as untruths if they are translated literally. Much care must be taken to be sure that the desired effect is retained in the receptor language but that the correct meaning is also retained (Larson, 1984).

Figurative language is a kind of style language noted in a literary work which represents the other meaning of a thing. Figurative language is a picture of connotation meaning of words. We already know that every word in a literary work always has more than one itself

meaning and the writer usually uses the other meaning of thing (connotation) than the real meaning of words (denotation). Wren and Martin(1981) in their book *high school English grammar and composition* state that figurative language is “a departure from the ordinary form of expression or the ordinary course of ideas in order to produce a greater effect” (p.488). According to Scott (1967), figurative language includes “metaphor, simile, personification, and metonymy” (p. 108). Samuel and Frank (2000), speaking of figurative language, suggest other classification: metaphor, simile, personification, apostrophe, metonymy, synecdoche, hyperbole, irony, idioms, and proverbs.

Personification is one of figures of speech which render the inanimate and abstract ideas animate or human, As a figurative item, it's hard to be translated literally, There are two forms of personification translation, figurative and nonfigurative form (Asnidar, 2005). Hyperbole is exaggeration for emphasis or effect, not meant to be taken literally. The original meaning of hyperbole must be maintained in translation, even if a particular hyperbole cannot be expressed with a hyperbolic form in the target language.

2. Review of the Related Literature

To date few studies have focused on translation procedure(s),which, have been applied for translating Figurative language, personification and hyperbole. These are as follows:

Paolini (2009), attempts to answer the two research questions, they are: 1) What kinds of figurative language that are used in the dialogues of the novel entitled “Eldest” by Christopher Paolini?, and 2) What kinds of translation methods that are used in translating the figurative dialogues in the novel entitled “Eldest “. In conducting the research, the writer applied descriptive qualitative method to analyze all the selected samples in order to classify and explain them. In the novel, the writer found fourteen out of sixteen types of figurative language in 251 dialogues. Those fourteen types of figurative language found in the novel are: Idiom, Simile, Personification, Onomatopoeia, Synecdoche, Hyperbole, Imagery, Metaphor, Paradox, Irony, Metonymy, Alliteration, Symbol, and Assonance. In addition, the writer also analyzed the methods that were used by the translator in translating the figurative language. Those methods are: Communicative translation method, Literal or, Free, Word-for-word, Idiomatic, Faithful, Semantic, and Adaptation. Paolini concluded that, communicative Translation, literal and Free Translation can be the most frequent applied procedures in translating figurative language which is found in this research.

According to Asnidar (2005), Personification is one of figures of speech which renders the inanimate and abstract ideas animate or human, As a figurative item, it's hard to be translated literally, there are two forms of personification translation, figurative and nonfigurative form. This research aimed at investigating: 1) the forms of the translation, 2) the procedures used in translating SL personification into TL personification, and 3) the factors causing both equivalence and nonequivalence between SL personifications and their translation in Indonesian. One hundred and thirty six data were collected from *Le Noeud de Viperes*, a French Novel from Francois Mauriac and their translation in Indonesian from *Jalinan War Berbisa*, translated by Ida Sundari Husen. Based on form and equivalence, the findings of this research are: 1) Translation of SL personification in equivalent TL personification, 2) Translation of SL personification in nonequivalent TL personification, 3) Translation of SL personification in equivalent TL metaphor, 4) Translation of SL personification in equivalent TL simile, 5) Translation of SL personification in equivalent TL idiom, 6) Translation of SL personification in equivalent TL nonfigurative form. Based on procedure translation analysis, the findings are: 1) transposition that included: level shift (from grammar to lexis), unit, structure, class, and intra-system shift, 2) Modulation that included: free modulation, Point of view shift, and lexical field shift. Procedures play an important role in creating translation equivalence. The translation nonequivalence is caused by formal correspondence and Language esthetics factors.

Gharib (2006), intends to investigate the translation of hyperbolic expressions from Persian into English and to shed some light on the problems raised by hyperbolic expressions in translations. Therefore this study has conducted to explore: 1) if hyperbolic expressions are similar in English and Persian i.e. if an equivalent can easily be found for them 2) If there is any semantic – oriented loss concerning hyperbole in translation. In this study, “The Tragedy of Rostam and Sohrab” of the *Shahnameh* and its three accessible translation into English will be used as a means of research. The results obtained through this comparative study are as follows: a) hyperbole may not be problematic in translation of Rostam and Sohrab into English, b) hyperbolic expressions may mostly be transferable from Persian into English.

According to Gholizadeh (2010), using rhetorical devices in persuasive texts is the most effective way to persuade the audience. Translating rhetorical devices, especially hyperbole, may cause difficulty in the act of translation. Hyperbole is used frequently in media and newspapers, and therefore, the present study was conducted to see which translation strategies are more appropriate for transferring hyperbole to the TL. To this end, the

researcher collected one hundred headlines in which hyperbole was used as a rhetorical device. After studying these headlines, the researcher came up with six functions (persuasion, criticism, praise, belittlement, warning and sarcasm) for hyperbole in the news headlines. The participants, who were the graduate students of translation studies at Isfahan University, were asked to translate these headlines. The gathered data were analyzed whether the same function is transferred to the TT or not and whether hyperbole was rendered into hyperbole in TT or has been omitted by the participants. The researcher first studied the translated texts and extracted those strategies used by the participants, without using any framework in mind. However, after analyzing the data, the researcher arrived at a framework almost similar to the one proposed by Fawcett (1997). After examining the frequency of occurrence of strategies used, it was revealed that the most frequent strategy for translating hyperbole in headline is Literal Translation (73%) was the most frequent strategy but it was a risk and the translator has to use this strategy with maximum alternation. It was also revealed that Reformulation and Adaptation maybe more appropriate for translating hyperbole, for it will seem more natural in target culture and can better convey the ideological meaning of socially-oriented news headlines.

To achieve the goals of this study, the following research questions were posed:

1. Which one of procedure(s) suggested by Newmark are applied in these three translations?
2. Are there any significant differences among the frequencies of the use of each procedure in "Alice Adventures in Wonderland" translated by Hasan Honarmandi, Mohamad Taghi Bahrami, and Zoya Pirzad?

3. Methodology

3.1. Material

This is an analytic and descriptive study, and its material were extracted from different English and Persian sources. Since, the purpose of this research is to examine, translation procedure(s) of newmark (1988) which have been applied for translating personification and hyperbole by Honarmandi (1350), Bahrami Haran (1374), Pirzad (1389). And also, to find out whether there are significant differences among the frequencies of the use of each procedure in this book.

In this study the researcher applied procedure(s), which have been taken from *Approaches to Translation* of newmark (1988), and also the translation done by Pirzad (1389) is known with the name of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" in Persian, by

Honarmandi (1350) Alice in Wonderland ,while the other one has been translated into "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" by Bahrami Haran (1374) are used, in order to investigate the translations of these two figures of speech, namely hyperbole and personification according to Newmark's Procedures in these three translations. "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" is an English literary text written for children by Lewis Carroll in 1865. This is one of the children's classics that is said to have defined the course of children's literature (Hagfors, 2003). This research examines the whole book and their translations statistically.

Based on Esmali's study, this book has been translated into many languages, such as French(1869), German(1869), Italian(1872), Swedish(1870), Danish(1875), Dutch(1875), and Russian (1879). This book has been translated at least by nine different translators. These translations are as follows: H.Honarmandi (1338 and 1350), Panahi Khorasani (1371), Riahi (1372), Bahrami Haran (1374), and Z.Pirzad (1375 and 1389). As before mentioned, from among these translations, according to their availability, three translations were chosen for the purpose of this study i.e. translations by H.Honarmandi (1350), M.T. Bahrami Haran (1374), Z. Pirzad (1389). "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" has been chosen as the main source because it is a popular children's book, it is available, and there are various figures of speech in it.

3.2.Data Analysis and Procedures

This research has investigated the procedures which have been applied in mentioned translations. The researcher's aim has been comparing the frequency of each procedure and also comparing the percentage of each type which has been used in these three translations. And also is that, whether there are significant differences among the frequencies of each procedure. In conducting this research the researcher has used the following procedures:

- 1.The researcher has studied the source text (ST) of the book, and their three Persian translations, then determined these two figures of speech namely, hyperbole and personification, that may be appeared in the forms of word, phrase, and even sentence.
2. The researcher has analyzed and classified the gained data in terms of the translation procedures proposed by Newmark (1988) which have been applied for these two figures of speech.
3. The researcher has compared the metaphorical expression in ST and their equivalences in Persian translations of ST, in terms of the frequency of each procedure and has also compared the percentages of each type which have been used in these three translations.

The following examples were selected as representatives of the collected data in this study.

Personification: Carried on the breeze that followed them,(p.45)

ت. سوم: سوار بر بال نسیم که همراهشان بود،(زویا پیرزاد، فصل دهم، ص 114-115)

P1(reproducing the same image in the TL)

Personification: Carried on the breeze that followed them,(p.45)

ت. اول: و نسیم انرا با خود بازمی آورد. (محمد تقی بهرامی حران، فصل دهم، ص 121)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

Personification: His (Lobster) voice has a timid and tremulous sound.(p.44)

ت. سوم: آمد صدایش اما، صدایی از ته گور(زویا پیرزاد، فصل دهم، ص 111)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)+ Deletion(timid and

tremulous are not translated)

Hyperbole: Frowning like a thunderstorm.(p.37)

ت. اول: چهره اش مثل آسمان قیل از رگبار تیره شده. (محمد تقی بهرامی حران، فصل نهم، ص 103)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

ت. دوم: و مانند آسمانی توفانی تهدید می کند. (دکتر حسن هنرمندی، فصل نهم، ص 133)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

ت. سوم: عین برج زهرمار (زویا پیرزاد، فصل نهم، ص 98)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

Hyperbole: And burning with curiosity,(p.1)

ت. اول: چون خیلی کنجکاو شده بود. (محمد تقی بهرامی حران، فصل اول، ص 13)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

ت. دوم: آلیس که از شدت کنجکاو می سوخت،(دکتر حسن هنرمندی، فصل اول، ص 18)

P1(reproducing the same image in the TL)

ت. سوم: ملتهب از کنجکاو (زویا پیرزاد، فصل اول، ص 8)

P2(replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image)

4.Result and Discussion

In this section, the research questions presented in this article are dealt with one by one. Each question will be answered based on the findings of the study. The first research question asked which one of procedure(s) suggested by newmark are applied in these three translations? The findings of the study indicated that P1, P2, P6 were procedures which have been applied for translation of these two figures of speech . The second research question asked whether there are any significant difference among the frequencies of the use of each procedure in "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" translated by Honarmandi, Bahrami, and Pirzad? The result is positive. According to table 7 &8, P1 is the most frequently applied procedure which has been used for translating these two figures of speech in these three mentioned translation.

Table 1 Frequency and percentage of procedures applied by Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran in translation of personification

Newmark procedures	Procedure	frequency	percentage
	Reproducing the same image in the TL	16	0.696
	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	7	0.304
	Translation of metaphor by simile ,retaining the image	0	
	Translation of metaphor by simile plus sense	0	
	Conversion of metaphore to sense	0	
	Deletion	0	
	Translation of metaphore by the same metaphore pluse sense	0	
	Total	23	

Table 1 indicates the procedures applied by Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran in translating the twenty-three personification identified in this study and their frequency of occurrence, along with the corresponding percentages are shown. As evident in this table, Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran in his translation, have been applied *reproducing the same image in the TL and replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image* for translating personification. The most frequently applied procedure in his translation was the *reproduction of the same image in the TL* about (0.696%). The translation of the "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" produced by Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran is a semantic translation, which clearly proves the reason as to why their most frequently applied procedure is the one mentioned above. "A semantic translation attempts to recreate the precise flavor and tone of the original: the words are 'sacred', not because they are more important than the content, but because form and content are one" (Newmark, 1988, p.47).

Table 2 Frequency and percentage of procedures applied by Hasan Honarmandi in translation of personification

Newmark procedures	Procedure	frequency	percentage
	Reproducing the same image in the TL	14	0.583
	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	9	0.391
	Translation of metaphor by simile ,retaining the image	0	
	Translation of metaphor by simile plus sense	0	
	Conversion of metaphore to sense	0	
	Deletion	0	
	Translation of metaphore by the same metaphore pluse sense	0	
	Total	23	

Table 2 indicates the procedures applied by Hassan Honarmandi in translating the twenty-three personification identified in this study and their frequency of occurrence, along with the corresponding percentages are shown. As evident in this table, Hassan Honarmandi have been applied *Reproducing the same image in the TL and Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image* for translating personification. The most frequently applied procedure in their translations was the *reproduction of the same image in the TL* about(0.583%). The translation of the "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*" produced by Hassan Honarmandi is a semantic translation, which clearly proves the reason as to why their most frequently applied procedure is the one mentioned above. "A semantic translation attempts to recreate the precise flavor and tone of the original: the words are 'sacred', not because they are more important than the content, but because form and content are one" (Newmark, 1988, p.47).

Table 3 *Frequency and percentage of procedures applied by Zoya Pirzad in translation of personification*

	Procedure	frequency	percentage
Newmark procedures	Reproducing the same image in the TL	15	0.625
	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	8	0.333
	Translation of metaphor by simile ,retaining the image	0	
	Translation of metaphor by simile plus sense	0	
	Conversion of metaphore to sense	0	
	Deletion	1	0.042
	Translation of metaphore by the same metaphore pluse sense	0	
	Total	24	

Table 3 indicates the procedures applied by Zoya Pirzad in translating the twenty-tree personification identified in this study and their frequency of occurrence, along with the corresponding percentages are shown. As evident in this table, Zoya Pirzad have been applied *Reproducing the same image in the TL, Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image and Deletion* for translating personification. The most frequently applied procedure in her translation was the *reproduction of the same image in the TL* about (0.625%). The translation of the "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*" produced by Zoya Pirzad is a semantic translation, which clearly proves the reason as to why their most frequently applied procedure is the one mentioned above. "A semantic translation attempts to recreate the precise flavor and tone of the original: the words are 'sacred', not because they are more important than the content, but because form and content are one"

(Newmark, 1988, p.47). In this table, the total number is Twenty -Four, because there is one hyperbole which have been used both procedures such as P2+Deletion for translation.

Table 4 *Frequency and percentage of procedures applied by Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran in translation of hyperbole*

Newmark procedures	Procedure	frequency	percentage
	Reproducing the same image in the TL	20	0.714
	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	8	0.286
	Translation of metaphor by simile ,retaining the image	0	
	Translation of metaphor by simile plus sense	0	
	Conversion of metaphore to sense	0	
	Deletion	0	
	Translation of metaphore by the same metaphore pluse sense	0	
	Total	28	

Table 4 indicates the procedures applied by Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran in translating the twenty-eight hyperboles identified in this study and their frequency of occurrence, along with the corresponding percentages are shown. As evident in this table, Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran in his translation, have been applied *Reproducing the same image in the TL*, *Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image* for translating Hyperbole. The most frequently applied procedure in his translation was the *reproduction of the same image in the TL about (0.714%)*. The translation of the "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*" produced by Mohammad Taghi Bahrami Haran is a semantic translation, which clearly proves the reason as to why their most frequently applied procedure is the one mentioned above. "A semantic translation attempts to recreate the precise flavor and tone of the original: the words are 'sacred', not because they are more important than the content, but because form and content are one" (Newmark, 1988, p.47).

Table 5 *Frequency and percentage of procedures applied by Hassan Honarmandi in translation of hyperbole*

Newmark procedures	Procedure	frequency	percentage
	Reproducing the same image in the TL	18	0.62
	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	10	0.344
	Translation of metaphor by simile ,retaining the image	0	
	Translation of metaphor by simile plus sense	0	
	Conversion of metaphore to sense	0	
	Deletion	2	0.069

	Translation of metaphore by the same metaphore pluse sense	0	
	Total	29	

Table 5 indicates the procedures applied by Hassan Honarmandi in translating the twenty-eight hyperbole identified in this study and their frequency of occurrence, along with the corresponding percentages are shown. As evident in this table, Hassan Honarmandi in his translation, have been applied *Reproducing the same image in the TL*, *Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image*, *Deletion* for translating Hyperbole. In this study, there are Two hyperbole, which have been used *Reproducing the same image in the TL*, *Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image*, as well as *Deletion* for translating them . Namely, *P1+Deletion* and *P2+Deletion* have been used equally about (0.034%). The most frequently applied procedure in his translation was the *reproduction of the same image in the TL* about (0.62%). The translation of the "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*" produced by Hassan Honarmandi is a semantic translation, which clearly proves the reason as to why their most frequently applied procedure is the one mentioned above. "A semantic translation attempts to recreate the precise flavor and tone of the original: the words are 'sacred', not because they are more important than the content, but because form and content are one" (Newmark, 1988, p.47). In this table, the Total number is Twenty- Nine, because there are two hyperboles, which have been used both procedures such as P1,P2 as well as *Deletion* for translating.

Table 6 *Frequency and percentage of procedures applied by Zoya Pirzad in translation of hyperbole*

Newmark procedures	Procedure	frequency	percentage
	Reproducing the same image in the TL	15	0.536
	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	12	0.387
	Translation of metaphor by simile ,retaining the image	0	
	Translation of metaphor by simile plus sense	0	
	Conversion of metaphore to sense	0	
	Deletion	1	0.035
	Translation of metaphore by the same metaphore pluse sense	0	
		28	

Table 6 indicates the procedures applied by Zoya Pirzad in translating the twenty-eight hyperboles identified in this study and their frequency of occurrence , along with the corresponding percentages are shown. As evident in this table, Zoya Pirzad in her translation, have been applied *Reproducing the same image in the TL*, *Replacing the image in the SL with*

a standard TL image, Deletion for translating Hyperbole. In this study, there is one hyperbole, which have been used Reproducing the same image in the TL, as well as Deletion for translating it. Namely, *P1+Deletion* about (0.035%). The most frequently applied procedure in her translation was the Reproducing the same image in the TL about (0.536%). The translation of the "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" produced by Zoya Pirzad is focused on the communicative rendering to TL readers". This translator has been used this procedure in order to transferring simple language, expressive prose and without redundancy.

Table 7 Percentage of the procedures applied by translators in translation of personification

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	total
M.T,Bahrami	0.696	0.304						
H.Honarmandi	0.583	0.391						
Z.Pirzad	0.625	0.333				0.042		

Table 8Percentage of the procedures applied by translators in translation of hyperbole

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	total
M.T,Bahrami	0.714	0.286						
H.Honarmandi	0.62	0.344				0.069		
Z.Pirzad	0.536	0.387				0.035		

The tables 7 and 8 compares the three translations in terms of the percentage of procedures applied. P1 through P7 are the seven translation procedures involved in this study. The findings of table 7 indicates that , P1 about (0.696%) is the most frequently applied procedure and P6 with (0.042%) is the least applied procedure which have been used for translating personification in these three mentioned translations. And ,the findings of table 8 indicates that ,P1 with (0.714%) is the most frequently applied procedure and P6 about (0.035%) is the least applied procedure which have been used for translating hyperbole in these three mentioned translations.

5. Conclusions

This study investigated personification and hyperbole in translations of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland". To meet this goal ,three translations of this book are investigated. Since , the purpose of study is to examine the procedures which have been applied in these three translations ,so the researcher attempts to analyze personification and hyperbole concerning the type and the frequency of procedure(s) which have been used for each of them in the mentioned translations of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland " , in order to identify the

procedure(s) which have been used more in translating these two figures of speech from English to Persian language. In sum, the findings of table 7 indicates that, P1 about (0.696 %) is the most frequently applied procedure and P6 about (0.042) is the least applied procedure which have been used for translating personification in these three mentioned translations. And, the findings of table 8 indicates that, P1 about (0.714 %) is the most frequently applied procedure and P6 about (0.035 %) is the least applied procedure which have been used for translating hyperbole in these three mentioned translations.

The findings of this study provide some views on personification and hyperbole about the procedure(s) which have been used for them and give ideas to translators how to translate these two figures of speech. Based on current findings, some implications are made:

Firstly, based on the findings of this study, translation of personification and hyperbole will be used for amateur translators and student English translation in improving their translations skills especially in translating personification and hyperbole which is usually exist in poetry and prose. Secondly, since students are not familiar with these two figures of speech, and the ways which is used for translation of them, translators should open a door for students to gain knowledge of them. Finally, this paper suggests translators and English teachers to make familiar thoroughly with diverse ways for translation of these two figures of speech.

The present study investigated the issues of hyperbole and personification in three translations of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland". Other interested readers and researchers can study other figures of speech in "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland". Then, by analyzing the figures of speech, the researchers can draw new conclusions. Furthermore, another study can be conducted on the translation of hyperbole and personification in other kinds of texts such as prose and verse and then the findings can be compared with those in this study. Due to the limitations, the present researcher tried to answer the research questions, using a comparative approach. In this study, the translation procedures of personification and hyperbole in three translations of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" was explored. Further studies can explore the translation of these two figures of speech in other translations of this book, in order to compare the results with those found in this research.

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Title

The Study of Problems and Strategies used in Persian-English Public Signs Translation

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Abstract

As an important part of global communication, public signs are closely related to people's daily life. It is highly necessary to find the most proper theory and effective principles and strategies for the translation of public signs. This study concentrates on issues relating to Persian public signs at tourist attractions and their translation into English. The researcher paid a visit to the major historical and cultural sites of two cities of Iran, Shiraz and Isfahan, collected some bilingual public signs and then within the framework of Skopos theory (Vermeer, 1986), an attempt was made to analyze different types of translation errors from the perspective of language and culture. A categorization was made of four types of translation errors prevalent in English translation of public signs by drawing on Nord's translation errors (2001). Based on Skopos theory (Vermeer, 1986), the research came up with the strategies used for translation of Persian-English public signs, namely, A-B-C approach (adapt-borrow-create approach). The study concludes that the unique nature of public signs in tourist attractions suggests a need for further investigation of language styles used in such signs in both languages and the most appropriate strategies for the translation

of public signs. Finally, the present study calls on translators and related government departments to attempt harder in order to have an accurate Persian-English translation of public signs.

Keywords: Public Sign, Public Sign Translation, Skopos Theory, Nord's Translation Errors

1. Introduction

Language plays an important role in human communication. A sign is something that suggests the presence of a fact, condition or quality. According to Soukhanov (1999), public sign is a sign in a public place giving information, instruction or a warning. Longman (2008) defines a sign as a piece of paper, metal, etc., in a public place, with words or drawing on it that gives people information, warn them not to do something, etc. The main objective of using bilingual public signs is to allow the foreigners, such as visitors to understand the translated texts and make communication more convenient for them. It is of much significance to standardize translating public signs in order to enhance the cultural environment of one country and strengthen the communication with the other countries around the world. Skopos theory (Vermeer, 1986) brings the target text into focus, which provides us with a translation theory for translating public signs into English. The word "Skopos" comes from Greek, meaning purpose, motive and function. The word "Skopos", then, is a technical term for aim or purpose of a translation (Venuti, 2008). This theory was developed in Germany in the late 1970s. Since it reflects a general shift from linguistic and formal translation theories to a more functionally and socio – culturally oriented concept of translation, it has been welcomed as an addition to translation studies (Baorong, 2009).

Despite the great importance of public signs and the effects of their translation on the perceptions of the foreign visitors, no one has investigated whether the public signs in the two historical cities of Iran, namely Shiraz and Isfahan, which are frequently visited by tours from non-Persian speaking countries, are translated on the basis of the Skopos rules of translation. Moreover, it is not yet known what types of errors exist in the translation of such public signs in the above mentioned cities.

1.2. Public Signs in the Light of Translation Errors

Nord (2001) classifies the translation problems more systematically into consideration. He believes that if the purpose of translation is to fulfill the function which serves the readers, anything which may hinder the translation purpose, including the translation methods and

translation results can be considered to be translation error. Translation error in Skopos theory contains four types known as *pragmatic translation errors*, *cultural translation errors*, *linguistic translation errors* and *text specific translation errors*.

Pragmatic translation errors which arise from the difference between source text and target text situations can be identified by checking the extra-textual factors (sender, receiver, medium, time, place, motive and text function). As Baorong (2009) noted, the obvious reason for pragmatic errors is that the translators fail to distinguish ST audiences from TT audiences with different culture-specific world knowledge, expectations and communicative needs.

Cultural translation errors are related to the question of whether or not source-culture conventions should be adapted to target-culture standards. Cultural translation errors are due to the translators' inadequate decision with regard to reproduction or adaptation of culture-specific conventions (Nord, 2001).

Linguistic translation errors are caused by "an inadequate translation when the focus is on language structures" (Nord, 2001, p.75). Ricki (2011) argues that linguistic translation errors such as wrong spelling or wrong grammar or wrong words appear more frequently and easily. Most of these errors are because of the translators' poor education.

Text-specific translation errors arise from text-specific translation problems and can usually be evaluated from a functional or pragmatic perspective (Nord, 2001). In the translation of public signs, if the updating of the translation goes behind the original version or translators add and modify some unnecessary words, it could be called text-specific translation errors. He believed that the text-specific translation errors do not refer to the language mistakes. They can refer to the translation which cannot show the purpose in a shorter and clearer way.

To sum up, four types of translation errors can be identified in the process of translation on the basis of Nord's classification. In accordance with what was mentioned by Baorong (2009), generally speaking, the underlying cause for pragmatic, cultural and text-specific translation errors is that the translator is not fully aware of the TT's Skopos and/or the target readers and thus fails to produce a functionally appropriate translation. As for linguistic translation errors, the blame certainly lies with the translators who need to improve their bilingual abilities and ethical standards.

1.3. Translation Methods and Strategies of Public Signs

As for the Skopos rule, the intended purpose of the target text determines translation methods and strategies (Hua, 2007). Ko (2010) explained that the translation of public signs can be considered a special domain that requires appropriate strategies to convey the information

from the source language to the target language effectively. He investigated the translation of 162 public signs in different places of tourist interest. Of 162 samples of public signs, 42 or 25.9 percent fall into this category and three approaches were employed in translation of public signs: *Literal translation, Semi-literal and semi-adaptive translation, Free translation*. Ko (2010) concluded that literal translation is the preferred strategy in public signs translation. Besides, he pointed out that further investigation in a number of areas is needed before one can determine which strategy or strategies are more appropriate for translating public signs.

Following the Skopos theory, Zhi (2009) classified public signs, compared Chinese and English signs and came up with the A-B-C approach (Adapt-Borrow-Create approach) as a well-tested principle for the translation of public signs. He expressed that if the similar signs exist in English speaking countries, one should adapt the original ones. If the corresponding English equivalents can be consulted, then it is better to directly borrow them. He explained that the borrowed approach is highly practical and realistic in sign translation. Based on this approach, the conventional expressions of English signs could be borrowed so that they sound familiar and acceptable to the foreigners. He finally concluded that, while performing the translation of signs with Chinese characteristics, we tend to adapt create approach. That is, translators should do the creative work when there are no conventional expressions to borrow or similar expressions to adapt from English sign language.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Ko (2010) concentrated on issues relating to Chinese public signs at tourist attractions and their translation into English. He indicated that three translation strategies are employed in translating public signs – i.e. literal translation, semi-literal and semi-adaptive translation and free adaptation- and the literal translation is the most common strategy.

Hua (2007) in his paper discussed the C-E translation of public signs from the point of Skopos theory. He also analyzed public signs by using the important rules of Skopos theory- Skopos rule, coherence rule, fidelity rule and loyalty rule- in order to reduce unnecessary errors in translation of Chinese public signs. King and Zhang (2008) tried to analyze the characteristics and functions of public signs and the linguistic features of English public sign expressions. Lili (2010) focused on several aspects of the translation of public signs from the perspective of cross-cultural communication. It discussed the existing problems and possible causes in Chinese-English translation of public signs and offers some suggestions to establish

standard translation of public signs. Ricki (2011) elaborated on the translation of public signs in Guangzhou from the view of the Skopos theory with an attempt to summarize some normative methods from the mistakes found and collected in his paper.

3. Method

The main objective of the present study is to study the translation of public signs in Iranian cities in terms of strategies, errors, and perceptions of Iranians and non-Iranians (English speakers). More specifically the following research questions are raised:

1. What are the main errors in public signs translation?
2. Is there any significant difference between Iranian and English speakers' views of public sign translations?
3. What strategies are used in the translation of Persian-English public signs of tourist interest?

This study was carried out in different stages. At first, 187 instances of public signs and their equivalents which were most frequently used in places of tourist interest in Shiraz and Isfahan were selected. Then, the public signs which seemed to be more problematic were selected. The main types of translation errors and strategies used to translate public signs were identified, descriptively. Next, the questionnaire consisting of 20 public signs both in English and Persian was developed and given to all participants. Then, the participants' responses to all items were added and one final rating for each participant was obtained. Finally, the ratings of Iranian and English speaker participants were compared, using appropriate statistical approaches.

4. Results and Discussion

The first question of the study was to determine the main errors in public signs translation. To answer the first question, twenty instances of main errors in public signs were detected and then classified according to Nord's classification of translation errors. The results as well as a few instances of the errors are shown in the in the following tables

Table 1 *Typology of sign translation errors*

Total	Text-specific errors	Cultural errors	Pragmatic errors	Linguistic errors	
60	3	6	18	33	Frequency
100	5%	10%	30%	55%	Percentage

As can be seen in Table 1, among the public sign translations in different places of tourist interest in Shiraz and Isfahan, 60 instances of public signs were selected. The results indicate that 55% of the errors belong to linguistics category. 30% of the errors are pragmatic, 10% are cultural, and 5% are text-specific. It can be inferred from the results that linguistic translation errors were detected more frequently in the existing public signs translation (55%).

The second objective of the study was to investigate whether there was a significant difference between the perceptions of Iranian and English speakers on the accuracy of public signs translation used at places of tourist interests. In doing so, a questionnaire consisting of twenty samples of existing public signs translation in different places of cultural and historical tourist interest was given to both Iranian translation students and English speaker tourists. The final data and their analysis are shown here in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics for Iranian and English speakers' view of Public sign translation

GROUPS	Frequency	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Iranian translation students	50	50.2400	13.63131	1.92776
Tourists	50	60.5200	21.52003	3.04339

As in Table 2 tourists and Iranian translation students have different means. That is, the mean of Iranian participants of the translation inventory was 50.24 and the standard deviation was 13.63 whereas the mean score of English speaking tourists is 60 and the standard deviation is 21. In order to show whether the means of these two groups are significantly different or not, an independent sample t-test was run. The results are shown in the following table.

Table 3 T-test for comparing the Means of the Two Groups

	Levene's Test		t-test for Equality of Means			
	Sig.	F	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	.12	16.733	-2.104	98	.008	-7.5800
Equal variances not assumed			-2.104	82.868	.038	-7.5800

In the above table, the results of the Levene's test show that the variances of the groups are equal (sig= 0.12). Therefore, the assumption of the t-test, equality of variances, is not violated and we are on the safer ground to report the values of the t-test in the first row. As the results in the above table show, there is a significant difference between the means of the groups.

(DF=82 and sig. =0.03). So, the null hypothesis which indicates that there is no significant difference between Iranian and tourists' perceptions of the public signs translation is safely rejected at p value of less than .05.

The third question of the study aimed at investigating the strategies used in translation of Persian-English public signs in places of tourist interest. In doing so, the existing translations of public signs in different places of tourist interest at two cities of Iran were analyzed descriptively. The frequency of each translation strategy was tallied and counted. The results are shown in the following table.

Table 4 *Frequency of public sign translation strategies*

Percentage	Frequency	Approach
74.2%	132	Adaptive
10%	18	Borrow
15.8%	28	Creative
100%	178	Total

As can be seen in the above table, the frequency of the use of adaptive approach was 132. That is, it was used in approximately 74% of the public signs translations. The next frequently used strategy was Creative. About 28 cases were reported, in other words, this strategy was used in about 15.8% of public signs translations. The next frequently used strategy was Borrow. The results show that this strategy was used in 10% of public signs translations.

The main objectives of the present study were to investigate the errors in public signs translation, to make a comparison between Iranian students of English translation and English speaker tourists, and to study the most frequently used strategies in public signs translations. To do so, at first several instances of public sign translations were studied descriptively and the errors were classified on the basis of Nord's classification. The errors were assigned to each category. Descriptive statistics show that 60 out of 187 public signs were erroneous. The results also indicated that 55% of the errors were linguistic, 30% were pragmatic, 10% were cultural, and 5% were text-specific errors. The results of the present study indicated that linguistic errors were dominant. It seems that linguistic errors lead to a great incomprehensibility of the translations. Therefore, tourists may not understand the purpose of the public signs. This is certainly against Skopos theory. It could also be argued that the occurrence of such errors is due to wrong spelling, wrong grammar or wrong dictions. This is because the translators are poorly educated or careless.

The second objective of this study was to compare the perceptions of Iranians' and English speaking tourists' views about the comprehensibility and accuracy of the public signs translations. The results show that there is a significant difference between the standard deviation in both groups. The descriptive statistics showed that there is a significant difference between the means of two groups ($\text{sig}=.008$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and it could be argued that the perception of Iranian language translators is significantly different from those of tourists. As the mean of Iranian English translators was 60 and English speaking tourists was 50, it could be strongly argued that Iranian English translators had a better understanding. To them, public signs translations were more comprehensible and accurate, while English tourists do not have the same perceptions of public signs translations. Such a difference may be deeply rooted in the cultural and historical perceptions of public signs.

In terms of the strategies used in the translations of public signs, the results of the present study indicated that the main strategies were adapt, borrow, and create. The descriptive statistics in Table 3 show that among 178 public signs, about 74.2% of the instances were translated using adaptive approach. 15.8% used creative approach, and only 10% used borrow approach. Therefore, adaptive strategy is most frequently used by Iranian translators while translating public signs. It seems that there are not any differences between strategies which are used by Iranians and foreigners; therefore it could be concluded that translation problems are not rooted in the strategies used and it may have other reasons such as linguistic differences, cultural differences, etc which need more investigations.

5. Conclusion

Based on the framework of Skopos theory and the findings of this study the following points could be made:

- The main errors in public signs translation are linguistic errors, pragmatic errors, cultural errors and text-specific errors.
- Linguistic errors are the dominant errors which are found in translation of public signs.
- There is a difference between Iranians' and English speaker tourists' perception of comprehensibility and accuracy of public signs.
- The mean scores of tourists were smaller than that of Iranian students.

- It seems that familiarity with the topics and cultures and historical places of Shiraz and Isfahan hide the inaccuracy of existing errors in students' view.
- The main strategies used in the translation of public signs are A-B-C (adaptive-borrow-creative) approach. Adaptive is the most frequently used strategy.
- Like the other countries, some of public signs translations are not standardized.
- A great revision in the public sign translation is needed in order to avoid misunderstanding, etc.

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