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Iranian EFL Journal

Foreword

Welcome to volume ten and the second edition of 2014. We are happy to announce that our readership is increasing daily. For a journal examining the topics of EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies, the growth and readership has been pleasing. Our bi-monthly Journal has attracted many readers not only from the Middle East but also from different parts of the world. In this edition, we have presented thirty articles, discussing different issues of EFL/ESL, literature and translation studies. In the first article of the issue, Maliheh Konarizadeh, Farzin Fahimniya and Ali Asghar Eftekhary, present an article entitled The Effect of Teaching Lexical Cohesive Devices through Short Stories on Reading Comprehension among Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners. In the second article of the issue, Seyed Mahdi Araghi and Fereshteh Asadzadian, have studied The Impact of Teacher Feedback on the Accuracy of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners: Cohesive Devices in Focus. In the third article of the issue, Saeed Khojasteh Nam, Nasser Fallah and Amir Shahraki present an article entitled, The Relationship between Trilingualism and Attention Span: the Case of Iranian Trilinguals. In the next article, Investigating the Impact of Emotional Intelligence in ESP Reading Comprehension Test Performance is presented by Mostafa Khorsandi and Leila Mahd Qarabagh. In the fifth article of the issue, Zahra Masoumpanah, Mohammad Reza Talebinezhad and Sadegh Shariatifar present English as an International Language in Iran and Teachers' Competence. The next article which is Iranian EFL Learners' Attitudes towards CALL is done by Salma Parhizgar. In the seventh article of the issue, Angineh Sarkisian, Zahra Amirian and Akbar Hesabi have studied A Contrastive Study of Translation Strategies across Literary and Philosophical Genres. In the eight article of the issue A Comparative Study of Cohesive Devices in Reading Comprehension Texts by TEFL and Translation Students is done by Abdolreza Pazhakh, Elkhas Veisi and Mohammadyar-e-Raeesi. In the next article, The Study of Translation Strategies of English Idioms in Children's Literary Books is studied by Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh, Navid Rahmani and Mahdie Askarpour. In the tenth article of the issue, Seyyed Reza Seyyedi Noghabi and Farrokhlagh Heidari have studied The Cross-sectional Study of Iranian EFL Teachers' Burnout and their Teaching Styles Preferences: Relationship in Focus.

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

Title

The Effect of Teaching Lexical Cohesive Devices through Short Stories on Reading Comprehension among Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Biodata

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Abstract

The present study was designed to investigate the influence of lexical cohesion instruction on reading comprehension of intermediate EFL learners through teaching short stories. First, 28 learners taking conversational classes, Interchange 3, were selected. Then, a Colchester Placement Test was run. Among them, 20

intermediate learners were remained as participants. Two classes, each contained 10 students, were determined as experimental and control groups. Since two classes were not selected randomly, this study is a form of quasi-experimental research. A validated (FCE) test (2001) was administered as pretest for both groups. After that, the researchers taught an intermediate short story to experimental group by focusing on teaching lexical cohesion (synonym, antonym, repetition and collocation), the control group, however, was taught by asking them to read the very short story and then being asked comprehension questions afterwards. After 12 session treatment, a validated (FCE) posttest (2001) was given to both groups. Then, the collected data from both groups were computed and analyzed via descriptive and inferential statistics, i. e. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test and Mann-Whitney test. Finally, the data analysis results revealed that the experimental group performed better in comparison to control group; thus it is concluded that lexical cohesive devices instruction has a significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners.

Keywords: Lexical cohesive devices, Short story, Reading comprehension, Intermediate EFL learners

1. Introduction

One of the skills that should be taught when one is learning a foreign language is reading. Among the four language skills, reading is considered to be the skill that is receptive like listening (Chastain, 1988). Reading comprehension has been a key skill in learning a language through many years. Thus, it has become a challenge both to teachers and learners because it is such a complex process that is combined of many specific abilities. According to Brown (2001), reading is also an interactive process of communication. The interaction between the writer and the reader is made possible via the text. It is through the text that the writer encodes his message, and it is also through the text that the reader gets the meaning of the message by decoding it.

Reading comprehension, as a fundamental language skill, requires a complex acquisition process which can account for the way that learners comprehend what they read. Many researchers and educators have made untiring attempts to find more efficient ways of enabling the learners to become more proficient readers. However, it is necessary to point out

here that reading is not simply a linguistic decoding; rather, it is the comprehension of the text's meaning. (Ghasemi and Hajizadeh, 2011).

When learners read a text, their main goal is to comprehend its meaning. Traditionally, reading was seen as a receptive skill and the readers were passive recipients, but in fact, reading is a process of interaction between the text and the reader. Barnett (1989) as cited in Al-Farra (2011) states "The reader interacts with the text to create meaning as the reader's mental processes interact with each other at different levels (e.g. letter, lexical, syntactic, or semantic) to make the text meaningful".

Additionally, reading comprehension ability needs some important requirements that depend on the reader or the learner such as lexis and cohesive devices knowledge. With these two aspects and others, the learner can interact with reading comprehension texts effectively.

Nuttall (1996) mentions that syntax in terms of "long sentences and difficult [grammar] can block comprehension even when vocabulary is familiar". He warns that insufficient knowledge of cohesive devices such as referring pronouns, conjunctions, substitutions, and ellipsis can significantly decrease comprehension levels.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that cohesion is part of the system of a language. The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources of reference, ellipsis and so on that is built into the language itself. The actualization of cohesion in any given instance, however, depends not merely on the selection of some option from within these resources, but also on the presence of some other element which resolves the presupposition that this set up.

Furthermore, the meaning of cohesion (Halliday 1994, p.170) refers to the sources within language that provide continuity in a text, above and over that is provided by clause structures and clause complexes. Therefore, cohesive relations are non-structural relations which help the text to be understood together.

Moreover, lexical cohesion refers to the relationship between or among word in a text. It is concerned with the content words and primarily related to that field. The field is discovered through the content words within a text. This field tends to have specialized vocabularies and tend to engage in specialized activities.

The present study investigates the impact of teaching lexical cohesive devices through short story on reading comprehension of intermediate EFL learners. It is suggested that students' reading comprehension could improve if they can identify lexical cohesive devices, understand their meanings, and recognize the function they have in making the semantic relations that exist in written texts.

Since the study endeavors to investigate whether teaching lexical cohesive devices affect reading comprehension of EFL learners, the research question and hypothesis are as follow:

Q1. Does teaching lexical cohesive devices through short stories affect reading comprehension of EFL learners?

H01. Teaching lexical cohesive devices through short stories has no effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners.

2. Review of the Related Literature

The concept of cohesion is central to the present research. Thus, it is essential to clearly define it here. It represents how words, constituents, and ideas conveyed in a text are connected on particular levels of language, discourse and world knowledge. Cohesion is related to the connections which are grounded in explicit linguistic elements (i.e. words, features, cues, signals, constituents) and their combinations (McNamara, *et al.* 2005).

According to most models of cohesion in English, cohesive items play an important role in perceiving texts as unified and meaningful. These models attempt to account for the explicit linguistic devices used in texts to signal relations between sentences (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) cite five types of cohesive ties:

1. Reference (i.e. the indication of information from elsewhere such as personals, demonstratives and comparatives.)

2. Substitution (i.e. the replacement of one component by another.)

3. Ellipsis (i.e. the omission of a component.)

4. Conjunction (i.e. the indication of specific meaning which presupposes present items in the discourse such as additive, adversative, casual, and temporal.)

5. Lexical cohesion (i.e. the repetition of the same or relative lexical items.)

Wu (2010) states lexical cohesion is the most advanced cohesive means and thus the most difficult one to grasp. Halliday and Hasan (1976) state:

> Lexical cohesion is a cover term for the cohesion that results from the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or other typically associated with one another. When two or more lexical items within a sentence or across sentence boundaries are combined together the cohesive effect of lexical cohesion is achieved.

2.1 Cohesion vs. coherence

An awareness of cohesion and coherence in all texts is a very important skill for students to develop. Therefore, it is essential to provide cohesion and coherence elaboration and their distinction.Cohesion can be thought of as all the grammatical and lexical links that link one part of a text to another. This includes the use of synonyms, lexical sets, pronouns, verb tenses, time references, grammatical reference, etc. For example, 'it', 'neither' and 'this' all refer to an idea previously mentioned. 'First of all', 'then' and 'after that' help sequence a text. 'However', 'in addition' and 'for instance' link ideas and arguments in a text (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Coherence has to be clearly distinguished from cohesion. Cohesion refers to the overt semantic relations in the text, whereas coherence refers to semantic and pragmatic relations between text parts which are interpretable against the background of specific world knowledge (Beaugrande& Dressler 1981, Enkvist 1990).

Coherence can be thought of as how meanings and sequences of ideas relate to each other. Typical examples would be general> particular; statement> example; problem> solution; question> answer; claim> counter-claim.

2.2 Lexical Cohesion and Text

Brown & Yule (1983) focus on the relationship between cohesion and text, and indicate that lexical cohesion is not always necessary for text to produce semantic relations between sentences, as in the following example:

A: There's the doorbell.

B: I'm in the bath.

These sentences have no lexical cohesion, but readers will understand that the sequence of sentences constitutes a text. This means that text can exist without lexical cohesion, though lexical cohesion cannot exist without text. Brown & Yule (1983) explain this case as follows:

> [T]he reader may indeed use some of the formal expressions of cohesive relationships present in the sentences, but he is more likely to try to build a coherent picture of the series of events being described and fit the events together, rather than work with the verbal connections alone.(Brown & Yule 1983, p. 197)

Moreover, an example of the inadequacy of cohesive ties between sentences has to be considered. Brown & Yule's quotation from Enkvist (1978) is shown here:

> I bought a Ford. A car in which President Wilson rode down the Champs Elysées was black. Black English has been widely discussed. The discussions between the presidents ended last week. A week has seven days. Every day I feed my cat. Cats have four legs. The cat is on the mat. Mat has three letters. (Enkvist 1978, p. 197)

Even though this text has lexical cohesion, it cannot be called a coherent text. This means that a text including lexical cohesion cannot always produce coherence. Here, the text fails to deliver any message to the reader. As Brown & Yule (1983) advocate, cohesive ties do not always lead readers to a coherent interpretation of what they have read. Namely, it is significant to teach L2 learners how to understand the coherence of a text when reading/writing. Cohesion is neither necessary nor sufficient to create coherence, though most discourse includes cohesion. It is necessary to recognize that "cohesion is a manifestation of certain aspects of coherence, and a pointer towards it, rather than its cause or necessary result" (Cook 1994, p. 34). That is, cohesive ties have to be considered as a "manifestation of how we are making sense of the message in the text" (Carter & McCarthy 1988, p. 204). This means that it is necessary to understand cohesive ties semantically, as well as grammatically. Hence, it can be considered that knowledge of lexical cohesion might help L2 learners understand discourse.

2.3 Text selection for reading class

Selecting texts for a reading classroom is of highly importance. By considering the authorities' opinions on the text choice, the researchers will present the reason for choosing short story in the current study.

Even if the teachers have little control over the choice of text books, being aware of their strong points and limitations can be helpful so that they can exploit them effectively in the classroom. According to Nuttall (1996) there are three main criteria that influence the choice of texts:

(1) Suitability of content: interesting content makes the learners' task far more rewarding and enjoyable texts also make class work more effective. Teachers need texts that interest most of the students and do not bore the others. In addition to being interesting, the classroom texts at least should be the kind of material student can handle after they leave the foreign language class. It is often better to begin on material chosen chiefly for enjoyment, until reading skills improve.

(2) Exploitability: exploitability that is "facilitation of learning" is arguably the most important criterion after interest. When teachers exploit a text, they make use of it to develop the students' competence as readers. A text which cannot be exploited is no use for teaching even if the students enjoy reading it. Furthermore, most texts for classroom use need to be short because of time constraints, and because intensive work on a long text can become tedious.

*(3) **Readability:*** it refers to the combination of structural and lexical difficulty. Since the language of a text may be difficult for one student and easy for another, it is necessary to assess the right level for the students; to do this, teachers must first assess the level of the students themselves.

Leykin and Tuceryan(2004) state that one of the conditions to regard any text as a readable one is that this text should contain information that can be applied in the environment where the reader lives. Additionally, this text should be of an interest for the reader to read it lovingly and interestingly and, thus the reader can understand what he is reading continuously.

Michael *et al.* (2003) say that to consider the text as a readable one, it should contain information that has some relation to the background information and previous knowledge in the reader's mind. This previous knowledge may refer to background social, political, economic, cultural and linguistic knowledge.

2.4 Short story

The researchers selected short story as text for convincing reasons, because the learners in the present study are mostly teenagers and short story could be a good choice for them.

Generally, the issue of text selection is a very significant one in teaching a foreign language. Ghasemi and Hajizade (2011) state that short story as a multi-dimensional literary genre can be profitably used in the acquisition of various language skills. The short story's distinctive features, i.e. its brevity, modernity, and variety make it appealing and interesting to language learners and a value source for the improvement of L2 reading comprehension.

In addition, young children love having stories told to them; and older ones begin to read for themselves. Moreover stories in contrast to pictures or even games are pure language: telling a story in the foreign language is one of the simplest and richest sources of foreign language input for younger learners (Ur, 1996).

Furthermore, short stories push the students out of a passive reading state into a personal connection with the text and then beyond, extending the connection to other texts and to the world outside of school.

2.5 Literature on studies done on cohesion

Various studies have been conducted on cohesive devices; either separately on one single device or on all of them.Parvaz and Salmani-Nodoushan (2007) investigated the effect of text cohesion on EFL reading comprehension. In their study, 160 university students (80 English majors and 80 non-English majors) served as the subjects. The English majors, all taking "Advanced Translation" and the non-English major subjects were all engineering students,

taking "General English II." The result was due to the test format, not language proficiency. Because it is obvious that English-major participants would normally perform better than non-English-major counterparts. The research revealed that all subjects, regardless of their majors, performed better on the cohesive ties format.

In other research, Sukamto (2007) examined the effect of cohesive device recognition skills building exercises on reading comprehension. In his study, 41 students of Economics Education were chosen as the subjects. The students were trained with the skill and encouraged to firstly recognize cohesive devices employed in the texts, then classify their types and functions across the sentences and paragraphs and finally to check their comprehension about the texts on hand. Such instruction was found interesting and effective to make the students aware of how ideas in a text are unified by those cohesive elements. Finally, the result of the study indicates that students made improvement after the treatment.

Al-Farra (2011) studied the impact of vocabulary and cohesive devices knowledge, especially pronouns and conjunctions, on the literary 11th graders' reading comprehension. The researcher applied pre and post tests on a random sample of two intact classes of sixty literary 11th male graders divided into control and experimental groups. The researcher discovered that each independent variable, either vocabulary or pronouns, remarkably and positively affected reading comprehension. Moreover, each independent variable has the ability to predict reading comprehension. However, vocabulary affected reading comprehension more than pronouns and conjunctions did. In conclusion, the researcher recommended carrying out further studies to identify the effect of either increasing or decreasing pronouns in a text on reading comprehension and critical thinking.

Mirzapour & Ahmadi (2011) analyzed comparatively English and Persian research articles (Linguistics, Literature, and Library and Information disciplines) in terms of number and degree of utilization of sub-types of lexical cohesion in order to appreciate textualization processes in the two languages concerned. The study analyzes 60 research articles (30 articles in each language) in terms of sub-types of lexical cohesion. The study revealed that the order of occurrence in descending order of sub-types of lexical cohesion is (Repetition, Collocation, Synonymy, General Noun, Meronymy, Hyponymy, and Antonymy) in English data, while the order in Persian data is (Repetition, Synonymy, Collocation, Anonymy, Hyponymy, Meronymy, and General Noun). In both data the most frequent sub-types are repetition, collocation, and synonymy. In English data the general tendency is towards the use of repetition and collocation but Persian data show the general tendency towards the use of repetition and synonymy.

Esmaeli (2012) investigated the effect of lexical cohesive devices consciousness-raising on writing ability of EFL learners in his study. 120 female learners were selected as subjects. They were divided into two 60 groups, experimental and control. The goal was to improve learners' consciousness to comprehend lexical cohesive devices in texts and learn to use them in their writing. He applied comic strip as pretest and posttest. Finally, the results revealed that lexical cohesive devices improve EFL learners' writing.

The above mentioned studies were conducted on cohesion, mostly in writing. It is necessary, however, to investigate the effect of cohesion on reading comprehension. To that aim, the present study attempted to find whether teaching lexical cohesive devices affects reading comprehension of EFL learners.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The subjects participating in this study were 20 EFL learners taking "Interchange 3" course at Dana Language Institute in Bandar Abbas. The participants were selected among 28 learners, both males and females, mostly teenagers with diverse social classes_ since it has been assumed that these variables do not have any impact on the study. The participants were considered as intermediate learners based on the interview and placement test at the beginning of the term. Accordingly, all the students have been interviewed before the treatment was performed based on CEF (Common European Framework).

3.2 Instruments

Considering the purpose of the research, the following tests are employed to measure the impact of teaching lexical cohesive devices on reading comprehension. Firstly, a standardized placement test (Colchester English Center) was administered to a group of EFL learners. Secondly, two FCE (First Certificate in English) tests which are appropriate for intermediate level were used as pre-test and posttest. Pilot test was run to 12 intermediate students in order to estimate and validate the reliability of the test by the researchers.

3.2.1 Placement Test

The researchers applied a standardized placement test written by the Colchester English Study Center, an international institute in England. This is a multiple-choice test containing 80 items which begins with easy items and ends with difficult ones.

3.2.2 FCE Test

First Certificate in English (FCE) is an intermediate level qualification in English and it is greatly accepted. The reliability of the test was studied, though. And the content and face validity of the tests were approved. Moreover, to achieve the purpose of the study, the following procedures were followed:

3.2.2.1 Pilot Test

In order to validate and standardize the FCE test, a pilot test was run. Two FCE reading comprehension tests with 4 passages and 35 items were administered to 16 intermediate EFL students attending conversation classes, similar to sample group based on their levels.

After administering the two FCE tests to students, it turned out that 2 passages, passage 2 and 3, were not appropriate regarding item difficulty and item discrimination. Therefore, 2 passages with 15 questions were deleted and only two passages with 20 questions remained.

The following statistical analyses were employed in the pilot study to analyze the obtained data:

3.2.2.2 Reliability

Since the consistency of scores over the different forms is of importance in the present study, thus the researchers used the parallel forms method to estimate the reliability. The two parallel tests were administered to 12 intermediate students only once and at the same time. Then the correlation coefficient between the scores obtained from the two tests was calculated. The obtained scores from the tests are as follow:

Table 1. Students' scores on parallel-forms tests

Test 1 X (pretest)	17	13	15	16	8	11	1o	19	14	16	15	13
Test 2 **Y** (posttest)	15	14	14	15	9	8	12	`17	12	14	16	11

Afterwards, the correlation coefficient was calculated by the following formula (Farhady*et al.*, 2007):

$$r = \frac{N\,(\sum XY) - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N\,(\sum X2) - (\sum X)2][N\,(\sum Y2) - (\sum Y)2]}}$$

where   X = label for one of the variables

                Y = label for the other variable

                N = number of pairs of scores

Table 2. The coefficient of Correlation

X (Test 1)	Y (Test 2)	X	Y	XY
17	15	289	225	255
13	14	169	196	182
15	14	225	196	210
16	15	256	225	240
8	9	64	81	72
11	8	121	64	88
10	12	100	144	120
19	17	361	289	323
14	12	196	144	168
16	14	256	196	224
15	16	225	256	240
13	11	169	121	143
$\sum X$ =167	$\sum Y$ =157	$\sum X$ =2431	$\sum Y$ =2137	$\sum XY$ =2265

$$\text{Then } r = \frac{N\,(\sum XY) - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N\,(\sum X2) - (\sum X)2][N\,(\sum Y2) - (\sum Y)2]}}$$

$$= \frac{12\,(2265) - (167)(157)}{\sqrt{[12\,(2431) - (167)2][12\,(2137) - (157)2]}}$$

$$= \frac{27180 - 26219}{\sqrt{1276585}} = \frac{961}{1129.86} = 0.85$$

According to the abovementioned calculations, the coefficient of correlation of the two tests is 0.85. Since this value is close to +1, thus there is a high degree of positive correlation. Therefore, the two tests possess a high reliability.

3.3 Materials

The material exploited during the treatment sessions was a short story named "The Picture of Dorian Gray" by Oscar Wilde, retold by Jill Nevile, and published by Oxford bookworms' library. This book is stage 4, intended for intermediate students and contains 17 chapters with several activities (before, while and after reading) at the end of the book.

3.4 Procedure

The researchers administered a Colchester Center Placement test to 28 students who are taking conversation classes, "Interchange 3" books, at Dana Institute in Bandar Abbas, Iran. According to the placement test results, 20 students turned out to be at intermediate level. The remained 20 students were both male and female, mostly teenagers. Then these students were divided into two groups, each 10 students.

These two groups were considered as one control and the other experimental. After that an FCE test (test 1) was given to both groups as pretest. The students' scores were collected and recorded. The following session, the researchers started the treatment that is teaching lexical cohesive devices (repetition, synonym, antonym, and collocation) through a short story named "The Picture of Dorian Gray" to experimental group. The control group,

however, benefited the instruction of the same short story but without referring to lexical cohesive devices. The researchers taught the short story to control group by asking students questions before reading (predictive ones) and after reading to answer the comprehension questions. Then the students were asked to summarize each chapter of the short story.

Based on the rule of the institute, each term consists of 12 sessions, students attend the classes three times a week and each session takes 90 minutes. In this regard, the treatment took 12 sessions. Finally, an FCE test (test 2) was given to control and experimental group. Then the obtained scores from both groups pretest and posttest were calculated by SPSS software.

3.5 Design

In the present study, the teaching method (teaching lexical cohesive devices) was controlled by the researchers, so it is the independent variable. Reading comprehension, on the other hand, was measured that is the dependent variable. Moreover, the researcher administered pretests before the application of the experimental and control treatments and also posttests at the end of the treatment.

In view of all these characteristics mentioned above, the research follows the pretest-posttest nonequivalent-groups which are a form of quasi-experimental designs (Best & Kahn, 2006).

3.6 Data Analysis

To find relationship among the test scores and compare the scores, both descriptive and inferential statistics were launched and interpretation was made to generalize the results to the whole population. The data assembled and scored were analyzed using SPSS software. Since the present study is a quasi-experimental design and the numbers of the participants are below 30, the most appropriate tests to use are Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (a nonparametric equivalent analysis for paired t-test) and Mann-Whitney Test (nonparametric equivalent analysis for independent t-test).

4. Results and Discussion

The present study investigated the effect of teaching lexical cohesive devices through short stories on reading comprehension. The scores obtained from the pretest in both groups were analyzed. The researchers applied Mann-Whitney Test in order to compare pretest scores in control and experimental groups. The analysis result is shown in the following table.

Table 3. Pretest Scores Comparison in control and Experimental groups in Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks

	group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SCORE	experimental	10	10.65	106.50
	control	10	10.35	103.50
	Total	20		

As it is shown in table 3, the mean ranks between the two groups are nearly equal and there is no significant difference between the pretest means of two groups. Another test has been done which shows the exact significant between the two groups in pretest. Table 4.2 will show the result.

Table 4. Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon Test

Test Statistics [b]

	SCORE
Mann-Whitney U	48.500
Wilcoxon W	103.500
Z	-.115
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.908
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.912[a]

a. Not corrected for ties.

b. Grouping Variable: group

Table 4 shows the significant level of 0.912, comparison to 0.05, which reveals pretest scores between control and experimental groups are equal.

The researchers also used descriptive statistics to answer the research question. Participants' scores in pretest and posttest were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Table 5 shows the result of the descriptive statistics in pretest and posttest between control and experimental groups.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
pre experimental	6.00	6.00	12.00	8.9000	2.1833	4.767
post test experim	5.00	12.00	17.00	14.2000	1.8135	3.289
pre test control	6.00	6.00	12.00	8.7000	1.8886	3.567
post test control	6.00	8.00	14.00	10.6000	2.2211	4.933

As table 5 shows, the pretest means of experimental and control group are nearly equal. However, posttest mean of experimental group has increased from 8.90 to 14.20 which is statistically significant.

After administering pretest to both groups, the treatment was started. Then after 12 sessions, a validated reading comprehension test (FCE) was administered to both groups. Then the scores obtained from the posttest in both groups were analyzed. The researchers applied Mann-Whitney Test in order to compare posttest scores in control and experimental groups. The analysis result is shown in the following table.

Table 6. Mann-Whitney Test for comparing posttest in two groups

Ranks

	group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SCORE	experimental	10	14.40	144.00
	control	10	6.60	66.00
	Total	20		

Table 6 represents that mean rank of posttest in control group is 6.60 and the mean rank in experimental group is 14.40. This means that the mean of posttest in experimental group has increased in comparison with its pretest.

The following table 7 shows the result of Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon Test. It represents the exact significant between the two groups in posttest.

Table 7. Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon Test

Test Statistics [b]

	SCORE
Mann-Whitney U	11.000
Wilcoxon W	66.000
Z	-2.971
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.003
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.002[a]

a. Not corrected for ties.

b. Grouping Variable: group

As it is shown in table 7, the significant level of 0.002 shows that posttest scores in control and experimental were not equal, but rather the posttest scores in experimental group are higher.

Another Wilcoxon signed ranks test has been done in order to compare pretest and posttest scores in control and experimental group.

Table 8. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

	Posttest experimental - pretest experimental	Posttest control - pretest control
Z	-2.844	-2.850
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.004

Table 8 shows the comparison between pretest and posttest scores in both groups. The test statistics is 0.004 and it reveals that the equal hypothesis between means is rejected. Moreover, the posttest scores are higher than pretest in both groups.

Regarding the above analyses, there is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores in experimental group. On the other hand, there is a significant difference between the posttest scores in control and experimental group; posttest scores in experimental group were higher than the control group. Therefore, it is concluded that the null hypothesis that is the instruction of lexical cohesive devices through short stories has no effect on reading comprehension of FL learners, is rejected. In addition, teaching lexical cohesive devices through short story has significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners.

5. Conclusion

The rejection of null hypothesis supported the claim that reading comprehension of EFL learners can be improved by teaching lexical cohesion. The mean difference between the pretest and posttest was significant enough to support such a claim. Applying lexical cohesion in the class, once more emphasizes the practicality and feasibility of teaching lexical cohesion in a foreign language learning situation.

Although both groups increased their reading scores as measured through Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test, experimental group scores were higher. The researchers concluded that teaching lexical cohesion improves reading comprehension of EFL learners and is an effective way of teaching reading. The observations made by the researchers suggest that the students in experimental group were able to use lexical cohesion such as synonym, antonym and collocation effectively and appropriately.

5.1 Implications

In this research, the researchers focused primarily on the employment of lexical cohesive devices in short stories, which were firstly introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in their cohesion theory. The goal was to improve EFL learners reading comprehension and

recognition of lexical cohesion such as repetition, synonym, antonym and collocation in short stories.

Furthermore, this study intends to help readers identify the relatedness of the sentences in a text as they are aware of the existence of the cohesive devices. Moreover, teachers and learners benefit from the result of the study. First, they become aware of the significance of cohesive devices generally and also lexical cohesive devices specifically. Second, teachers access to a technique for teaching reading. In addition to bringing cohesive devices into teachers and students attention, the present study provides them with a practical way in which learners can learn more vocabulary through short story.

5.2 Suggestions for Further Studies

Examining the effectiveness of this study on the other areas of language to generalize the findings seems necessary. The present study examined the effectiveness of teaching lexical cohesive devices through short story among intermediate learners. Other researchers can also test the hypothesis on learners of other levels, especially lower level in order to find out the best level to start applying it.

Only lexical cohesive devices were the focus of attention in this study, other researchers can work on other cohesive devices such as reference, conjunction, ellipsis and substitution. The researchers applied short story as the material in teaching lexical cohesive devices, other materials can be used in the further studies.

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Title

The Impact of Teacher Feedback on the Accuracy of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners: Cohesive Devices in Focus

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Abstract

This study investigates a functional analysis of cohesive ties in students' journal writings. To this purpose and to find whether the implicit feedback on cohesive devices plays any role in the students' correct use of cohesive ties, a twelve-session class was held for 15 intermediate level EFL students learning English in a language institute. Every session, the students were required to write a journal at home (without time constraint) and one in class (under time constraint) based on their experiences, interests and feelings on the topics proposed by the teacher; writings were then delivered to the teacher to be checked and corrected. Teacher added comments to the writings reflecting her own experiences and ideas which were mostly advisory, praising and expressive. Corrections mainly focused on the students mistakes on the use of cohesive devices. A pre-test was administered to the participants prior to the treatment. Twelve sessions of instruction each lasting for about 45 minutes comprised the whole treatment. In the last session, a posttest was applied which proved to have a strong correlation with the pretest. The results evidenced a significant improvement in the number of occurrence of cohesive ties. Besides, the number of mistakes committed by the students decreased in the posttest which was an indication of the efficacy of treatment.

1. Introduction

The ability to express one's ideas in writing in a second or foreign language coherently and accurately is a major achievement that even many native speakers of English never truly master (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Despite various approaches to the teaching of writing which have evolved from different teaching methods, tackling EFL writing is still one of the most challenging areas for both teachers and students. EFL writing is considered useful in teaching and learning, thinking and reflecting on the English language (Rao, 2007). In fact, generating a coherent piece of writing is an enormous challenge, especially in one's second language. One of the greatest concerns in students' writings deals with cohesion and coherence. Some studies pinpointed that cohesion constitutes a serious problem to EFL students (Liu, 2000; Ahmed, 2010). Cohesion refers to linguistic features which help make a sequence of sentences in a text. It is concerned with the ways the components of a text are connected. Cohesive devices signal the relationship between ideas and make obvious the thread of meaning the writer is trying to communicate. When a comprehension problem arises as a result of limited background knowledge, readers will naturally rely more on text coherency with explicit signals to compensate for lack of prior knowledge.

Due to the various problems students face while writing, they are not generally inclined to participate in writing activities. Nunan (1999) maintained that producing a coherent, fluent writing is probably the most difficult language skill because the reader has to comprehend what has been written without relying on the writer for clarification and tone of voice. Hedge (1991) contended that the nature of writing is not interesting enough and not many people write spontaneously and are inclined to write a formal text. Besides, many learning environments do not tend to promote students' self-confidence and perception due to lack of time and teachers' awareness of psychological aspects in promoting students' learning as well as scarcity of teachers' feedback on students' writing performance.

A recent inclination towards making the writing endeavor more favorable to EFL learners' is journal writing. Fulwiler (1991) emphasizes that through journals EFL students can write about academic problems and sort out their activities. One of the features of journals is their free-writing nature, as they can be used for diverse purposes such as class starters and as a vehicle for posing and solving problems.

The present study aims at investigating the possible changes that implicit error correction and teacher-given feedbacks can produce on the correct use of cohesion. According to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification, cohesion is mainly created through grammatical and lexical forms. Grammatical cohesion includes reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction while lexical cohesion includes reiteration and collocation. These two types of cohesion help create texture or property of being a text. The research, therefore, seeks to answer the following questions:

1- Is there any significant change in the number of cohesive devices used by the students' in the pre and posttest?

2- Is there any significant improvement in the accuracy of cohesive ties used by the participants?

2. Review of Literature

Problems that students face while writing like: consistency in style, avoiding ambiguity, and careful organization make writing the most demanding of all language skills (Bowen, et al. 1985). Several studies have indicated the problems that L2 writers have while writing (Chen, 2008; Wu, 2006; Liu & Braine, 2005). A vast number of studies have focused on cohesion and coherence as two important textual elements that have been the matter of concern since the proposal by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday (2000). A huge number of researchers have investigated the relationship between the use of cohesive devices and the overall quality of writing produced. Although the findings are inconsistent and contradictory, they are worthwhile to be replicated in different contexts. While some studies have pointed out that there is a positive correlation between the number of cohesive devices and good writing (Cox and Tinzmann, 1987; Ferris, 1994; Jin, 2001), others have not shown a significant relationship between the number of cohesive features used and the quality of writing (Castro, 2004; Jafarpur, 1991; Zhang, 2000).

Writing in some genres is believed to be more difficult than writing in others. Generating a successful piece of argumentative writing is complex and demanding conceptually and structurally in comparison to composing a piece of narrative (Dastjerdi & Hayati, 2011). Although the ability to compose a piece of argumentative text is considered important for "academic success and for general life purposes" (Crowhurst, 1990) and students need to write dozens of lengthy papers before finishing their college careers, writing activities can involve practices with journal keeping strategies which are believed to make

good impressions towards the activity because they provide students with good opportunities to improve their writing skills individually and good chances to record their thoughts and feelings (Langan, 2000; Ngoh, 2002; Spaventa, 2000). Hence, journal writing can be used for minimizing embarrassing situations in which students often find themselves deficient in. So, the primary objective of journal writing can be encouraging students to become involved and interested in writing (White & Arndet, 1991). Hamp and Heasley (2006) advocated that the most obvious way to become a good writer is through writing personal journals about everything that interests him. Students are given more chances to write about what is relevant to them which is "an active learning technique" (Chikering & Gamson, 1987, p.5).

Meisuo (2000) investigated the relationship of cohesive ties in the expository essays of Chinese students with their quality of writing. The study revealed the highest percentage of cohesive devices in the students' expository composition which were lexical categories followed by conjunction and reference ties. His study found no significant relationship between the number of ties and the quality of writing. In another study by Alarcon & Morales (2011) the cohesive devices used by undergraduate students in their argumentative essays were analyzed. The cohesive devices were not significantly correlated with the quality of the students' essays. Their study found that certain cohesive ties assisted the students in the argumentation process. However, Zhang (2004) in an endeavor to investigate the use of cohesive ties in Chinese EFL learners proved that the composition scores were positively correlated with the total number of cohesive ties.

A study by Majdeddin (2010) proved that overt instruction of cohesive ties is a predictor of success in their use in IELTS writing tasks. The participants in her study wrote two compositions on only one topic with a two-month interval. The overt instruction the students received on cohesive ties was beneficial in frequency of their occurrence in participants' written products. However, a study by Faghih & Behfrouz (2013) investigating the relationship between teaching cohesion explicitly through simple prose to Iranian Intermediate EFL learners and their writing improvement in terms of the correct use of cohesive ties revealed no significant relationship between explicit teaching of discoursal cohesive markers and the writing quality of Iranian EFL learners.

Generally speaking, writing practices putting emphasis on the students' works, and teacher's feedbacks that focus more on content and organization help students produce better pieces of written composition and develop more self-confidence in writing (Tyson, 1997). Teacher feedback can comprise both content and form. Content refers to comments on

organization, ideas and amount of detail, while form involves comments on grammar mostly (Ken, 2004).

One of the activities that students prefer to perform in writing classes concerns receiving comments or feedback on their products, ideas, and the organization of their drafts (Hyland, 2003). Student writers should be given praise and told what to do to improve their work. The feedback that teacher write refers to the written comments provided to students' writing. Different ideas exist regarding corrections made by the teacher. Truscott (1996) asserts that grammatical correction can bring about harmful effects and therefore, should be avoided in the teaching of writing. Some studies, nevertheless, reveal that corrective feedback can promote accuracy in students' writing (Frantzen, 1995; Sheppard, 1992). Some other researchers believe that L2 writers expect their errors to be corrected explicitly (Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994). According to surveys of students' feedback preferences, ESL writers are very positive about teacher written feedback and consistently rate comments, and corrections on all aspects of their texts more highly than other forms (Saito, 2008; Zhang, 1995). Although providing feedback to student writing can be a tedious chore for teachers and feedback itself can be a bore or threat on the students' part, appropriate response to students' texts can contribute significantly to the improvement of students' writing skills. Ferris (2003) reports the findings of student survey research that are supported by various empirical evidence mentioning that students say that they value teacher feedback, that they pay attention to it and that it helps them to improve their writings. Sommers (1982, p.149) states: "comments create the motive for doing something different in the next draft; thoughtful comments create the motive for revising. Without comments from readers, students assume that their writing has communicated their meaning and perceive no need for revising the substance of their text.

Due to the contradictory results, the issue seems to be a challenging one which needs to be investigated in different contexts and through different levels. The impetus for the present study was to search the correlation between the implicit feedback that teacher provides the participants on the accuracy and frequency of cohesive ties in their journals. To this end, a pretest and a posttest were held to compare the possible changes in the participants' performance.

3. Research Questions

Since the purpose of the present study was to examine Iranian EFL learners' use of cohesive ties in their journals and the possible changes that the indirect treatment could have on their posttest performance, the following research questions and hypotheses were formulated:

RQ#1. Is the number of cohesive ties used by the students in pre and posttest significantly different?

RQ#2. Is there any significant improvement in the accuracy of cohesive ties used by the participants?

H1: Teacher's written feedback focusing on the correct use of cohesive ties will significantly change the writers' products.

H2. The number of mistakes will significantly decrease with the feedback student writers receive.

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants

In order to collect the required empirical data on EFL learners' use of cohesive ties, fifteen intermediate level EFL learners in a girls' language institute, aged from nineteen to twenty eight participated in the study. They were different majors studying English for about four years. Their main book was the Interchange written by Jack C. Richards- the blue book- prescribed for intermediate level language students. They had several writing practices under their teachers' observation and were already familiar with the general rules of writing coherently. Since the main purpose of the study was to examine their final products with their first ones, they were given two notebooks to write their texts in.

4.2. Instrument

Although the abovementioned group of students was regarded as being intermediate level language learners, to select a homogenized group, a proficiency test consisting of 50 items was administered to the students. It was divided into three parts:

Part A: Grammar (20 items)

Part B: Vocabulary (20 items)

Part C: Reading Comprehension (2 passages with 10 items both)

The test was administered to a group of 40 participants with half an hour time. The range of the grades resulted from this test was 18-43 out of 50; namely, 36-68 out of 100. The grades of 60-75 formed the intermediate group. On the scale, one group of 15 students was selected for the main test. The scores below 60, however, were excluded.

The participants were given two notebooks for their compositions and during the first session the teacher explained them all the procedure they were supposed to follow during the 12-session writing course.

4.3. Procedure

This research project was carried out in two different steps. In the first step, a proficiency test was administered to 40 English students in order to pick out a homogeneous group of subjects. In the second step of the experiment, the participants were given two numbered notebooks for their compositions. To obtain genuine performance of the students and to let them feel free from the apprehension of being known they were asked to write anonymously.

During the first session they were explained what a journal was, and wrote one under time constraint on a topic proposed by the teacher which was the researcher in this case. They were required to write about their own personal impressions and feelings regarding the issue and the experiences they personally had. Every session, the participants were supposed to have to writings one for homework and one as a class activity which were untimed and timed respectively. Every session, they delivered one of the notebooks to the teacher to be checked and commented and received a new topic for the home activity. Teacher provided feedbacks on the writings with ideas which were mostly promising, expressive, and encouraging focusing on the students' mistakes on the use of cohesive ties. Students eagerly read teachers' comments and argued them together. In the last session, a timed writing activity was implemented which was then correlated with their first endeavor. The correlation between the pre- and posttest could demonstrate the potential effects of treatment which was teacher-provided feedback on the correct use of cohesive devices.

5. Results and Discussion

To investigate the first hypothesis, i.e. the number of cohesive ties produced by the participants in the pre and posttest, a dependent paired-sample T-test showed the following results:

Table1: Paired sample T-test number of cohesive ties in pretest and post test group

Statistical Index Variable	*M*	*SD*	*T*	*Sig*. level	*df*
pretest	12.6	2.41			
			10.425	0.000	14
Post test	*16.33*	*2.058*			

As can be seen, the mean number of cohesive ties in pretest is obviously different from the posttest. As the acquired significant level is less than 0.05 the effectiveness of the variables is proven; therefore, the number of cohesive ties has obviously increased in posttest. Pearson Product correlation proved a significant correlation between the resulted data in pre and posttest. Therefore, a strong interaction between the number of cohesive ties in both tests could be claimed which is an indication of the effectiveness of the treatment:

Statistical Index Variable	Pearson Correlation	Sig. level	N
number of cohesive ties in post and pretest	.819	0.000	15

Regarding the second hypothesis, i.e. the possible changes in correct use of cohesive ties in the posttest compared with the pretest, dependent paired-sample T-test provided the following conclusion:

Table2: Paired sample T-test for the number of mistakes in pretest and post test group

Statistical Index Variable	M	SD	T	Sig. level	df
pretest	4.6	2.028	8.047	0.000	14
Post test	2.133	1.505			

As is evident the mean number of mistakes in posttest is obviously less than that in the posttest which is again a sign for the effectiveness of treatment. As for the first hypothesis, Pearson Correlation again proved the significance of the obtained results:

Statistical Index Variable	Pearson Correlation	Sig. level	N
number of mistakes in post and pretest	.814	0.000	15

Findings of the present study revealed that implicit teaching or feedback provided on the correct use of cohesive ties leads to an increased number of occurrence of markers and decreased number of mistakes in Iranian intermediate EFL learners' journals. The impetus for the present study was the role that teacher provided-feedback can play in cohesiveness of the writings. The average number of cohesive ties used by EFL students in pretest was 12.6 while that in the posttest was 16.33 which was an indication of the efficacy of the treatment. So teachers' written comments on the students' journals which focused mostly on the students' incorrect use of cohesive markers proved to have facilitative role which utterly consolidated previous studies mostly focusing on other genres of writing like: argumentative, prose or IELTS writing. As Raimes (1983) commented, written comments that take the form of a

paraphrase, of the ideas expressed, praise, questions, or suggestions are more productive than an end comment like: fair, good, etc. In this study, students were given praise and comments on what to do to improve their work. The notion of praise has been stressed in Hyland & Hyland (2001) as a mitigation strategy to soften criticism and suggestion given to student papers. Comments were regarding the reader's preferences about the text, and what they were expected to do next time. When asked to produce multiple drafts, students claim to prefer comments on ideas and organization in earlier drafts and on grammar in later drafts (Hyland, 2003: 179). In the present study, students regarded teachers' comments positively, communicated ideas and shared their background knowledge with that of the teacher which was evident in their improved writings.

The study by Binglan & Jia (2010) proved that teachers' feedback impacted Chinese EFL students' writings. However, results of their study revealed that of all types of feedback, correction with explicit explanation is more helpful for students' long-term progress in writing accuracy which should be applied to teaching EFL writing. The study by Faghih & Behfrouz (2013) which investigated the impact of explicit teaching of cohesive markers through simple prose to EFL learners and their writing improvement evidenced the positive impact of the treatment on the intermediate learners. An analysis of the role of training courses in IELTS writing of Iranian learners by Majdeddin (2010) indicated that overt instruction is a predictor of success in the use of cohesive ties. However, the present study proved that implicit teaching can have similar promising and fruitful results. Purnawarman's (2011) investigation on EFL students' narrative writings accuracy and quality proved that indirect feedback followed by direct feedback with explicit corrective comments was the most influential in the students' performance. It was also found that the average number of errors decreased with this type of corrective feedback indicating that there was a long-term effect of teacher corrective feedback in reducing students' essays grammatical errors. Tangkiengsirisin (2010) in his Ph.D thesis analyzed teacher written comments on the students' writing improvement on the use of cohesive devices between the pre and posttest essays and between the initial and revised drafts. His study revealed a significant improvement in the number of cohesive devices in the writing of the experimented group. The findings showed that most of the students who received teacher written feedback could successfully revise their initial drafts in response to the feedback and their cohesion skills obviously improved.

Present study consolidated many previous ones. Students' use of cohesive ties improved although no explicit correction or revision was done. In fact, student writers viewed

teachers' comments as being constructive which strengthened their strong points and unobtrusively revised their weak points. It was demonstrated that students are eager to receive teacher feedback while working.

6. Conclusion

We can conclude from this study that the implicit teaching of cohesive devices helps the frequency and accuracy of the students' later writings. In fact, the treatment which supervised the students' performance indirectly proved helpful in their improvement. The tips, comments and experiences of the teacher which followed the students' journals, focused on the participants' mistakes trying to attract their attention to those parts. This study and many others focusing on feedback on cohesive markers are, in fact, in line clarifying the commonsense belief that teaching grammar whether explicit or implicit are equally beneficial.

Another obtained implication of the study was the way students regard the received revisions. They have mostly positive attitudes towards teacher written feedback, and the revision process. They find teacher feedback helpful for improving their writing skills (Tangkiengsirisin, 2010). From the present study it can be inferred that revision motivated the participants to write more confidently in English and contributed to students' awareness and development of cohesion in writing. Feedbacks provided students with information about what is good and what needs to be improved. Feedback emphasized that good writing involves an interaction between their ideas, the expression of the ideas and their readers' perceptions and reactions to the expression.

In this study teacher feedback was personalized for each student's needs and their specific problematic areas. Each piece of writing had its own problems; hence, teacher focused on those specific weaknesses on cohesive markers' use. Feedbacks provided in the form of comments, praises and suggestions proved to be effective in students ' performances. Written comments can be referred to as frequently as needed; besides, they are less embarrassing.

Although cohesion is regarded as a useful linguistic element that contributes to well-connected writing, it is surely insufficient as a means of measuring overall writing quality. Therefore, a study including both cohesion and coherence resulting in a qualified writing investigation might be more fruitful. Another suggestion can be performing a study in which students' writing quality is investigated through the feedbacks given by the student writers

themselves. This peer reviewing might be proved to be more positive than that done by teachers; however, it may not be applicable to all EFL learning levels.

In this study, a small group of girls at the intermediate level were selected for the experiment. A research involving a larger group with different genders at other educational levels might gain totally different results.

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Title

The Relationship between Trilingualism and Attention Span: the Case of Iranian Trilinguals

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Abstract

In recent decades, multilingualism as an essential cognitive, social and cultural phenomenon has been extensively studied among different societies from several perspectives. Nevertheless, a review of the related literature reveals that this phenomenon has not been given enough scholarly attention in Iran as an ethnically and linguistically diverse country. This study was an attempt to bridge this gap by focusing on one component of multiliguality. It sought to examine whether there was any significant difference between trilinguals and monolinguals on their attention span. To this end, first, an English proficiency test was conducted to assure homogeneity among the trilingual population, and then a self reported attention span questionnaire named MAAS (Brown & Ryan, 2003) was administered among 233 trilinguals and 235 monolinguals under test conditions. The findings indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between

tri and monolinguals' attention span, with trilinguals participants outperforming their monolingual counterparts on MASS. On the other hand, regarding gender, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between male and female participants on the same test.

Keywords: Attention span; Iranian society; Multilingualism; Trilingualism

1. Introduction

Multilingualism as a norm for the majority of people is present in almost every country. Iran is one of the most ethnically diverse countries in the world. Statistics indicate that the diversity index of Iran is estimated at 0.71, while this index is 0.35 for the United States of America (Khodjasteh, 2007). Therefore, this country is essentially a multilingual country with a multil-cultural society. In other words, several ethnic groups with a diversity of languages live together and get instruction in the state language (Persian or Farsi) which is not necessarily the language of the majority or the mother tongue of all of them. In this mysteriously diverse society, paying attention to the issues related to language such as multilingualism can be beneficial.

It is difficult to find a society that is genuinely monolingual. Kornakov (1997) indicated that in addition to Singapore with four state languages, today there are 38 countries with two languages as the state languages and four other countries with three state languages. Countries such as Canada, Sweden, and India are bi or multilingual and their speakers enjoy socio educational benefits provided for them by the central government without facing any difficulty with respect to their multilinguality (Hameedy, 2001).

Evidently, in a considerable number of cases the state language is not the language spoken by the majority of population, and multilinguals 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 multlingualism in general was considered as a bad habit, a sign of suffering from a language handicap (Darcy, 1963) or the cause of linguistic and mental confusion (Saer, 1923). However, in recent decades the trend has mostly changed in favor of bi and trilingualism and a number of studies has suggested and proved the opposite and indicated that being a multilingual has positive effects on the cognitive abilities. Furthermore, according to Edwards (1994), to be bilingual or multilingual is not the aberration supposed by many (especially, perhaps, by European and North

American people who speak a 'big' language); it is rather a normal and unremarkable necessity for the majority in the world today.

Therefore, it seems that today studying the effects of multilingualism on individual cognition, intelligent and attention can have extensive and essential implications for language policy and teaching, especially in Iran with such a high diversity index.

This research study is an attempt to find out whether trilingualism, as a component of multilingualism, has a positive or hindering influence on trilinguals' attention span. 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. To this end, this study aimed at answering the following research questions:

1) Is there any statistically significant difference between trilinguals and monolinguals on their attention span?

2) Is there any significant difference between males and females in their attention spans?

2. Literature Review

In this section, the state of the art on trilingual development and its consequences for the cognitive development, and the concepts of attention and attention span are reviewed and discussed at some length.

2.1. Trilingualism

Being trilingual means being able to position oneself 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 (Bhabha). Cenoz and Genesee (1998) claimed that trilingualism is becoming more and more widespread all over the world but most of the studies concerning this phenomenon are done with individuals who acquire or learn their third language at school or college. Since trilingualism is much more complex than bilingualism, it has not been under study as much as bilingualism. Jessner (2006) argued that learning a second language differs in many respects from learning a third language. According to him, third language acquisition (TLA) and trilingualism, the learning process and its product, are not only more complex but also require different skills on the part of the learner. Apart from all the individual and social factors affecting SLA, the process of learning and the product of having learnt a second language can potentially exert influence on the acquisition of a third language and this involves a quality

change in language learning and processing. Therefore, analyzing the processes in TLA should form the basis for studying bilingual and monolingual learning and not vice versa. (Jessner, 2006).

As mentioned, 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) justified this fact by saying that trilinguality and processing this phenomenon are still uncharted territory and an unfamiliar subject for researchers. That is why we chose the domain of trilinguality for our study rather than the other components of multilingualism.

In most cases, trilinguals do not learn their three languages in the same ways. It somehow depends on the individual factors and the different learning contexts. Cenoz (2009) describes the various ways of learning three languages as follows:

1) acquiring the three languages simultaneously;
2) acquiring the three languages consecutively, one after the other (the case of the trilingual 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.

2.2. The effects of Multilingualism on cognitive abilities

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. Due to the insufficiency of literature in the area of trilingualism and cognition, most of the indicated studies are related to bilingualism (which is subcategory to Multilingualism) or multilingualism in general.

It has been argued that learning a foreign/second language has positive effects on one's cognition (Cummins, 1991). What Hakuta (1985) found, within a Hispanic minority language sample, in an experimental study, was a positive relationship between bilingualism and various abilities. For example, he found a positive relationship between bilingualism and the students' ability to think abstractly about language. He also found a relationship between bilingualism and nonverbal thinking (iconic memory) as measureable by a standard test of intelligence. According to Hamers and Blanc (1989), the heterogeneous list of the additive cognitive benefits of bilingualism includes reconstruction of a perceptual situation, verbal and non-verbal intelligence, verbal originality, verbal divergence, semantic relations, concept

formation, divergent thinking, nonverbal perceptual tasks, verbal transformation and symbol substitution and a variety of meta-linguistic tasks.

Cook (1995) also noted that people who know an L2 have a different meta-linguistic awareness from people who know only one language. And he supported this statement by pointing to the sharpened awareness of language. As the author put it, meta-linguistic awareness allows the individual to step back from the comprehension or production of an utterance in order to consider the linguistic form and structure underlying the meaning of the utterance. Also, in testing the effects of bilingualism on executive attention Yang et al. (2004), using different tasks, found that a positive relationship between early childhood bilingualism and executive attention exists. They also concluded that bilingual children were significantly more accurate than monolinguals though their response time was no greater.

Three studies are also reported in Jessner (2006) who compared the performance of monolingual and bilingual middle-aged and older adults on the Simon task (a task which is related to the function of visual working memory). In this study, bilingualism was associated with smaller Simon effect costs for both age groups; bilingual participants also responded more rapidly to conditions that placed greater demands on working memory. In all cases, the bilingual advantage was greater for older participants. It appeared, therefore, that controlled attention processing is carried out more effectively by bilinguals and that bilingualism helps to make up for age-related losses in certain executive processes.

In addition, Bialystok and Barac (2011) examined bilingualism in an immersion program and its effects on meta-linguistic awareness and executive control. The overall results indicated that meta-linguistic performance improved with increased knowledge of the second language and executive control improved with increased exposure to the bilingual education environment. Thus, the authors concluded that immersion programs beginning at an early age may have long-term benefits for children.

Along the same line, Kormi-Nouri, et al. (2003) showed that bilingual children have an improved semantic and episodic memory over monolingual children. Trudell (2009) called multilingualism a gift. He opined that the 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.

Nevertheless, the literature is admittedly slim on research on trilingualism. Especially, there is a dearth of research on this component of multilingualism and attention span. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to bridge this gap.

2.3. Attention

Attention is one of the most intensely studied topics within psychology and cognitive neuroscience. It is the cognitive process of selectively concentrating on one aspect of the environment while ignoring other things. Attention has also been referred to as the allocation of processing resources (Anderson, 2004).

Sheridan (2002) indicated that attention is the focusing of sensory, motor, and mental resources on objects or aspects around us to acquire knowledge. Wickens (1980) stated that attention is like glue that binds all the components of cognition and information processing in the human brain. He made a distinction between different types of attention as follows:

a) Selective attention: selecting elements of what is in the external world.

Posner and Fan (2001) defined this type of attention either at a gross level, which is selecting to devote attention to one task or another, or at a fine level, which is usually represented by visual scanning, as looking from one place to another (e.g., selecting between listening to important news on TV or answering an important phone call). Oakly (2004) indicated that the advantage of selective attention is that a person can concentrate on one task without getting interrupted by other activities by selectively attending to that special that primary task. On the other hand the disadvantage of selective attention that a person cannot do many tasks simultaneously.

b) Focused attention: the goal-directed orientation of the spotlight (for example) which breaks down or can be interrupted by some distractions (e.g., concentrating and focusing attention in the face of many distractions on the road).

c) Divided attention: confronting, processing, or carrying out multiple channels of information. (e.g., driving while listening to the radio and talking to a friend).

Neider et.al (2010) said that the challenge in managing two tasks demands our cognitive attention. Certainly most would agree that driving a vehicle involves a more complex set of tasks than walking. The brain is behind all tasks needed for driving: visual, auditory, manual and cognitive. Recent developments in functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) now allow researchers to see the brain's reactions to specific challenges and tasks.

d) Sustained attention: maintaining a continuous mental activity for some duration of time (e.g., completing a three-hour final exam).

Oakley (2004) named sustained attention also focused attention and argued that doing a task with this type of attention; a person takes up the lion's share of attention budget.

Further, Sheridan (2002) also argued that attention provides several functions related to information processing. It selects certain procedures or objects in the environment to concentrate on and keep focus on the target while information provided by that target object is processed. Additionally, while attention is focused on one object, shifts in attention to distracters are inhibited. These aspects of attention show major developmental change throughout childhood.

2.4. Attention Span

Our attention span is the length of time we can concentrate on something before we get bored or overloaded with information. That amount of time varies from person to person and depends on the type of activity. We are likely to have a longer attention span while doing an active, hands-on project than listening passively to a presentation (Ruff & Lawson, 1990).

We are also more likely to pay attention and concentrate longer while being entertained than being taught. Christakis et al (2004) stated that great presenters and teachers successfully get distracted between the two activities done at the same time. Copywriters, reporters, and filmmakers design most forms of media to keep our attention – to essentially take over our concentration. Electronic media such as computer games, internet sites, video and audio programs, etc limit our minds very well. Most educators and psychologists agree that the ability to focus one's attention on a task is fundamental for the achievement of one's goals. Estimates for the length of human attention span are highly variable and depend on the precise definition of attention being used (Wilson et al, 1971).

Dukette and Cornish (2009) talked about the attention span for focused attention and sustained attention and stated that focused attention is a short-term response to a stimulus that attracts attention. The attention span for this level is very brief, with a maximum span, without any lapse at all, that may be as short as 8 seconds. This level of attention is attracted by a ringing telephone, or other unexpected occurrences. After a few seconds, it is likely that the person will look away, return to a previous task, or think about something else. In Sustained attention which is the level of attention that produces the consistent results on a task over time if the task is handling fragile objects, such as hand-washing delicate crystal glasses, then a person showing sustained attention will stay on task and will not break any dishes, but a person who loses focus may break a glass or may stop washing the dishes to do something else. Most healthy teenagers and adults are unable to sustain attention on one thing for more than about 20 minutes at a time, although they can choose repeatedly to re-focus on

the same thing. This ability to renew attention permits people to "pay attention" to things that last for more than a few minutes, such as long movies.

Ruff and Lawson (1990) argued that attention span, as measured by sustained attention, or the time spent continuously on task, varies with age. Older children are capable of longer periods of attention than younger children.

For time-on-task measurements, Dukette and Cornish (2009) suggested that the type of activity used in the test affects the results, as people are generally capable of a longer attention span when they are doing something that they find enjoyable or intrinsically motivating. Attention is also increased if the person is able to perform the task fluently, compared to a person who has difficulty performing the task, or to the same person when he or she is just learning the task.

According to them, fatigue, hunger, noise, and emotional stress reduce time on task. Common estimates for sustained attention to a freely chosen task range from about five minutes for a two-year-old child, to a maximum of around 20 minutes in older children and adults. They added, after losing attention from a topic, a person may restore it by taking a rest, doing a different kind of activity, changing mental focus, or deliberately choosing to re-focus on the first topic (Dukette & Cornish, 2009).

To measure the attention span many different tests for attention span have been used in different populations and in different times but their validity and reliability always questioned. Lindsey et.al (2004) argue that some tests measure short-term, focused attention abilities (which is typically normal in people with attention deficit hyperactive disorder), and others provide information about how easily distracted the test-taker is (typically a significant problem in people with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder). Tests like the DeGangi's Test of Attention in Infants (TAI) and Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-III (WISC-III) are commonly used to test issues related to the attention system in young children when interviews and self reported questionnaires are not adequate.

These tests are typically criticized as not actually measuring attention, or as being inappropriate for some populations, or as not providing useful information. Variability in test scores can be produced by small changes in the testing environment. For example, test-takers will usually remain on task for longer periods of time if the examiner is obviously present in the room than if the examiner is absent (Lindsey et.al, 2004). In their fascinating article on The benefits of being present: mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being, Brown and Ryan (2003) argued that attention is the process of focusing conscious awareness, providing insightful sensitivity to a limited range of experience. In fact, awareness and

attention are intertwined, such that attention continually pulls 'figures' out of the 'ground' of awareness, holding them focally for varying lengths of time. Therefore, they developed a measure for testing this attention or mindfulness in human beings called Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS). Many studies then showed that the MAAS measure is a unique quality of consciousness that is related to a variety of well-being constructs, that differentiates mindful individuals from others, and that is associated attention span (Aellig et al, 2009; Van Dam et al 2009).

Mol (2006) specifically talked about the attention span in individuals with different age ranges and say that the average attention span of a person is 2-5 minutes times their age so a 5-year-old would have an average attention span of 15-25 minutes. Elementary education often helps to extend or develop attention span in children. A common myth, quoted by many teachers, that a person's attention span is 10 + person's age minutes' and that anything taught after that is not taken in, but by taking a 5-10 minute break after this time will help the class recover and replenish their attention span, but there is no evidence that this is actually successful.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants in this study included two groups of trilinguals (233) and monolinguals (235). The trilingual subjects were 122 females and 111 males residing in Ahwaz and Tehran, two cities in Iran. The researchers used the term trilinguals to refer to people who believed 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 or day-to-day interactions. In other words, they know Arabic, Turkish, or Kurdish as their native language, Persian as their second language (the language that they started it from the first year of their elementary school and it is the official language of teaching and learning in Iran) and English as a language which they learned at university (as their major) or in language institutes (as their interest). They can speak and comprehend in the three mentioned languages quite well. The data related to their first and second language was revealed by using a demographic questionnaire. On the other hand, in the case of the third language which was English, a language proficiency test was administered to select those who were proficient in their third language. Based on the demographic questionnaire and the Oxford

Placement Test, all participants would be normally developing in their language with no concerns regarding any area of development. An attempt was made to choose an equal number of males and females in each group although this proved difficult to achieve within societies selected for study. Further, the monolingual participants, were131females and 104 males who knew only Persian as their mother tongue (as ascertained through the demographic questionnaire). They were all residing in Tehran. The age of all participants (including monolinguals and trilinguals) ranged from 25 to 31 and all of them were in their senior year of college or at the M.A. level.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. Demographic Questionnaire

All of the participants completed a demographic questionnaire which consisted of 8 different questions about their, linguistic and ethnic background, age, gender, educational status, marital status and their parents' first and second languages (in case of trilingual) etc. Participants completed all the items in this part.

3.2.2. Oxford Placement Test

To test out the trilinguals' English proficiency, the original paper and pencil Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 1985) was used. This valid and reliable test consists of 60 multiple choice questions. The trilinguals' scores on the test were used to divide them into different proficiency levels. In the present study, acceptable English proficiency level was set as equivalent to or above Grade 75 on this test. Each question in this test was assigned two points, and the whole score is one hundred and twenty. Those who scored above seventy five (233 subjects) were included in the study, and those who were below seventy five (12 subjects) were excluded at the beginning and did not fill the second test battery. The participants were asked to take the test seriously in fifty minutes under test conditions. The test aimed at controlling and homogenizing the proficiency levels of trilingual subjects whose third language was English.

3.3.3. Mindful Attention Awareness Scale

Data on the attention span of our tri and monolingual participants were collected through a self-reported attention span questionnaire named Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) developed by (Brown & Ryan, 2003).This attention span measure included 15 items rated on a six point Likert-type scale with *almost always* and *almost never* as the anchors. An example item is: "*I forget a person's name almost as soon as I've been told it for the first time.*" Convergent and divergent validity of the test were determined by Brown and Ryan

(2003). Discriminant validity was determined by Zvolensky et al. (2006). MacKillop and Anderson (2007) assessed internal validity and confirmatory factor analysis.

Those with low scores tend to have a great deal of difficulty maintaining their focus on a task and following it through until completion. People who have short attention spans tend to jump from project to project and are often known to be quite disorganized and it is the reverse in those with high scores on MAAS. Higher scores reflect higher levels of dispositional mindfulness or higher attention span.

4. Pilot study

As with other forms of science, we need to be able to show that the data collected from the self-reported attention span questionnaire are valid, reliable, and acceptable. Therefore, prior to conducting our main study, a pilot study was carried out.

In order to adapt the instrument on mindfulness designed by Brown and Ryan (2003) for research in Iran, a reliable Persian version was required. In the translation of health-related questionnaires, it is generally recognized that a validation procedure must be included as part of the process so that the results of a questionnaire or survey could be reliably and meaningfully compared when used in different cultures. To prevent bias, two initial translations were prepared by members of the target culture. The first translation was provided by M.A. graduates of English Translation who were native speakers of Persian. The other translation was done by a professional bilingual (Persian and English) psychologist who had been a specialist regarding the purpose of the text and was instructed to make the necessary linguistic and cultural adaptations. A comparison was made of the two translations, and based on those two texts a third version was prepared by the researchers. Each item on the test was analyzed and discussed in detail, taking into consideration the target-language readership and the standard usage of the Persian language. The final version of the translated scale was comparable with the original MAAS both linguistically (linguistic equivalence) and conceptually (conceptual equivalence).

To check the reliability and consistency of the translated version of MAAS, the researchers attempted to administer the questionnaire to a number of subjects who resemble the population of interest. The original English version of the instrument and the final version of the Persian were applied to 20 advanced students in English translation of Chamran University (in Khuzestan Province, southern Iran). This sample was composed of 7 males and 13 females. The participants had experience as translators and as English instructors, and

were fluent in both Persian and English. The two versions of the instrument were utilized randomly; the subjects were given either version each time. The two sets of responses then were compared statistically using Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient. The reliability coefficient was reported to be .91 which is highly acceptable. (See table 1).

Table 1. The results of correlation between participants' (N= 20) scores on English Version and Translated Version of MASS.

	Persian Version
English Version	0.910**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5. Collecting the main data

After the pilot study, the oxford placement test was administered to the trilingual population. After getting the results of the test, the homogeneity of trilingual subjects was determined. A number of twelve participants (8 males and 4 females) of the trilingual population who took the test scored below the determined criteria (75) and were excluded. At the second stage, after a short period of time, when our total subjects were screened, and after instructions were presented by the researchers, the self-reported MAAS (with the demographic sheet attached to it) was administered. All the participants, monolinguals and trilinguals, were asked to complete the demographic part and all fifteen questions in 15 minutes. To receive reliable data, the researchers explained the purpose of the study to the participants, and assured them that their information would be confidential.

Finally, in order to answer the research inquiry, as to whether there was any significant difference between monolingual and trilinguals' attention span, the responses obtained from the questionnaires were tabulated and an independent sample t-test analysis was run.

6. Results

At the very beginning, after homogenizing the trilingual and monolingual participants, they were divided to two groups on the basis of the demographic information that the researcher had access to. Afterwards, an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the means of the monolingual and trilingual students' performance in the field of attention span. The collected data were fed into SPSS software to be analyzed considering the scales of measurement of the variables of this study. The results indicated that there was statistically significant difference between monolinguals and trilinguals on their scores on attention span ($t = 2.277$, df =466, $p < 0.05$), with trilinguals (M = 50.905) outscoring the monolinguals (M = 48.161) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison of Means, St Deviations and T-Values of Attention Span Scores between Monolinguals and Trilinguals (N=468).

	Monolinguals (N=235)		Trilinguals (N=233)			
Scales	M	SD	M	SD	t	P
AS	48.161	12.892	50.905	13.173	2 .277	.023*

* p < .05   Note. AS = Attention Span, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

df = Degree of Freedom (466).

To examine the potential differences in monolinguals' and trilinguals' attention span with respect to gender, a series of independent sample t-tests was run.

First, regarding the performance of male and female monolingual participants on the MASS attention span test, the results revealed that there was no significant difference on the performance of male and female students. As we see in Table 3, the mean scores of females (M = 48.396) was not significantly above the mean scores of males (M = 47.865), p > .05. Similarly, the results indicated that there was no statistically significant gender difference among the trilinguals, with females' attention span (M = 51.663) and males' (M = 50.072) and p > .05 (see Table 4).

Table 3. Comparison of Means, St Deviations and T-Values of Attention Span Scores between Female and male Monolinguals.

	Male (N=104)		Female (N=131)			
Scales	M	SD	M	SD	t	P
AS	47.865	14.025	48.396	11.966	.313	.093*

* P > .05

Table 4. Comparison of Means, St Deviations and T-Values of Attention Span Scores between Female and male Trilinguals.

	Male (N=122)		Female (N=111)			
Scales	M	SD	M	SD	t	P
AS	50.072	12.943	51.663	13.387	.921	.601*

* P > .05

7. Discussion

The present study sought to examine the impact of knowing three languages on attention span. 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.

Researchers have discovered that the cognitive systems of multilingual children differ from those of monolingual children in some remarkable ways. Learning, speaking, and using two languages may affect fundamental aspects of cognitive and neural development, potentially influencing the way those systems learn and represent information (Bialystok, 1999; Bialystok, Craik, Klein, & Viswanathan, 2004; Bialystok & Martin, 2004). These studies have shown that even in non-verbal tasks, multilingual children are better able to direct their attention to the relevant aspects of a task, and are better able to inhibit the tendency to go with the more attractive response. The findings of the present study expand on the findings of the latter studies by adding a few more dimensions, painting a more complete picture related to attention system. Trilingual children have a very specific advantage. They can direct attention effectively in the presence of environmental distractions.

As mentioned above the preliminary results of the study illustrated that, generally, trilingualism had positive effect on individuals' attention span. The findings of this study add to those that have followed a groundbreaking study associating multilingualism with higher order cognitive ability (Peal & Lambert, 1962; Bialystok, 1999; Bialystok, Craik, Klein, & Viswanathan, 2004; Bialystok & Martin, 2004) and many other scholars who worked on the cognition of multilinguals. This study demonstrates that being a trilingual can have positive effects on the learners' attention span in both genders. Meanwhile, this impact manifests itself clearly when a trilingual is not in a state of attention fatigue. To be clearer, this study gives us insights about the well-being of trilinguals and their being active and not passive. This is in line with what Cheyne et al. (2006) and Carriere et al. (2010) found in their studies. The results of their studies suggest momentary lapses of attention or little attention span can lead to a variety of cognitive errors. Furthermore, along with with their subsequent and

concurrent memory malfunction, such attention lapses or inattention may influence human beings affective well-being. Likewise, they suggest that attention and memory shortcomings are important contributors to the experience of boredom or fatigue, namely the ability to sustain interest and engagement with the environment. It seems reasonable that boredom or fatigue may be a potential contributor to the development of depression, hence inattention. Thus, compelling evidence is available that a conscious awareness of our actions is an important contributor to the effectiveness of even well-rehearsed everyday activities and to our long-term emotional well-being (Carriere et al, 2010).

In fact, the findings not only provided support for Hakuta's findings in (1985) and (1987) and many other scholars in the field of learners' cognition, but also it shed the light on the attention system of trilinguals which is a new window in multinlinguals' cognition.

The data analysis using SPSS indicated that as for the first null hypothesis related to the relationship between the trilinguality and attention span the observed value of t and p (the level of significance) were 2.277 and .023 less than .05 respectively. The figures indicate that there is a significant difference between trilingual and monolingual participants on their performance on the self reported attention span questionnaire at less than .05 level of significance. Therefore, the first null hypothesis was rejected.

The second null hypothesis, which stated that there is no significant difference between the male and female participants regarding their attention span, was not rejected though. The observed value of t and p appeared to be .313 and .754 for monolinguals and .921 and .358 for trilinguals respectively. This means that the difference between males and females in monolingual and trilingual participants was not significant at the .05 level of significance. In other words, the gender factor does not have any decisive role in this field. These results support the findings of Cepni et al (2004) who did not find any significance difference between cognitive development and gender.

Generally, higher performance of trilinguals on attention span test 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. To sum up, what we found in this study is that those who are competent in three languages could enjoy a better attention span than their monolingual counterparts regardless of their gender.

8. Conclusion, implications and suggestions for further research

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. Studies on this subject can be divided into four groups. The first group concludes that multilingual children consistently perform more poorly than monolingual children on a cognitive basis; the second, that bilingual children have mixed performance scores; the third group finds no difference due to multilinguality; and the fourth finds that bilingualism enhances children's performance in school and on many tests related to cognition.

The findings of this study, based on the independent t test, indicate that there is a significant difference between tri and monolinguals attention span. In other words, trilingual participants outperformed monolinguals in the attention span test. On the other hand, regarding gender, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between male and female participants (in the monolingual and trilingual groups separately) on the same self reported attention span test.

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. As Gay (2002) points out, it is important that teachers have more than a "mere awareness" (p.

107) of the diversity their students bring to the classroom. In this case, the participants bring an important understanding of the challenges faced by culturally and linguistically diverse students. This awareness paves the way for these teachers to use more effective instructional strategies as well as provide support to students through various forms of encouragement. Secondly, since trilinguality might enhance the attention span of individuals, it can be a good cause to encourage this phenomenon at home and in society. Through encouraging triinguality, we can enhance the speed of progress in so many fields that require attention like mathematics or reading comprehension. Therefore, policy makers and the mass media officials should consider the difference between trilinguals and monolinguals and encourage trilingual education in the educational system. At the same time, parents should be assured that contrary to the early claims bi and trilingualism can have a positive impact on their children's cognition and attention system without causing any problems. Thus, they should not only preserve bi or triinguality in their children, but also attempt to insist on it in the case of being monolingual. In some cases, some members of non-Farsi linguistic group do not allow their children to learn their mother language through exposing them to merely the dominant language which is Farsi. These parents' justification is that, if their children learn a language other than the State language they may suffer from linguistic insecurity during their education and this feeling can hinder their achievement. Meanwhile, the conducted analysis illustrated that multilinguality does not have any detrimental effect on the individuals but also accelerates their attention and concentration. Finally, since possessing a high attention span results in well-being, hyperactivity, and happiness, it will be a great idea to lead our society to be trilingual.

In general, whereas there are many indications that minority children benefit from being introduced to literacy in their mother tongue, this, too often, is ignored in many parts of Iran. This is either because the hidden goal is assimilation of the minority child into the state language; or because the means are unachievable or economically impossible (as for example when the language is not written, or when there are no teaching materials or trained teachers available which is the case in all Iranian minority languages); or because those who plan education are still ignorant of research results.

Almost all research studies revealed that bilingual and multilingual education programs and mother-tongue teaching in the early school years have been shown to benefit minority children and improve their academic achievement. Time spent on teaching the mother tongue or any other languages does not slow down their proficiency in the state language and increases their language skills in the mother tongue and in the school language. Hamer (2000)

emphasizes this fact and argues that for the child to benefit from a multilingual education certain prerequisites have to be considered. First, his two or three languages have to be of importance for both communicative and cognitive linguistic functions. Secondly, the child must acquire certain functions of language in his/her first language before he /she is introduced to the second or third language for these functions. And it is at this point that the role of the teacher becomes important because "the extent to which multicultural education succeeds in the classroom relies heavily on the knowledge, attitude, view and behavior of the teacher. Teachers are to a great extent responsible for what and how children learn" (Le Roux 1997, 58), therefore, for a school to be truly multicultural or bilingual, the teachers need to be trained in multiculturalism and bilingual education and need to understand the nature of multilingualism in society. This is especially true of the Iranian society because of the high diversity of ethnically and linguistically different groups.

For many decades multilingualism has been the core of many studies all over our multilingual world. Meanwhile, this significant social phenomenon has been ignored in Iran. The present study was one of the very few studies in the field of multilinguality in this ethnically diverse country which intended to find the relationship between trlinguality and attention span. Regarding the finding of this study, there are some suggestions which may be of interest to researchers. First, researchers who are interested in this field can work on the different cognitive systems of bilinguals and trilinguals or bilinguals and monolinguals or even quadrilinguals and examine their differences considering attention span and concentration when doing a task. Second, researchers can do studies on "mindfulness" of multilinguals which is more specific than attention span and means the practice of focusing your attention on the moment and, without judgment, observing all aspects of the world around you as well as your thoughts, feelings and reactions. Third, those who are interested in studies related to cognition may find it interesting if find the relationship of the learners' age and their attention span or mindfulness. Different learners in different age groups may have different attention spans. Fourth, attention system has different three main networks: the alerting, orienting, or executive function. Any of these networks may be tested out in multilinguals' attention system. Fifth, according to the above mentioned literature, there is an impact of multilinguality on cognition in general. Researchers can work on the extent of these relationships, and see if it persists across different ages and educational levels. Sixth, in the review of the related literature, different kinds of attention such as sustained attention, attention fatigue, etc. have been considered in this research study. Those interested can work on each of these and find their significance in multilinguals. Further research on this issue

should reveal whether these three languages consistently lead to significant effects with other materials and different participants. It would also be interesting to examine this issue via another modality; for example, by employing auditory transmitted passages with distractions. Finally, one can recommend that further studies employ very typologically different languages in an attempt to verify whether the effects found here would be correspondingly magnified.

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Title

Investigating the Impact of Emotional Intelligence in ESP Reading Comprehension Test Performance

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Abstract

In recent years, Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been a popular topic of debate in the field of education as an area worthy of instruction and research. Although EI has recently gained a momentum, few if any studies have addressed it with respect to ESP context. Having this in mind and in line with previous research in this field this study attempted to investigate the role of Emotional Intelligent in ESP reading comprehension tests at the university level in Iran. To this end, 233 students from different majors (English literature, accounting, economics, mechanic and chemical engineering) participated in the study. In addition to the Emotional Intelligence questionnaire, the participants in each major took their reading comprehension tests related to their fields of study. Subsequent data revealed, first, that Emotional intelligence is significantly related to the test performance of the participants, and second, the English literature major students had a higher EI in test performance than those in other majors. Furthermore, the multiple regression analysis showed that two of the five aspects of emotional intelligence as defined by (Bar-on1997), namely 'intrapersonal' and 'adaptability', are significantly positively correlated with EST tests scores. The results have some implications for TEFL at the university level.

1. Introduction

According to Jaeger (2003) a combination of knowledge, skill, and genetic traits (such as overall intelligence) has been considered to be the best indicator of individual competence. Recently, however, new studies has generated evidence that these characteristics may be less important for effective performance than the employee's emotional intelligence (Abraham, 2000; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002).Both language teaching and testing have been influenced not only by knowledge about language but also by socio-psychological factors that learner brings to the learning situation. Therefore, it is not surprising that an extensive range of language education research has addressed the characteristic features of successful language learner, and the ways language learner education programs can induce the enhancement of such features. Skehan (1998) argued that individual learner factors may contribute differentially to the learner's ability to acquire a second language. In addition, test takers' characteristics such as content and general schemata, personal attitudes, educational variables, etc. are believed to have significant effect on their test performances as well. In an attempt to keep in line with developments in psychology and cognitive science, this upsurge in language education research has investigated the effect of language learners' various cognitive, affective and personality characteristics on their performance and academic success. Following this line of research and the importance of the issue, both in teaching and testing, motivated this research to be conducted.

2. Theoretical background

Studies done on test takers performance and success in language test have been generated from different perspectives. Some studies examined the test takers performance with respect to their topical knowledge. For instance, students' language proficiency in reading test scores at university level has been examined with regard to contribution of their background knowledge (Alderson & Urquhart, 1985; Hudson, 1993; Clapham, 1993 & 1996; Ginther& Grant 1997; Jensen & Hansen 1995; Douglas, 2001; Tavakoli, 2004). Some other studies have investigated the relationship between test takers' socio-psychological and strategy-use characteristics and their influence on their test performance. These studies have focused on

students' performance with respect to cognitive styles (e.g. Hansen & Stansfield 1984; Chapelle 1988) and attitudes toward language learning (e.g. Gardner 1985a & 1988; Zeidner&Bensoussan 1988). Petrides, Frederickson, and Furnham (2004) examined the relationships between trait emotional intelligence, academic performance, and cognitive ability in a sample of 650 British secondary education students. In so doing they found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between academic performance and cognitive ability. According to Purpora (2004, p. 93), "These socio-psychological and strategic factors, alone or in combination with other personal attributes, may have a significant impact on test scores …"This means that although language knowledge is likely to be a necessary factor in good language learning or good test performance, but it is not a sufficient one. Another line of research shows that L2 learning is relatively influenced by individual learner characteristics influence (Skehan, 1989; 1998); According to Bachman (1990) apart from communicative language ability, certain test-taker characteristics may affect the extent to which testees are able to perform satisfactorily on language tests. Studies indicate that, in addition to language knowledge, test score variation can be due to personal attributes of test takers. Most of the studies have investigated the between test takers' demographic characteristics such as age, gender, cultural background and language background on one hand and testees performance, on the other. (e.g. Farhady, 1987 & 1982; Kunnan 1990 & 1995; Elder 1995; Brown 1999; Ryan & Bachman, 1990).

3. Emotional intelligence (EQ)

Emotional intelligence significant impacts on various elements of everyday living have been investigated by many studies in the past decade. Palmer, Donaldson, and Stough (2002) found that individuals' life satisfaction is strongly associated with high degree of emotional intelligence satisfaction. Additionally, Pellitteri (2002) reported that people higher in emotional intelligence were also more likely to use an adaptive defense style and thus exhibited healthier psycho. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style. Rubin (1999) and Rice (1999) found that children and adults getting high score in E.I. can manipulate their interpersonal relationships in a suitable way. Much of this research has focused on how it relates to workplace success and performance. Research done in this field has shown the positive impact of emotional intelligence on individuals' leadership ability (Scheusner, 2002; Boyatzis, 1999; Cherniss, 2001; Caruso et al., 2002; George, 2000; Zhou

and George, 2003; Cote et al., 2004; Butler and Chinowsky, 2006). Academic performance has been also shown to have strong relationship with emotional intelligence (Schutte, 1998; Petrides et al., 2004; Parker et al., 2004, 2005). Individual's better work performance has been found to be associated with high emotional intelligence (Jordan et al., 2002; Wong and Law, 2002; Bachman et al., 2000; Fox and Spector, 2000). Studies have also show that high emotional intelligence has direct impact on management ability (Slaski and Cartwright, 2002; Carmeli, 2003; Zhou and George, 2003).There is also some evidence that EQ is considered as an important factor in determining group performance. Jordan et al. (2002) suggested that team performance in all aspects can be improved with high levels of emotional intelligence and Elfenbein (2006) showed that a high average level of individual EI of team members can be harbinger of effective team performance.

Goleman defines emotional intelligence as "capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and our relationships"(Goleman, 1998, p. 317). Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer have contributed largely to the field of research on emotional intelligence since 1990. They define emotional intelligence as, "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (1990). Salovey and Mayer proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion, and the ability to manage emotions. They delve into details; proposed a "four branches of mental ability" model for emotional intelligence:

a. Emotional identification, perception and expression

b. Emotional facilitation of thought.

c. Emotional understanding

d. Emotional management

There was a time when IQ was considered the leading indicator of success. Despite this increased level of interest in thisidea over the past decade few if any studies have been done on emotional intelligence (EI or also referred to as EQ) as an area worthy of instruction and research. Daniel Goleman (1998) argues that our IQ-idolizing view of intelligence is far too narrow. Instead, he proposed "emotional intelligence" construct as being the strongest determinant of human success. He defines emotional intelligence in terms of self-awareness, confidence boosting, motivation, an appropriate learning environment ,altruism, empathy, and a self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of

others, and of groups. Lately, there has been a shift from the focus on IQ toward EQ and there is a growing body of research on the efficacy of emotional intelligence in developing individual competence. As implied by many studies results individual competence was first defined in terms of a combination of skill, knowledge, and genetic behavior (Jaeger 2003). However, studies done in this field have shed light on what constitutes real competence by considering emotional intelligent as a feature even more important than these characteristics for effective performance. ([Abraham, 2000], and [Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002]). EQ is a major indicator of achievement. It explains why individuals with somehow similar intelligence get widely different levels of success in their professions and lives.

4. Purpose of the study

Although the studies described above point to the contributing effect of EI on students' educational and social behavior, there is a scarcity of such research on learners' behavior and achievements with respect to ESP context. The dearth of investigation into the possible relationship between teachers' EI and their professional and educational effectiveness in ESP context shows a clear need to undertake identical studies in this area. Thus, the present research focuses on the role of students EQ in test performances in general and ESP context in particular. More specifically, the study addresses the following questions:

Is there any relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their performance on ESP reading comprehension tests?

5. Method

5.1. Subjects

The participants of this study were 233comprised of university students majoring in different disciplines such as English literature, economics, psychology, chemical and mechanic engineering teaching. The participants were selected from junior and senior students in order to make sure that they had all passed their specific courses in English. Two classes were randomly selected from each field of study to represent the participants.

5.2. Instruments

Five types of tests related to different fields of study, along with a questionnaire on emotional intelligence were used. They included:

5.2.1. Five teacher-made reading tests

Five teacher-made reading tests related to different subject areas (accounting, economics, English literature, chemical and mechanic engineering) used to measure participants' reading ability in their specialized fields. These tests are usually developed by the ESP instructors (both content and language teachers), who are busy teaching specific purpose courses. Such tests are often administered at the end of the course as a final examination, and used to measure students' language knowledge and subject area knowledge. In order to determine the suitability of such ESP reading tests for the present study, they were piloted in the previous term before the study began. The estimated reliability coefficients for all the other tests (using KR 21) were found to be moderate (See Table 1).

Table1: Pretesting reliability coefficients

Tests	Mean	SD	Variance	KR21 R	No.ofItems
English literature	22.75	3.78	14.35	0.63	30
Accounting	19.25	4.16	17.34	0.62	30
Economics	26.15	3.20	10.25	0.69	30
Mechanic	24.17	3.51	12.35	0.64	30
Chemistry	20.25	4.66	21.75	0.72	30

In technical sense, it becomes apparent that the maximum observed validity possible for ESP reading tests used in this study will be obtained if one takes the square root of the reliability indices in the Table above. So, regarding the relationship between reliability and validity, such tests enjoyed empirical qualification for their use.

5.2.2. Emotional Intelligence

To determine language teachers' EI, the researcher employed the ''Bar-On EI test'' which was designed by Bar-On in 1980. Bar-On emotional intelligence test called the emotional intelligence inventory (EQ-i) was designed by Dr. Bar-On in 1980. EQ-I is a self report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior that provides an estimate of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). This EQ test is easy and quick to administer. It can be administered to all people above 16 years old who have the primary education. According to Dehshiri (2003) this questionnaire and its subscales do have reliability and validity in Iranian culture. The test includes short sentences which measures five broad areas of skills and fifteen factorial components. The questionnaire takes nearly 40 minutes to complete. It employs a five point response scale with a textual response format ranging from 'very seldom' or 'not true of me' to 'very often' or 'true of me'. Each item has the value of 5

ranging to 1. The individuals' responses render a total EQ score on five composite scales as following:

1. Intrapersonal (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization)

2. Interpersonal (empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships)

3. Stressmanagement (stress tolerance and impulse control)

4. Adaptability (reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving)5. General mood (optimism and happiness).

6. Procedures

In two consecutive weeks, the participants took their own specific field reading comprehension tests, and they also filled out the questionnaire regarding emotional intelligence immediately after the test administration. Each was shortly introduced to the purpose of the research and provided with some brief oral instruction on how to complete the appraisal form.

7. Data analysis

To investigate the normality of the distribution, descriptive statistics was employed. To determine the role of test takers' EQ in ESP reading comprehension tests, Pearson product–moment correlation was applied to the data. The next step was to run multiple regression analysis with the five aspects of emotional intelligence scale as the set of independent variables and the obtained test takers' scores as the dependent variable to find out to what extent EQ might have predictive power in test takers' performance and where the correlation lay with respect to those five aspect of EQ scale.

8. Result

Table 2, 3 represents the descriptive statistics of emotional intelligence measures and test takers' scores in their ESP reading comprehension tests, respectively. As displayed in Table 3, literature students have a higher EQ than other participants.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics (EQ)					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Literature	46	21.00	49.00	35.8696	10.02798
Economics	44	18.00	47.00	33.4545	10.19908

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accounting	46	16.00	45.00	31.0652	10.13991
Chemistry	47	17.00	46.00	32.0638	10.00740
Mechanic	45	11.00	44.00	30.1111	10.42118
Valid N (listwise)	44				

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics(ESP tests)					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Literature	46	10.00	29.00	19.6304	5.45836
Economics	44	8.00	27.00	18.1136	5.16345
Accounting	46	9.00	28.00	18.9565	5.10319
Chemistry	47	6.00	25.00	15.7447	5.25220
Mechanic	45	5.00	28.00	15.2444	5.47787
Valid N (listwise)	44				

To examine whether there is any significant correlation between the test takers' EQ and their ESP reading comprehension test, Pearson product– moment correlation was employed. The results revealed that there is a significant correlation between test takers' scores on ESP tests and their EQ (r=595, p < 0.05) (see Table 4).

Table 4 Correlations			
		ESP	EI
ESP	Pearson Correlation	1	.595**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	228	228
EI	Pearson Correlation	.595**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	228	228
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

The next step in the data analysis was to determine where the correlation lay in terms of the five aspects of emotional intelligence as defined by Bar-on (1980).

Given the test takers' scores on the five aspects of emotional intelligence as the set of independent variables and their scores on ESP test as the dependent variable, a multiple regression analysis was conducted.

The correlation coefficient between the set of independent variables, namely measures of the five aspects of emotional intelligence, and the dependent variable, namely measures of the test takers' ESP test scores, has an approximate value of 0.5 which, as the table of ANOVA (Table 4) indicates, is statistically significant. Moreover, the R Square, as "the percentage of the variance of the predicted (dependent) variable that is due to, or explained by, the combined predictor (independent) variables" (Best & Kahn, 2006, pp.432-433), has a value of 0.134. It means that about 13% of the variance of the test takers' ESP tests scores is explained by their total scores on EQ (table 5).

Table 5 Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.366a	.134	.114	5.20509
Predictors: (Constant), EI5, EI2, EI3, EI4, EI1				

Table 6 provides an indication of the extent to which each of the five components of emotional intelligence has significance for EFL test takers' ESP test scores. As indicated in the table of partial correlations, when excluding the combined correlation of the five independent variables with the dependent variable, only two of the components of emotional intelligence, namely 'intrapersonal skill' and adaptability skill' show significant correlation at 0.05 level of significance (Beta = 0.316, $p \leq 0.05$ for 'intrapersonal skill' and Beta = 0.268, $p \leq 0.01$ for 'adaptability').

Table 6 partial Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	10.757	2.244		4.794	.000
	EI1	.983	.402	.316	2.442	.015
	EI2	-.252	.182	-.091	-1.390	.166
	EI3	-.590	.541	-.167	-1.091	.276
	EI4	.770	.296	.268	2.597	.010
	EI5	.155	.221	.049	.701	.484
a. Dependent Variable: ESP						

9. Discussions and conclusions

As stated earlier, the present study sought to investigate, in the first place, if there was any relationship between test takers' EQ and their performance on ESP tests. The results indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between EI and test takers' ESP test performances. The size of this correlation indicates that the higher the test takers' EQ, the better their performance on ESP tests. According Bar-On (2006) those individuals with higher than average EQ are in general more successful, while a deficiency in EI can mean a lack of success and the endurance of emotional problems. Researchers have also shown that higher EQ is an indication of one's potential in academic and professional success. Bar-On (2006) indicated that mutual interaction of EI and cognitive intelligence contribute to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life. Regarding the affective domain, other forces should be taken into consideration including such factors as self-motivation, persistence, and confidence, all of which contribute to EI but are not directly measured by an IQ test. This helps explain the need for test takers and learners to devote time to the affective domain in addition to academics since they, too, can contribute to the development of EQ. What is likely drawn from the findings of this study can be explained in the sense that, emotional intelligence like other socio-psychological factors, which may be claimed to have a positive role in second language learning or acquisition, also has a significant effect on test performance. This finding would probably be in line with the researchers' idea that socio-psychological factors have a direct bearing on the test-takers' performances on language tests and their devotion of time for learning (e.g., Gardner 1985 & 1988; Bachman, Cushing and Purpora, 1993); Dornyei& Schmidt (2001); Purpora (2004).As shown in Table 2, it became obvious that English literature students have higher emotional intelligence in test performance than the other groups.

Having shown the correlation between two variables namely emotional intelligence and ESP tests scores, the next step was to see where this correlation lay regarding the five aspects of emotional intelligence sub dimensions. After statistical analysis it was shown that only two of the five aspects of EQ namely "intrapersonal skill" and "adaptability" had significant positive relationship with test takers' ESP scores. Intrapersonal skill consists of self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization sub skills. Increasing each of them will increase the EQ which this in turn will affect positively the test takers performance. Adaptability skill also consists of reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving all of which seem to have direct relation with test performance.

10. Implications of the study

This study has some implications. The results of the present study lead to the conclusion that test takers' EI is critical in the process of test performance. Thus, if emotions and perceptions appear to influence performance practices, identifying and regulating the factors that contribute to the development of test taker's EQ. This, in turn, necessitates exploiting and developing courses and preparation programs for ESP learners focusing on skills associated with EI to help them handle their emotions appropriately, shift undesirable emotional states to more productive ones, understand the link between emotions, thoughts, and actions, attract and sustain rewarding interpersonal relationships in the classroom.

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Title

English as an International Language in Iran and Teachers' Competence

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Abstract

English as an International Language (EIL) with its focus on cross-cultural communication, English varieties, and non-native speakers has realigned teachers' sense of professional competence. This study investigates how the notions of EIL interact with Iranian language teachers' perception of professional competence. For this purpose, a questionnaire survey was conducted to collect data on teachers' views about their teaching profession, and their beliefs in their teaching practices. This was followed by a qualitative study, an interview. The results of this study shed significant light on the perception of professional competence by Iranian language teacher and showed that in Iran, proficiency in English is

important for teachers and the focus is on teaching grammar instead of communication. But they don't insist on teaching culture of the native speakers to their students. So, this worked as a filter which made teachers not to accept EIL. There was no exposure to variations of English and as English teaching professionals, they didn't apply EIL in their classes.

1. Introduction

English has been widely recognized as the lingua franca for communications across nations and cultures since the 1970s (Crystal, 1997). People use English more than any other language in the world for international communications. It is the most desired second or foreign language in most parts of the world. In the context of English as a foreign language, English is used at formal settings in the work place, international trade, global media, tourism, business, educational institutions, research and development, and in diplomatic contacts (Graddol, 1997:8). However, the new trend of English as an international language is such that intelligibility seems to be the measure of effective communication in English, and this has reduced the authority of Standard English and its native speakers. Shaw (2003:195) observed that English is freely used among people who are not using standard grammar; and their lexis and pronunciation do not conform to any recognized varieties.

With the spread of English as an international language for cross-cultural communication, attention has turned to the non-native teachers' positive contribution to teaching English for international intelligibility and communication (Kachru & Nelson, 2001; McKay, 2002). The traditional view of an effective teacher of English, thus, requires a new definition (McKay, 2002). The new definition emphasizes using English as an international language for communication purposes as the goal in teaching and learning English. Besides, native-like proficiency should not be the ultimate goal for learning and teaching English; nor should it be considered as the standard used for judging English teachers' professional competence (Kachru & Nelson, 2001; McKay, 2002). The introduction of EIL, so, has led to the realignment of teachers' sense of competence and expertise.

In Iran, having a good command of English is regarded as essential. Teachers need English because they are encouraged to give lectures and teach in English, and postgraduate students are obliged to write their theses/dissertations, publish papers, or hold their classes in English. PhD candidates are chosen firstly based on their performance in certain international or national English proficiency tests.

So, it is language teachers' responsibility to fulfill these national expectations and the need to improve students' command of English. These beliefs and attitudes influence teachers' perception of their professional role. If they accept EIL argument and, so, teach English for international intelligibility and communication, and not to reach native-like proficiency, this perception of professional competence and subject knowledge will influence their sense of competence and expertise, the way they teach (Goodson & Cole, 1994), their commitment to their teaching role (Moore & Hofman, 1988) and their attitudes toward education change (Beijaard, 2004). This will redefine the professionalism of an effective English teacher and the way they look at themselves as competent teachers.

Liou (2008) believes studying teachers' responses towards EIL provides an opportunity to study more closely the way teacher professional competence is linked with their perceptions of professional competences and subject knowledge. However, few researchers (Jenkins, 2005; Liou, 2008; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005) have studied the English teachers' perception of the spread of English as an international language and no research has studied its effect on Iranian teachers' perception of professional competence. So, there is a gap in the literature in this regard and it should be filled with empirical study.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Reviewing the existing literature, most of the studies were attempts to explore teachers' perceptions of the various aspects of their professional lives. Siraj-Blatchford (1993), for example, found that a change of teaching goals and educational policy often causes anxiety to teachers, and this is because the set goals in teaching were often internalized by teachers as the required qualifications to be a successful professional. Regarding the spread of EIL as a new trend influencing language teaching and its effect on teachers' competence, some scholars (e.g., Jenkins, 2000, 2003; McKay, 2002, 2003; Seidlhofer, 1999, 2001) argued that accented English or imperfect grammar will not impede intelligibility; therefore, it should not be regarded as a disadvantage to Non-Native-Speaker English teachers. NNS English teachers' imperfect language proficiency will not constitute a negative component in their professional competence.

In many EFL countries, comprehension and grammar knowledge are the focus of English education in secondary schools (Llurda & Huguet, 2003; Wu et al., 2005). This is true about Iran while in many other countries, for elementary school teachers, pronunciation and communicative competence in English are the main goals (Butler, 2004; Llurda & Huguet, 2003; Wu et al., 2005). Wu et al. (2005) found that, in Taiwan, elementary school

teachers value pronunciation and fluency as the most important criteria to be a good English teacher; while junior high school teachers value reading comprehension and grammar knowledge as the most important component of their professional competence. As reported in their research, Taiwanese teachers consider themselves to be in a disadvantaged position in terms of fluency and colloquial use of English (p. 222). This would bring challenge to teachers' confidence in their professional competence. (Liou, 2008).

In secondary schools, more emphasis is put on grammar teaching and formal training in writing, which tend to be what these teachers are more confident of. English teachers in secondary schools, therefore, appeared to have a higher professional identity than their counterparts in the elementary schools because of the enhanced competence. (Arva and Medgyes, 2000)

Elementary English teachers in three Asian countries (Japan, Taiwan, and Korea) were studied by Butler (2004). He found a big gap between teachers' perceived level of English proficiency and the minimum English level that they desired to reach for teaching English. Butler concluded that feeling incompetent in fulfilling the teaching goal may influence teachers' teaching in many aspects, particularly on teachers' confidence in their career, their competences in pedagogical skills, and their expectation of students' success in learning English (p. 268).

However, few researchers (Jenkins, 2005; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005, Liou, 2008) have studied the English teachers' perception of the spread of English as an international language, and most scholars based their studies on theoretical assumptions or personal opinions, rather than based on empirical studies. Besides, no research has studied the effect of EIL on Iranian teachers' perception of their professional competence. So, there is a gap between theory and practice in this regard and it should be filled with empirical study. This study is an attempt to study Iranian language teachers' responses towards EIL in order to provide an opportunity to study more closely language teachers' perceptions of their professional competences and subject knowledge.

As for the ELT literature in Iran, except for the few scholars who have paid special attention to the development of EIL (e.g., Talebinezhad & Aliakbari, 2001; Sharifian, 2001), most of the scholars have failed to address the recent development of using English as an international language. However, most of these studies were based on theoretical assumptions or personal opinions, rather than based on empirical studies of NNS English teachers' perspectives.

The results of analyzing teachers' responses, will inform the likely success or failure and possible effects of EIL introduction. That is, we can investigate if the changes in the global trend of ELT will impact their perception of the competence they need to empower with? Therefore, research questions to ask for this study are:

Q1: How does the notion of EIL affect Iranian language teachers' perception of their professional competence?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study (N=25, age range: 20 to 50) were teachers majoring in English in a teacher training center in Khorramabad. In order to come up with a representative sample, participants were chosen from almost the same level of English proficiency, but they were from different cities with different amount of experience in teaching English.

Table 1 *Demographic Information of English Teacher Participants (n=25)*

Characteristics	Category	Number
Age	35-40	12
	30-35	6
	25-30	7
Grades Taught	1,2,3,4	12
	1,2,3	10
	1,2	3
School Setting	Private	8
	Public	17
Years of Teaching	10<	8
	6	10
	<5	7
Hours of In-service training	60<	11
	30-60	14

3.2. Instrumentation

Materials used for this study include: survey questionnaire and an interview:

3.2.1. Survey questionnaire

The sample questionnaire (inspired by Liou, 2008) comprised a series of statements to collect information on teachers' attitudes. It was piloted to check whether the questions were clear to the participants, whether the length of the questionnaire was adequate to collect sufficient data for analysis, and whether the questionnaire lacked any important questions. The sample

questionnaires were completed by seven participants from the target population. Although the research population was all English teachers, for their convenience, the researcher translated the questionnaire into Persian, then, distributed it among them- in both languages- after being re-translated into Persian to check the probable translation errors. The questionnaire was divided into two sections:

- Section A: Eight questions (A1 to A8) which were derived from the components of NNS English teachers' professional identity and focused on teachers' perceptions of the social status of their job, their evaluation and commitment to their job, and their perceptions of their students' attitudes towards their teaching.

- Section B: Eighteen questions to understand 1) respondents' attitude towards language proficiency of different users in different contexts, in the aspects of grammar and pronunciation (8 questions); 2) their preference in their teaching content (B9 to B14) and 3) whether the purpose of learning English is to achieve intelligibility in communication or to achieve language proficiency and accuracy (B15 to B18).

3.2.2. Interview

Interview questions (Appendix A) aimed at understanding the formation of teachers' perception of professional competence. It paid special attention to examining the applicability of EIL from teachers' perspectives. It aimed at understanding teachers' reflections on the development of EIL and implications of EIL in teaching English, and how it may relate to their teaching practices and their perception of professional competence.

3.3.   Procedure

To collect the data needed for this study, the researchers went through several stages:

Stage1. Pilot study of questionnaire survey and interview questions. As a result, two questions were omitted because the participants in the pilot study thought they do not match our culture and two were modified to match the need of the study.

Stage 2. Administering questionnaire survey to the sample.

Stage 3. Interview. This was an opportunity to listen to teachers and their perspective and to support and enhance the validity of data collected through the questionnaire survey. It aimed to collect participants' reflections on the notion and samples of EIL, and how it relates to their teaching practice and professional competence they need to use in their classes.

So, the research inquiry was enhanced through the use of combined research methods. Regarding research ethics, the participants were informed that they can withdraw at any time during the process of the research project. Participants were assured that all the data collected were exclusively for research only, and their confidentiality was protected throughout the

research project. No names (including personal and institutional names) were directly linked with any of the data or reports. All the participants were given pseudo names in the interview data analysis and discussion. All the interview data collection was recorded with the participants' permission. Full transcriptions were sent to the participating teachers to be reviewed by them.

4. Results

Data were collected through both qualitative and quantitative methods including questionnaire and interview and analyzed as follows:

4.1.   Analysis of questionnaire survey results

An overview of respondents' perception of their professional competence was presented from teachers' answers to the survey questions. The questions all were based on the assumptions of teaching EIL. The results of section A in the questionnaire is presented in table 2.

Table 2 *Respondents' perceptions of their profession*

No.	Statement	Strongly agree%	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %	Mean score
A1	Teaching is a respectable profession.	32	60	8		1.76
A2	I like the job of being an English language teacher.	52	44	4		1.52
A3	I prefer to be an ELT teacher than any other profession.	40	44	16		1.76
A4	The sense of accomplishment from my work can compensate for the frustration.	32	56	12		1.76
A5	I like to participate in conferences or professional development sessions.	32	48	12	8	1.96
A6	My students appear to like to attend my class.	24	72	4		1.88
A7	I like to participate in the public affairs of my institute.	16	52	28	4	2.2
A8	My institute appreciates my teaching performances.	16	52	28	4	2.2

Note: Total number of respondent is 25.

Researchers coded the questionnaire: "strongly agree" coded as 1, "agree" as 2, "disagree" as 3, and "strongly disagree" as 4. The mean score should be 2.5 for the distribution of a question's answers to be normal. Lower mean scores skew toward 'agree' and

higher mean scores skew toward 'disagree'. The distribution is skewed toward the 'strongly agree' side. The lowest mean scores were achieved in questions A2, A3, and A4. So, this group of teachers showed high professional self-esteem and dignity. They displayed a highly positive self-image of their role as an English teaching professional. They liked their teaching job, they enjoyed their interaction with students, and they were active in participating in professional growth activities.

About 80% of the respondents intended to attend conferences or other professional development activities for their professional growth. This showed their strong professional identification with their professional role. However, the highest mean scores were achieved in questions A7 and A8 which shows that although their interaction with institutes were not satisfactory they liked their job and prefer it than other professions.

The result of section B in the questionnaire is presented in table 3.

Table 3 *Respondents' expectations of English proficiency*

No.	Statement	Strongly agree%	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %	Mean score
B1	ELT teachers should teach good pronunciation to students.	60	40			1.4
B2	ELT teachers should teach good grammar to the students.	60	40			1.4
B3	ELT teachers must try to obtain accent-free language proficiency at all times.	52	44	4		1.52
B4	ELT teachers must try to speak English without grammatical errors at all times.	32	52	12	4	1.72
B5	I will expect my students' pronunciation to be like standard English.	28	52	20		1.92
B6	I will expect my student to use English with correct grammar.	28	52	20		1.92
B7	People using English should try to speak accent-free English language.					
B8	People using English should try to avoid grammatical errors.					

Note: Total number of respondent is 25.

Questions B1 and B2 show that teachers believed language proficiency was an important part of their subject competence and that they should teach Standard English in the classroom and that they paid equal attention to grammar and pronunciation. They displayed a strict standard for their language proficiency as their subject competency while they were teaching. This

result, also, showed that there is a strong link between their sense of subject competency and their professional role.

From the respondents' answer to B5 and B6, it can be understood that teachers still expected students to use correct English. B7 and B8 were deleted in the pilot study because the participants thought they were not about Iranian context in which there are no users of English as a second language. Respondents appeared to be a little bit more relaxed when they were using the language outside classroom (questions B3 and B4), yet teachers still put a higher demand on themselves than they would expect from their students and the general population's use of English. As for teachers' expectation of their students' use of English, the data shows a high expectation of students' learning achievement in native-like English (question B5 and B6). Teachers' expectation of people's use of English appears to be lower than the other three categories, but still more than half of the respondents assert that people need to strive to use English with good pronunciation and avoid grammatical mistakes (questions B7 and B8).

In table 4, the second part of section B is presented in which the questions' focus was on respondents' attitudes towards professional competency and English users' use of English.

Table 4

Respondents' attitudes towards professional competency and English users' use of English

No.	Statement	Strongly agree%	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %	Mean score
B9	I usually choose textbooks published by English-speaking countries.	44	36	16	4	1.8
B10	If I want to integrate cultural materials in my English language class, it should be focusing on English-speaking countries' cultures.	20	40	36	4	2.24
B11	ELT teachers should focus more on language knowledge than on the pedagogy.	8	36	52	4	2.52
B12	Native speaking teachers are more effective teachers for language students.	4	28	60	8	2.72
B13	I agree that if government or institute wants to hire native speaking teachers from English-speaking countries, they are better than Iranian teachers.	4	24	60	12	2.8
B14	The bilingual non-native speaking teachers learning English in an English speaking country	32	52	12	4	1.88

	are better models for students in learning English compared to NS teachers.				
B15	Learning English is for communication purposes. Native-like pronunciation is less important.	12	44	36	8	2.4
B16	Learning English is for communication purposes. Correct grammar is less important.	12	52	32	4	2.28
B17	I will encourage my students to try to use English, not to mind native-like pronunciation.	36	52	8	4	1.8
B18	I will encourage my students to try to use English, not to mind grammar.	32	60	8		1.76

Note: Total number of respondent is 25.

Questions B9 and B10 address two major implications of EIL in teaching English. They thought that they should teach books written by native speakers which contained culture but they shouldn't focus on English-speaking countries' cultures. So, cultural knowledge was not as important as language proficiency to the respondents, in terms of subject competence. Questions B11 to B14 looked into teachers' attitudes towards English proficiency and pedagogical competence in teaching English, and their attitudes towards NS teachers. The data analysis of this section contributed to our understanding of these Iranian English teachers' professional confidence in their competence and contribution in teaching English, when compared with NS English teachers; their pedagogical advantage; and their emphasis on it for professional growth activities.

Questions B13 and B14 were modified in the pilot study and the highest mean score was achieved in B13 which showed teachers' confidence in their professional competence. B13 was one way of knowing teachers' evaluation of NS teachers' professional competence in teaching English. The result showed that 72% of the respondents disagreed that the government should hire NS teachers to work in schools. An important clue to this result can be found in the result of Question B12, which was designed to understand teachers' evaluation of NS teachers' teaching effectiveness with Iranian students. The result showed that most respondents did not agree that NS teachers were more effective language teachers. This attitude was further confirmed by the result of Question B14, where most respondents believed that Iranian teachers were better models for their students in learning English. They were aware of the benefit of their competency in teaching English. They knew how to make good use of their pedagogical advantage, and they put more emphasis on it for professional growth activities.

Questions B15 to B18 were about an argument in EIL: should the purpose of learning English be to achieve intelligibility in communication rather than to achieve language proficiency and accuracy? More than half of the respondents believed that the purpose for learning English was to achieve successful communication; standard pronunciation or grammar was not critical to successful communication (question B15 and B16) and they encouraged their students to try to use English as much as they could, regardless of native-like pronunciation or grammatical correctness (question B17 and B18). This contrasted with the results achieved before in questions B1 to B6 in which they emphasized teaching correct English. This tolerance of errors may be a strategy to motivate students to practice more for a better command of the target language (Liou, 2008).

When we look at the relationship between respondents' positive perception of their teaching job and expectation of their native-like English proficiency as well as their students' proficiency, we can see a strong link between them.

4.2. Analysis of the interview

The interview was about teachers' initial training and their sense of professionalism as an English teacher. Participants graduated from teacher training centers and believed they possess a good command of English, achieved during their training as an English teacher in teaching training center. They felt themselves competent both linguistically and pedagogically because of the courses they had to pass in teacher training center that had made them ready for their job in the future. One of these teachers stated that *"Since we had teaching courses in the teacher training center, I think we know how to teach better than other teachers and those initial training made a huge difference between us and others".(P 01)*

In these cases, what teachers studied before being a teacher, i.e., their professional competence prepared them to become a language teacher.

The way tests are constructed in schools and national examinations had become part of their expected professional competence. That is national tests are based on 'standard' English and the most important parts are grammar and vocabulary, so, English cannot be taught and learned as an international language in Iran.

Teachers clearly demonstrate an understanding of the general desire among people to learn 'standard English'. This social expectation may have a strong influence on their sense of their subject competence, i.e. teachers should be able to deliver successfully the teaching of Standard English.

5. Discussion

The results of this study showed that the formative years' experience, students' preferences in learning English were primary factors that influenced teachers' sense of subject competence The questionnaire survey reports showed that the respondents had a strong confidence in their professional competence. They perceived that teaching English was a respectable job in Iranian society. The interview data also showed that the participants had a strong sense of their pedagogical competence in teaching English when compared to NS teachers.

Iran's English language teachers' considered teaching 'standard English' an important objective even though their pronunciation was non-native-like. They wanted their students to learn native-like English and a strong and consistent commitment to Standard English among most of the participants influenced their sense of subject competence. They believed cultural knowledge was not as important as language proficiency to the respondents, in terms of subject competence. In addition to revealing their sense of subject competence, teachers' interaction with institutional policies revealed that they intended to attend conferences or other professional development activities for their professional growth despite not being appreciated enough by their schools. The data analysis shows that in Iran, many factors affect English teachers' attitudes toward English, and some are challenging the acceptance of EIL. The data analysis showed participants' reflections on and responses to EIL were derived from their perception of their professional role and teaching competence, and their concerns for their students' achievement in learning English.

6. Conclusion

"The main variable in determining the success of methodological innovation is teacher attitude. If teachers view a change as threatening, they will resist it; if they see it as enhancing their role or facilitating their performance, they will support it" (Tomlinson, 2005, p. 142). So, educational innovation, such as the implementation of the notion of EIL in teaching English will have to go through the filter of teachers' endorsement (Tomlinson, 2005). With this in mind and assuming that the introduction of EIL may broaden Iranian language teachers' view of their position and profession in world Englishes, the researchers came to this conclusion that students' and teachers' limited exposure to other English varieties has made EIL in teaching English a challenge. There may be more practical problems in implementing EIL in teaching practice, which should be investigated in future studies.

What led the study to this conclusion was that teachers' sense of their professional competence (what they have to know and teach) may determine their attitude towards the

innovations in their teaching. That is since they did feel themselves obliged to stick to Standard English and since they felt themselves competent pedagogically when compared to Native speaker teachers, they didn't accept notion of EIL in their English teaching practice. They displayed a highly positive self-image of their role as an English teaching professional feeling free from focus on English-speaking countries' cultures.

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APPENDIX A   Interview Questions:

1- Could you talk about how you became an English teacher?

2- What makes a good English language teacher?

3- What does teaching English mean to you?

4- What do you enjoy most in your teaching job?

5- What are the most difficult problems (or frustration) you have in your teaching job? Have you sorted out any solutions? How?

6- How has your practice changed over time?

7- Could you talk about what the goal of your teaching is?

8- Could you talk about your students?

9- Why do your students learn English? For what purpose?

10- What's your opinion about NS teachers?

11- Do you perceive any differences between you and NS English teachers?

12- Would you encourage your students to attend NS teachers' classes?

13- Is the department support for your teaching adequate?

14- In your opinion, what do people think about learning 'English' in Iran?

15- How would you see yourself as an English teacher, in terms of English as an international language? How much do you know about English as an international language?

The development of EIL:

1- How would you see yourself as an English teacher, in terms of English as an international language?

2- Given what you have learned from the EIL information session, could you tell me what you think about the notions of EIL? Will it cause any change to your teaching practice? Why?

3- Would you be happy to accept EIL and ideas about variation and consequently change the way you view your own use of English?

4- What do you think your students' attitude is to whether or not you, as their teacher, speak like a native speaker or speak with an L1 accent? Would they mind? Would you mind?

5- In thinking about spoken English, given our L2 is often influenced by our L1, would you mind if you spoke English with your L1 accent? Have you tended to work on developing an accent that is not recognisably Persian?

6- What is your view about the importance of accent for you?

7- Would you introduce other English varieties in your teaching? Why?

8- If English is going in the direction of diverse varieties, do you think this diminishes the importance of standard English?

9- Would it be more interesting teaching EIL (that is, an English that recognized variety depending on context) than formal English?

10- Do you think it would motivate your students?

11- Could the ideas of EIL be used to develop a new curriculum? Should they be used?

12- Would you feel comfortable using EIL ideas (i.e. to teach, and accept variety) in your classroom?

13- What are the issues raised in the development of EIL for you in your teaching? Do you think the notions of EIL and teaching implications will be acceptable to teachers in your institute? Will it cause any change to your teaching?

Title

Iranian EFL Learners' Attitudes towards CALL

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Abstract

What the body of CALL research today needs is a full description of the context and its people, in addition to a complete understanding of what tasks learners perform with computers, how they perform them and what it means to them. Part of the implementation of technology and computers in any language context also involves studying variables of teacher and student attitude. The investigation of learners' attitudes illustrates how beneficial computers can be for learning a second/foreign language. The present study, therefore, intended to survey the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards their individual implementation of CALL and to identify the factors underlying their attitudes. It also aimed at exploring the kinds of practices which Iranian EFL learners use in order to learn English through computer. The findings demonstrated that computer use for the purpose of language learning is highly welcomed in the Iranian context of EFL education, but as evidence shows, a reasonable level of computer knowledge for both students and teachers is needed to be reached in advance. Since Iranian students think that computers can improve their FL learning, it is recommended that further research try to find whether computer-assisted instruction guarantees greater success in language learning or not.

Keywords: CALL, Learners' Attitudes, Computer Practices, Foreign Language Learning

1. Introduction

As the time passes, our world becomes more and more computerized. Computers and more importantly the Internet are means of facilitating the everyday life of their users. Information technology in addition to the ability to use it determines the amount of wealth, power, and knowledge in any single society (Castells, 1998, p.92). Computer technologies are considered to provide a suitable ground for educational and academic purposes; and the field of language teaching and learning is not an exception.

Since 1960s that the computers were employed for language education, the term Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) was used to refer to "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (Levy, 1997, p.1). But in the latest definitions which are broader in respect to the relationship between computer technologies and language learning, the meaning of CALL is transferred to language learning "in any context with, through, and around computer technologies" (Egbert, 2005, p.4).

Table 1. Restricted, Open and Integrated CALL: an outline

Content	Type of task	Teacher attitudes	Position in curriculum	Physical position of Computer
Restricted CALL **Language system**	Closed drills Quizzes	Exaggerated fear and/ or awe	Not integrated into syllabus—optional extra	Separate computer lab
Open CALL **System and skills**	Simulations Games CMC	Exaggerated fear and/or awe	Toy Not integrated into syllabus—optional extra	Separate lab— perhaps devoted to languages
Integrated CALL **Integrated language skills work Mixed skills and system**	CMC WP e-mail	Normal part of teaching— normalized	Tool for learning Normalized integrated into syllabus, adapted to learners' needs	In every classroom, on every desk, in every bag

(Based on Bax, 2003)

As technology mingles rapidly with every aspect of human life, it becomes more invisible in the eyes of its users. The field of language learning, however, is an exception. This is where the use of technology is not yet commonplace. The recent computerized technologies used for language learning and assessment are seen as strange entities to be discovered and studied on and even to be afraid of. Therefore, the need is for educators and practitioners to become aware of the current practices in the domain of computer assisted learning. Bax (2003) asserts that the state of normalization definitely demands a change "in attitudes, in approach and

practice amongst teachers and learners" as a prerequisite to its full integration into language learning and teaching, into the organizational processes and educational curriculums (p.27).

Having a close look at Bax's (2003) categorization (Table 1), we are currently in the Open phase of CALL which is relatively *open* in all dimensions. This open phase, however, does not in no way correspond to an open attitude from teachers, administrators or students. In fact, many restricted features can be seen in the present stage. Hence, there is still a long way to the true integration of CALL within language instruction, education, and learning.

The ultimate goal for CALL is to become invisible or as Bax (2003) calls it, to become normalized. Warschauer (1999) gives a clear illustration of what he means by invisible, explaining that we have no "BALL" (to stand for book-assisted language learning), no PALL (pen-assisted language learning), or no LALL (library-assisted language learning). The prospect of the disappearance of the term CALL is what Bax (2003) strongly believes in and is waiting for.

The notable concern here is how it is possible to get to the normalization stage. The logical suggestion may be to plan for and move towards this general aim. There are several steps involved in the way of achieving this goal: first, to identify the critical requirements; second, to examine the practice of socio-culturally distinctive educational contexts; and third, to qualify the current practice in order to get to the very state of normalization. This study, therefore, tries to move in parallel with the current line of enquiry and to promisingly make a significant contribution to the identification of CALL practice in the socio-cultural context of Iran.

1.1 CALL and Culture

A number of scientists such as Negroponte (1995) or Rheingold (1993) tended to portray computers as culturally neutral tools which *always* encourage language learning. In contrast, many other researchers maintained that computers cannot and should not be considered culturally neutral. Thus, they started to study the cultural particularities of computer-mediated learning (Bowers, 2000; Jones, 2004; Reeder et al., 2004; etc.).

According to Kern (2006) "what may be natural values to those who are well socialized into computer culture may seem quite foreign to those who are not" (p.190). A good example can be a comparison between developed and developing countries. In fact, computer-based language practices and global computer uses in the United States are totally different both in quantity and quality from that of a context like Iran in which computer use is not yet commonplace, specifically in the area of language instruction. Even in a single community

the attitudes toward using computers may vary considering the fact that different groups of people have different degrees of access to technology (Dutton, 2004; Warschauer, 2003).

The idea of cross-cultural differences in the application of CALL has been constantly explored by many researchers (e.g., Brander, 2005; Furstenberg, 2003; Gray & Stockwell, 1998; Kern, 1996; Osuna, 2000). The results bring us to the need for even more cultural, anthropological, and ethnographic studies of this type. The importance of such explorations gets more priority when we consider the great amount of technology-mediated language learning taken place outside of educational environments across disparate social contexts.

1.2 CALL Practices

Current practices in the field of CALL can be divided into two main categories: CALL software, and the Internet. A large number of software programs have been presented since the utilization of computers for language learning purposes, e. g. pronunciation programs, games, text reconstruction programs, writing programs, and computerized dictionaries.

Recent technological developments have reshaped the role of computers in language learning. They were formerly used only for drills and exercises. Today, however, there are a myriad of multimedia and concordancing software and a large language corpus on the Internet which allow learners to practice, investigate, and communicate in authentic target language contexts.

Doubtlessly the Internet as the growing phenomenon of the 21st century has altered the use of computers for the purpose of language learning. Warschauer and Healey (1998) contend that "with the arrival of the Internet, the computer has been transformed from a tool for information processing and display to a tool for information processing and communication" (p.63).

Certain changes in communication such as email, instant messaging, chat rooms, blogs, etc. indisputably have affected the ways people learn, teach, and use language. What has emerged as a result of such a tectonic shift is a new form of discourse, authorship, and identity construction (Kern, 2006).

With the World Wide Web, one of the most revolutionary media in human history, learners now have an unlimited access to the online resources as well as the opportunity to communicate with other learners or speakers of the target language all over the world. The Web, consequently, plays a crucial role in the future of education in general and language learning in particular.

This is what some call technological determinism. That is, technology automatically affects the ways languages should be learned. Chris Dede (1997) provides his readers with an

interesting metaphor. He declares that computers generate learning the way that a fire generates warmth. But we should know that there is a discernible distinction between computers *causing* learning outcomes and computers *enabling* new learning processes and outcomes.

Today, the subject of electronic literacies has given a new direction to the educational path. It is highly believed that the ability to read, write, and communicate effectively over computer networks is an indispensable part of successful language learning. As an example, for language learners to effortlessly explore and interpret the vast amount of online language materials, they have to develop electronic literacy. How much Iranian EFL learners do possess such literacy and in what ways it specifies their attitudes towards computer use remains an issue to be probed into.

The new generation of computerized media, admittedly helps learners to develop new literacies and even new identities. Students perform real-life tasks on the Internet or solve their real-life problems. Not only they are able to read and write in order to learn the language, they also can read their own subject of interest or write in order to accomplish a personal goal. As Freire and Macedo (1987) express it, literacy is not only about "reading the word" but also about "reading the world".

From a compelling point of view, though, it is not the electronic literacy which is needed for language learning but the other way around. Therefore, effective use of computers for language learning "is no longer a matter of using email and the Internet to help teach English but is increasingly directed at teaching English to help people learn to write email and use the Internet" (Warschauer, 2004, p.6).

Kern (2006) categorizes the role of technology in CALL as being that of a tutor, tool, or medium. Computers as tutors provide instruction, feedback and assessment in grammar, vocabulary, writing, pronunciation, etc. This is what we can see now in language learning software in the form of CDs or online-based programs.

The role that computers play as tools constitutes an easy access to a great amount of written, audio or visual materials and also reference tools such as dictionaries, style checkers and concordances. Finally, the medium role of technology can be defined with regard to a vast number of online sites for interpersonal communication, multimedia publication, distance learning, community participation, and identity formation (Kern, 2006, pp.191–192). Accordingly, another relevant and interesting subject matter to explore can be the most common role of technology as is currently observable in Iranian context of language learning.

Today the growing role of computers in education highly encourages self-access and self-directed language learning situations. In a time when teachers are not the sole sources of knowledge any more, students – as active participants – have the responsibility for exploring and re-creating the language for themselves. In such circumstances great attention must be paid to what students can do as independent learners out of the classroom. In fact, a significant aspect of CALL is the autonomy that it equips students with. According to Kennedy and Levy (2009) "supporting outside-class practice reflects the concern to support students' development as independent, strategic learners" (p.449).

Since the employment of computers for the purpose of language learning in Iran is mostly restricted to students' individual out-of-class use, their attitudes towards CALL must be determined accordingly. There is a considerable need to survey the attitudes of those EFL learners who use computer aids by themselves out of classroom.

Another common though inaccurate belief is the assumption that only the use of computers in any form or shape improves language learning. Such an interpretation has its roots in an attempt to answer this question: "Do computers improve language learning?" It is good to know that the answer is not always straightforward; sometimes they do for some learners and in some special contexts. Accrediting this, Zhao (2003) suggests that it is not technology itself which is effective but the specific ways in which it is used. So the right question to ask might be "In which context, for what purpose, and for whom the use of computers is considered to be fruitful?"

As mentioned before, one of the important steps toward normalization is examining the socio-cultural aspects of computer use. But research on students' perceptions on the use of educational technology for learning in the Iranian language learning context seems to be lacking.

This study, thereupon, focuses on students' attitudes as an attempt to address these questions in a particular instructional context – Iran – in order to identify any possible obstacle to the integration of CALL, to see whether there exists a suitable ground for the introduction of computerized language instruction to the educational context of Iran and hopefully to offer some credible propositions.

2. A Look at Previous Work

A great amount of research has been done on the usefulness of computers for language learning. Some studies show that computers truly improve language learning and some others

suggest that the results are mainly depended on learner-related variables. Yet in almost every study, learners' attitudes towards the use of computers for the purpose of language learning are measured as positive. Even when the students do not show any improvement, they still like to work with computers (Scholnik et al., 1995/96; Stenson et al., 1992).

There exist a large number of studies on students' attitudes toward computer instruction in many branches of education. Sanders and Morrison-Shetlar (2001), for example, examined students' attitudes towards web-enhanced instruction in a biology course. Or Kahveci (2010) investigated students' perceptions to use technology for learning mathematics. In the field of language learning, in particular, we also can find a great number of studies doing the same.

Stevens (1991), for instance, argues that even Arab students who previously assumed to benefit from rote learning, enjoyed using computers in a self-access resource center and they overall had little difficulty in the program. The more they used the computers, the more their attitudes became positive.

Brett (1996) provides an explanation as to how the desirable attitudes of 107 undergraduate students toward a multimedia language learning program resulted in the decisions regarding the replacement of some undergraduate contact hours with the CALL program. The results showed that learners could learn more effectively and independently.

Klassen and Milton (1999) also observed a significant improvement in listening comprehension between students who used a multimedia CD-ROM as a basis for their program. The results also showed their positive attitude toward this new mode of learning.

Another research by Bai (2009) which involved three classes of second-year non-English university students revealed the following results. All the students preferred English teaching assisted by multimedia approaches. However, just 58% of the interviewees confessed that they make efforts both in class and after class to learn English. 30% said that their learning outcomes were not proportionate to their efforts. And still the rest claimed that they became distracted by superficial features of multimedia course such as movie clips or songs.

In addition to observing the learners' attitudes, many researchers attempted to discover the factors which could result in more positive feelings towards computers. For example, in an attempt to discover motivational factors for computer use, Warshauer (1996) found that experienced students in using computers and electronic mail had more positive attitudes towards CALL. The survey was done with 167 university students as the participants who used computer for writing and communication.

In another study, Holmes (1998) concluded that Japanese first-year university students generally agreed on the benefits of CALL and enjoyed using computers to learn English.

However, the writer emphasizes that "the real advantage of using technology in class was linked to the students' goals of communicating internationally" (Holmes, 1998, p.397).

Ayres (2002) also reports the attitudes of the students in UNITEC School of English and Applied Linguistics towards CALL as positive. The study then investigates the relationship between the usefulness of CALL and the students' level of computer literacy, language level, and age.

Fernandez (2005) tried to investigate whether learners' familiarization with computers in particular can improve their attitudes towards CALL. Fifty Spanish students who were taught English through a CALL program demonstrated generally higher positive attitudes than those who lacked such training.

Akbulut (2008) states that among freshman foreign language students at a Turkish university, having a PC at home, enough experience in working with computers, and Internet use were the variables which created more positive attitudes towards CALL.

According to Yuan (2008), implementing CALL in the classroom in the form of an electronic copy of the textbook or the display of technology is useless. Investigating the learners' needs and a complete correspondence between learners' styles and the curriculum are of great necessity. In his research, 137 Chinese language learners enrolled in a technology-enhanced language learning (TELL) program. Students' learning styles considered to be a good predicator for their attitudes towards TELL.

Even in the area of testing we can see learners' positive attitudes toward technology-mediated tests. As an example, Kenyon and Malabonga (2001) compared undergraduate students' attitudinal reactions toward Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview (SOPI), and Computerized Oral Proficiency Interview (COPI). The results revealed students' greater positive attitudes toward computer-mediated testing in comparison with face-to-face interview or the audio taped one. The reason for this preference was that they had more control over the tasks, and they could choose among a wide range of tasks which involved their interests and background experiences.

In almost all of the above mentioned studies, the researchers had to assign a specific course to CALL to set up the necessary condition. This shows that the application of computers for language teaching and learning is not yet commonplace. It practically takes several years for CALL to become normalized (Bax, 2003). This is certainly the case in highly developed countries. In similar vein, many developing countries (e. g. Iran) in which using computers for education is not common, are still struggling for introducing the benefits of computers to language teachers and learners.

Moreover, not all schools and institutions around the world can afford expensive software for language teaching. So they mostly use them as a supplement to instruction or they place them in libraries as extra resources. In language learning settings at the developing countries also there rarely is a special course dedicated to CALL. The reason ranges from the lack of teacher training in CALL and administrators' unfamiliarity with the subject to financial and technical deficiencies. Considering these two problems, there is a considerable need to survey the attitudes of those EFL learners who use computer aids by themselves out of classroom.

3. Significance of the Study

CALL practitioners find it mandatory to employ cross-disciplinary perspectives (e.g. psycholinguistics, psychology, human-computer interaction, individual differences, etc.) in studying different aspects of computer use in language learning (Chapelle, 1997, p.19). Taking a psychological stance, learners' attitudes form part of their perception of self, of others, and of the culture in which they are living. It is clear that in the process of language learning, they benefit from whatever which creates positive attitude. And computers have been previously proved to have such an advantage (Bai, 2009; Brett, 1996; Klassen & Milton, 1999; Stevens, 1991; etc.). Consequently, exploring learners' attitudes towards computers can be an important part of any CALL practice.

The investigation of learners' attitudes illustrates how beneficial computers can be for learning a second/foreign language. A review of the previous studies reveals that gender, race/ethnicity, age, and prior computer experience are among the probable factors which may influence computer attitude (Sanders & Morrison-Shetlar, 2001). Accordingly, examining these attitudes can always be a main part of the studies which aim at exploring computer use in language learning.

Furthermore, it is quite simplistic to assume that CALL is just about technology and computer software. As a matter of fact, a great part of the implementation of technology and computers in any language context involves many other areas; among them are teachers and students' attitudes. For this reason, the kind of ethnographic studies are always welcomed. Motteram (1999) and Chambers (2000), for instance, assert that there is a need for conscientious qualitative analyses of CALL in different contexts with an eye to cultural factors.

As far as the researcher knows, no study has been conducted on the computer attitudes of Iranian EFL learners. The findings of this study can highlight Iranian EFL learners' amount of computer use which in turn reflects their attitudes towards CALL.

What the body of CALL research today needs is a full description of the context and its people, in addition to a complete understanding of what tasks learners perform with computers, how they perform them and what it means to them.

The findings of the present study can shed some light on the ways computers are used by the Iranian EFL students and the role of computer technology in the process of language learning, along with the influential factors which enhance their positive attitudes towards computer use and eventually encourage learning.

This study, therefore, is an attempt to find the most effective ways in which computers can potentially foster language learning in Iranian context and to suggest how these ways can be included in the syllabus by both teachers and administrators. Thus the results will hopefully be beneficial to EFL teachers as well as syllabus designers. If positive attitude is observed and if it is found that Iranian EFL learners are motivated to use computer for the purpose of language learning, suggestions could be made as to the ways in which computer practices can be promoted and proposed by teachers.

4. Objectives and Research Questions

In studying the effects of attitudes on SLA, social context is always considered as an important factor (Siegel, 2005). As Warshauer (2002) says, "attitudes about information and communication technologies differ greatly in different parts of the world." This study, therefore, intends to survey the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards their individual implementation of CALL and to identify the factors underlying their attitudes.

Computerized language learning also brings with itself a higher level of motivation (see for example Armour-Thomas, White, & Boehm, 1987; Brown, 1986; Chapelle & Jamieson, 1986; Fox, 1988; Hicken, Sullivan, & Klein, 1992; Mosley, 1984; Perez & White, 1985; Peterson & Sellers, 1992; Relan, 1992; Williams, 1993). And one of the important motivating factors is the *individualized* nature of computer-assisted learning. Hence, the study tries to probe a number of independent variables such as gender, age, and computer knowledge which may induce a range of differences in students' motivation for the use of technology.

Overall, the present study intends to survey the kinds of practices which Iranian EFL learners use in order to learn English through computer. It also aims at investigating their

attitudes towards computer-aided language learning. Those aspects which may create more positive attitudes will be identified accordingly. Finally, the writer is interested in finding the probable factors underlying the learners' attitudes. Therefore, it is necessary to address the following questions:

1. What types of computer practices are used by Iranian EFL learners of language institutes?

2. What are the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards using computers?

3. What aspects of using a computer for language learning create more positive attitudes among Iranian EFL learners?

4. What are the factors which influence Iranian EFL learners' computer attitudes?

5. Method

5.1. Participants

This study surveyed 90 intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL students of two private institutes in Shiraz namely Fakher Language Institute and South Industrial Management Insitute. The students were both male and female and they were of different ages ranging from 17 to 46. Since availability is of concern, the participants were selected using convenience sampling.

5.2. Instrument

The participants were given an English questionnaire (see Appendix). The questionnaire was based on a survey administered by Warshauer (1996). It consisted of three parts. In the first part, the participants had to provide their personal information including age, gender, computer knowledge, whether they had a computer at home, and the amount of using the Internet.

Next, the information was gathered about the kind of computer practices that EFL students use. This section involved another question asking about the kind and the amount of Internet practice by the same students.

Finally, 25 statements were presented which were related to participants' feelings about computer use. However, some items were eliminated from the original version and some others were revised in accordance with the context of the study. The first 11 were related to the use of computers for interpersonal communication. And the final 14 represented general feelings about using computers. All the questions were answered on a five-point Likert scale, with 5 being the highest score. Six out of 25 items were reverse coded later.

The questionnaire was administered in advance by five EFL students as a sample group. They all believed that the questions were appropriate in terms of appearance, number of items, and content. Therefore, the test was valid as far as the face validity was concerned. The content validity also was confirmed by three assistant professors at Shiraz University. As for the reliability, two different persons analyzed the same data and the results were approved by an English Professor later. The existence of reverse-coded questions also could guarantee the consistency of the responses to some extent.

5.3. Data Collection

The students were handed the questionnaires during one class period. The necessary instructions were given at the beginning in their mother tongue indicating that the survey was anonymous. They were given as much time as they needed. They also were allowed to use a dictionary or ask questions if they had problems with any vocabulary.

5.4. Data Analysis

The SPSS 16.0 for windows was used for analyzing the data. First, in order to figure out the type of computer use, eight one-sample t-tests were conducted for CALL practices including listening English, watching films, writing in English, using electronic dictionaries, reading English texts, chatting, emailing, and using language learning websites. Next, a descriptive analysis based on 25 Likert scale questions clearly revealed whether students' attitudes towards CALL were positive or not. Then, for grouping the questions together a factor analysis was conducted following by a rotation which made the output more understandable and the interpretation easier. Finally, in order to determine the factors which influence students' computer attitudes, two independent-sample t-tests for gender and computer at home in addition to a one-way ANOVA for the variable of age were conducted. The analysis for "having a computer home" was not done because the majority of the participants (N=89) had a computer. Also, correlations were examined between two continuous variables of computer knowledge and amount of Internet use, and the total scores in the questionnaire. Finally, a multiple regression analysis was carried out to find any causal relationship.

6. Results

Following the necessary analyses, the upcoming results were obtained in accordance with each of the proposed research questions.

6.1. RQ1: What type of computer practices are used by Iranian EFL learners of language institutes?

For each one of the eight computer practices (listening to English conversations, watching films/videos in English, writing in English via word processing software, using electronic dictionaries, reading English texts, chatting in English, e-mailing in English, and practicing English in language learning websites), three codes were assigned ranging from 0 for "never" to 2 for "a lot". In order to determine the ones which were used the most, eight one-sample t-tests were conducted with a Bonferroni Adjustment which reduced the significance level from 0.05 to 0.006. The frequency of use for each practice was compared to the neutral value of 1. The results showed that the participants mostly use their computers for watching films (X=1.378; t=5.147; p<0.006), and looking up their electronic dictionaries (X=1.333; t=4.137; p<0.006). They rarely chat in English (X=0.678; t=-4.365; p<0.006), or practice through language learning websites (X=0.667; t=-4.399; p<0.006). Their use of other four computer habits was found not to be significant. In addition, no difference was found between males and females for any of the two common and the two uncommon practices.

6.2. RQ2: What are the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards using computers?

For the purpose of analyzing the students' attitudes, first, six items (No. 3, 5, 16, 21, 24, 25) were scored reversely. The mean attitude score for all students on all questions was calculated to be 3.819 (p<0.05); significantly higher than the neutral score of 3. Only four students showed slightly lower attitudes towards computer use (X_1=2.880; X_2=2.840; X_3=2.800; X_4=2.080).

Mean scores on all the statements except one were higher than neutral (see Appendix). On the statement 5, the students preferred to contact their teacher in person rather than by e-mail (X=2.322). Eight statements also received the most positive responses (see Table 2).

Table 2. Statements with the highest mean scores

Statement	Mean
An advantage of e-mail is you can contact people any time you want.	
Using a computer is worth the time and effort.	4.278
Learning how to use computers is important for my career.	4.144
I enjoy using the computer to communicate with people around the	4.144
world.	4.100
Communicating by e-mail is a good way to improve my English.	4.067
I enjoy using the computer to communicate with my	4.056
classmates/friends.	4.056
I will use computers for my English learning in future.	4.011
Learning to use a computer gives me a feeling of accomplishment.	

Items 9, 10, and 23 also were given high responses near to 4.000.

6.3. RQ3: What aspects of using a computer for language learning create more positive attitudes among Iranian EFL learners?

A factor analysis was carried out to determine the items which grouped together. KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.692 which was greater than 0.60 needed for a good factor analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity also was significant ($p<0.05$) which showed that the analysis was appropriate. Eight factors with eigenvalues over 1 were extracted and rotated accordingly. However, only four factors (learning, communication, attainment, and empowerment) were chosen to be presented since they were more relevant to the question at hand (see Table 3).

6.4. RQ4: What are the factors which influence Iranian EFL learners' computer attitudes?

First, correlations were examined between students' self-reported computer knowledge and the amount of Internet use, and the mean attitude score (X=3.819). Both computer knowledge and Internet use correlated significantly with the overall attitude at $p<0.05$. The two factors together contributed for 36.8 % of the variance as revealed by a multiple regression test. But only the variable of computer knowledge could predict the variance in computer attitude scores (see Table 4).

Table 3. Factor analysis

Extracted Items (Eigenvalue)	Loadings
Learning (6.014)	
14. Using a computer gives me more chances to read and use authentic English.	0.817
13. Writing by computer makes me more creative.	0.642
15. I will use computers for my English learning in future.	0.627
11. Communicating by e-mail is a good way to improve my English.	0.579
10. Using e-mail and the Internet is a good way to learn more about different people and cultures.	0.498
Communication (2.142)	
2. I enjoy using the computer to communicate with people around the world.	0.789
1. I enjoy using the computer to communicate with my classmates/friends.	0.730
4. I enjoy using the computer to communicate with my teacher.	0.650
9. Using e-mail and the Internet makes me feel part of a community.	0.522
Attainment (1.866)	

22. I can learn English faster when I use a computer.	0.767
23. Using a computer gives me more chances to practice English.	0.705
17. Using a computer gives me more control over my learning.	0.507
19. Learning how to use computers is important for my career.	0.475
Empowerment (1.646)	
25. Computers make people strong and powerful.	0.771
24. Computers are not frustrating to work with.	0.760
21. Computers keep people close to each other.	0.693

Table 4. Correlation with overall attitude and multiple regression analysis

Personal factors	Correlation	Sig.	R^2	Standardized coefficients (Beta)	Sig.
Computer knowledge	0.601*	0.000	0.368*	0.550*	0.000
Internet use	0.383*	0.000		0.098	0.329

*Significant at p<0.05

Second, in order to find whether gender, age or a combination of the two has any relationship with the total attitude, one independent t-test for gender in addition to a one-way ANOVA test for age and a two-way ANOVA test for gender*age were conducted. None of them showed any significant relationship with the mean attitude at p<0.05 (see Table 5).

Table 5. Mean attitude score by gender and age

Group	Frequency	Percent	Mean
Male			
17-24	25	57%	3.794
25-35	15	34%	3.739
36+	4	9%	3.930
Total	44	100%	
Female			
17-24	18	39%	3.960
25-35	28	61%	3.779
Total	46	100%	

7. Discussion

The fact that Iranian EFL learners mostly use their computers for watching films and checking dictionaries and yet most of them (35.6%) use the Internet more than 11 hours a week shows that they are not well aware of the learning opportunities which are provided by the World Wide Web.

The results showed that Iranian students of English in general have positive attitudes towards CALL. This is evident from their individual attitude scores as well. Except for four, all the other participants considered using computers as positive. They indicated their positive feelings even on those six questions which were reverse coded. Including these six items in the questionnaire as well as emphasizing the anonymity of the survey could rectify the claim that their responses were based on what they thought was the best answer.

The factors underlying the students' positive responses – which Warshauer (1996) calls motivating factors – differ greatly from those found by Warshauer (1996) himself or by Akbulut (2008). Therefore, it seems that motivating factors for using computers vary from one context into another. In the case of Iranians, the strongest factor was learning. They think that through computers, they can read more authentic English texts, write more creatively, even learn about people and cultures, and overall improve their English.

In the second place, communication is of great importance for them. Building relationships with other people, their friends, and their teacher make them feel part of a virtual community. This orientation can help in driving them into communicating with native speakers of English as well as non-natives through chatting or e-mailing.

The third factor reveals that they have strong motivations for successful learning. They think that computers give them more chances to practice English at a higher pace, and by using it they will have more control over their learning process. The forth item in the current category (learning how to use computers is important for my career) can be considered somehow irrelevant to the previous three. However, the four items together contribute for the feeling of achievement.

The last factor is empowerment which indicates that Iranian students do not reject working with computers. As a matter of fact they think that computers make people strong and keep them close together.

Considering personal differences which may cause different attitudes toward computer use, the results clearly show that those learners with higher knowledge of computer and greater amount of Internet use have more positive attitudes. Those four students who had negative attitudes towards CALL appeared to have poor knowledge of computer but not necessarily use the Internet a little. It must be mentioned that information on these two variables were self-reported and cannot be completely relied upon.

As for age and gender, the participants didn't exhibit any significant difference. It is assumed that both male and female Iranian EFL learners, no matter how old they are, do believe that computers and the Internet are advantageous to them.

8. Conclusion

Computer Assisted Language Learning is not a new subject. Its usefulness has been proved by many researchers around the world. However, there are a few academic discussions on CALL in Iranian context. The present study, therefore, attempted to figure out what are the Iranian EFL learners' attitudes towards CALL. A local survey on English students revealed that like many other countries, Iranian EFL learners – from both genders and of different ages – also have positive attitudes towards using computers for the purpose of language leaning. But as evidence shows, a reasonable level of computer knowledge for both students and teachers is needed to be reached in advance.

Iranian EFL students use the computer mostly as a tool ignoring or to say it better being unaware of its role as a medium or as a tutor in the language learning context. Therefore, teachers have a great responsibility in introducing language-learning offline or online programs (e.g. instructional software and websites and even CMC programs); however, the introduction of multimedia software or web-enhanced language programs to language learners is not a responsibility that teachers can undertake without the necessary training. As Kern (2006) asserts, "Because the dynamics of interaction in online environments differ from those in face-to-face interactions, teachers must be prepared for new ways of structuring tasks" (p. 200).

The study shows that Iranian English learners positively tend to use computers for language learning out of classroom. Since the concept of "new literacies" is of paramount importance in the present applications of computers for learning a language; students must form their new identities in dealing with the new contexts and the new types of literacy which needs the ability to find, select, and interpret net-based information. Additionally, Iranian EFL learners are well interested in communicating with native speakers of English; therefore, CMC programs can be held in order to foster their linguistic capabilities.

To sum up, computer use for the purpose of language learning is highly welcomed in the Iranian context of EFL education. Based on the findings of the current study, it is proposed that teachers contribute to the expansion of computer use and the authorities fund classrooms equipped with computers.

Nevertheless, replications are required to approve the results of this study. Same studies can be carried out with the students at the university level. Further investigations on the application of CALL in Iranian context and the relationship between different learning styles

and students' desire to use computers for language learning will certainly be needed. Since Iranian students think that computers can improve their L2 learning, it is recommended that further research try to find whether computer-assisted instruction guarantees greater success in language learning or not.

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Appendix

Dear Friend,

The following survey has been designed to diagnose your overall attitudes regarding language learning activities through computers rather than for the purposes of personal evaluation. There is therefore no need to identify yourself by name, and your anonymity in responding to these questions will be safeguarded. We shall be most grateful for time and care you give to answering all of these questions, which will enable us to accurately evaluate the results. Thank you for assisting us in this research study.

A)Age: --------------**Sex:**   Male   Female **Do you have a computer at home?**   Yes   No

Please rate your knowledge of computers:

   Poor   Fair   Good   Very good   Excellent

How many hours <u>per week</u> do you use the Internet?

   Less than 2 hours   2-5 hours   6-8 hours   9-11 hours   More than 11 hours

B)What do you use <u>the computer</u> for and how often?

	a lot	a little	never
Listen to English conversations			
Watch films/videos in English			
Write in English via word processing software (e.g. Microsoft Office Word)			
Use electronic dictionaries			

What do you use <u>the Internet</u> for and how often?

	a lot	a little	never
Read English texts			
Chat in English			
Write e-mails in English			
Practice English in language learning websites			

C)Please read each statement and choose the one that best describes how you feel about that statement:

	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I enjoy using the computer to communicate with my classmates/friends.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2	I enjoy using the computer to communicate with people around the world.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3	I am more afraid to contact people by e-mail than in person.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4	I enjoy using the computer to communicate with my teacher.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5	If I have a question or comment, I would rather contact my teacher in person than by e-mail.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6	E-mail helps people learn from each other.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7	An advantage of e-mail is you can contact people any time you want.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8	Writing to others by e-mail helps me develop my thoughts and ideas.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9	Using e-mail and the Internet makes me feel part of a community.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10	Using e-mail and the Internet is a good way to learn more about different people and cultures.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11	Communicating by e-mail is a good way to improve my English.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12	Learning to use a computer gives me a feeling of accomplishment.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13	Writing by computer makes me more creative.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

14	Using a computer gives me more chances to read and use authentic English.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
15	I will use computers for my English learning in future.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16	Using a computer is not worth the time and effort.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17	Using a computer gives me more control over my learning.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18	I enjoy the challenge of using computers.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19	Learning how to use computers is important for my career.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20	I can learn English more independently when I use a computer.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21	Computers keep people isolated from each other.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
22	I can learn English faster when I use a computer.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
23	Using a computer gives me more chances to practice English.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
24	Computers are usually very frustrating to work with.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
25	Computers make people weak and powerless.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Thank you for your time.

Title

A Contrastive Study of Translation Strategies across Literary and Philosophical Genres

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Abstract

Nowadays, the term *genre* is used to refer to sociolinguistic activities where participants try to achieve particular purposes. Genre has for a long time been carried out in academic and ESP settings, though, very rarely in the field of translation. This study investigated the strategies used in the translation of two distinct genres in order to reveal whether translators show any difference in their choice of strategies while translating different genres. For this purpose, the first fifty pages of *"A history of western philosophy"* by B. Russel in genre of philosophy and *"The remains of the day"* by K. Ishiguro in literary genre both translated by Najaf Daryabandary were selected. The procedures introduced by Newmark (1988) were selected due to their applicability to a greater range of texts and also their number. Results of the Chi-square tests showed significant differences only in three procedures across the two genres. However, in most cases no significant difference was observed.

1. Introduction

Throughout the last decade, genre and genre-based approaches to language research have enjoyed immense popularity, which led to more emphasis on communicative aspects of language use consequently, the way language is used to reach social purposes (Hyland, 2003; Johns, 1977). Many scholars from different fields of study for instance, sociology, discourse analysis, language teaching, and ESP have shown interest in this area of study. Genres are specific communicative events indicated by a set of communicative purposes identified by members of a community in which it regularly takes place. Mostly, it follows certain structures and conventions and serves a definite purpose in the society (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Bhatia, 1993; Johns, 1997; Swales, 1990).

The concepts of genre and genre analysis have penetrated specifically into the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) by Swales's (1990) seminal book. Several scholars (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Hyland, 2004; Paltridge, 2001) have been interested in pedagogical implications of genre. Most of these researchers studied the notion of genre in relation to academic purposes, particularly, writing research articles. Bhatia (1993), Devitt (1991), Sless (1999) and some others concentrated on genres in professional and workplace settings. Reading and writing have also benefited from studies carried out on genre. Hyone (2002), Sengupta (1999), Littlefair (1991) and Hammond (1995) examined the use of teaching genres in reading.

Genre studies also entered into translation studies from 70s and 80s focusing on intercultural nature of translation (Bassnett and Lefever, 1990). However, criticizing the slow speed of research on genres in the field of translation studies, Trosborg (1997) asserts the scarcity of work in this area. She also assumes that the rapid growth of intercultural communication in today's world, and therefore, the necessity of dictionaries and translations might have been the reasons for the research to stay at the level of register and not go beyond. Reiss (1981) tried to investigate different types of equivalents for translation of texts belonging to different genres.

At the level of genre, the focus of language is mostly on norms which determine the conventions in dealing with different communicative events. As Fowler (1989, p. 215) asserts, genres are not only features of texts, but also a connector between texts, makers and interpreters. Assigning a text to a specific genre certainly influences the way the text is read

and interpreted. Genres are distinguished by particular conventions of content and form (chandler, 1997, p. 3).

According to Bhatia (cited in Trosborg, 1997, p. xii), preservation of the generic identity in the target text is of great importance which has unfortunately been ignored in the related literature. He adds that in the translation of an English news report into Danish, for instance, it is crucial to maintain "all or at least representative generic features "(p.206) in the target language. However, if there are any generic conventions with high degree of variation in their realization in the two languages, the translator should decide about the generic pattern she must represent. In either case, the translator cannot neglect the generic realities of the text being translated.

Being aware of genre conventions helps the translator in both understanding of the source text and creation of the target version. Since the number of genres is limited and they are universal in nature they are more manageable compared with a whole list of academic disciplines; and therefore, they are practical tools for translators (Trosborg, 1997, p. xvi). The question that rises here is that to what extent translators are aware of genre distinctions and to what extent they attempt to be faithful to the structural as well as rhetorical conventions of the corresponding genres in the production of their translations.

This study attempted to highlight the significance of taking into account the notion of genre and to investigate different strategies used by translators facing texts of various genres. It also aimed at finding out whether the translation strategies differ across genres or whether they tend to neglect genre differences and follow the same strategies for texts belonging to distinctive genres.

Therefore, by adopting Newmark's (1988) translation procedures, in this study, an effort will be made to identify the translation strategies used by a contemporary Persian translator, Najaf Daryabandary (1365, 1375)in two literary and philosophical genres in order to answer the following research questions:

1. What strategies does Najaf Daryabandary employ in translation of the genres of philosophy and literary in *"The history of western philosophy"* and "*The remains of the day"* respectively?

2. Are there statistically significant differences in strategies used by Najaf Daryabandary across two genres of philosophy and literary in translations of the books *"The history of western philosophy"* and *"The remains of the day"*?

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. A Short History of Translation Discipline

In the second half of the twentieth century, when "translation studies" was introduced as an academic discipline (Munday, 2001, p.7), it was pursued more systematically by scholars and this led to the emergence of several theories and methods of translation. To name a few, Cicero, St Jerome, Dolet, Dryden, Tytler, schliermacher are among the most influential figures before the twentieth century whose attempts paved the way for this field to become an independent discipline. The central issue before the twentieth century was the debate over literal versus free translation.

The years after 1950s witnessed several new notions and approaches in the domain of translation studies. By moving away from "literal vs. free" translation toward the notion of "equivalence", Roman Jakobson (1959) and Nida (1964) initiated a new era. They both worked on the linguistic aspects of translatioin. Later, other scholars (e.g. chesterman, 1989; Bassnet, 1991; Baker, 1992; and Kenny, 1997) studied different aspects of equivalence and discussed different aspects of it. Other figures, following the linguistic approaches in the analysis of translations, were Catford (2000), Miko (1970), Popoovič (1970), and van Leuven-Zwart (1989). These researchers concentrated on the notion of "shifts" which as Catford (2000, p. 141) defines are "departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL". However, it was not until 1970s and 1980s that translation as a static linguistic phenomenon gave its place to functionalist and communicative approach to the analysis of translation. One of the prominent figures of that time was Reiss (1981) who linked language function, text type, and genre with translation strategy. Later, Reiss and Vermeer (1984) worked on skopos theory, whereby the function of the TT determines the translation strategy (cited in Munday, 2001).

2.2. Genre and Translation

As a complicated process of communication, translation attempts to make a connection between participants from different languages and cultures. Translators, whose initial task is to mediate between languages and cultures, face the challenge of the reader's expectations regarding both macrostructural and microstructural features. These features bring into mind the concept of genre which has entered into translation studies from 70s and 80s.

As Bhatia (1993) states, genres have certain communicative purposes and conventional linguistic and textual features. Hatim and Mason (1990) are among the authors who have studied genre and translation. According to them, genres are 'conventionalised forms of texts' which indicate the functions and goals of particular social occasions as well as the purpose of their participants.

Genres are both the starting and the target point of translation. Translators, either consciously or unconsciously, translate from and into genres. This enables them to consider all relevant communicative elements from the point of view of process and product. Since the concept of genre enables us to overcome the problem of distinguishing apparently similar textual forms recognized differently by the receivers, identification of the genre of the text would be one of the initial steps in the act of translation (Toledo, 2005).

Ordinarily, preserving the text function, text type distinctions and the intention of the author are desired in moving from the source text (ST) to the target text (TT). Therefore, determining to what text type a given text belongs could be of great assistance to translators (Venuti, 2000). Holding the same view Hatim and Munday (2004) emphasize the importance of the identification of genre type as a starting point for translators. Bhatia is also in favor of this idea. He declares that:

In the process of recontextualization of written discourses, whether in the same language or in another language, as in translation, it is important to maintain the generic integrity of the source text in its recontextualized form, so that one can convey not only the textual meaning, but also the more conventionalized generic meaning of the source text (Bhatia, 2004, p.198).

Nord (2005) states that the level of predictability of the text features influences their conventional effect. She reduces the role of text types and prevents classifying textual genres categorically. Contrary to Reiss (1981) who focuses on the text type as the determining factor of general method of translation, Nord proposes a number of extra-textual and intra-textual parameters to ease the identification of genres related to each text.

Among the researchers studying genre specifically in relation to translation, Schäfner (cited in Trosborg, 1997, p. 119) studied texts in political genre whose international growth, he believed, boosted the importance of translation as well. Schäfner noted that different political functions and their contextual, text-typoligical, and pragmatic. features demand different translation strategies. Taking some multilingual (German and English) treaties, documents and speeches by politicians, he identified some translation problems and discussed the strategies as solutions in authentic translations.

In her study on hybridization, Trosborg (1997) analyzed the documents of European Union (EU) with a sociocognitive approach to genre. These documents, unlike political genre, concerned with multicultural discourse community and are distinguished by specific features (lexical, syntactical and textual). She concluded that since these texts would be known as product of translation, reconsidering the state of source language community would be necessary.

The concept of genre has gone further and influenced the area of medicine where information is exchanged in a rapid speed internationally. In his essay, Pilegaard (cited in Trosborg, 1997, p. 159) compared and contrasted the translation of medical research articles and suggested some translation strategies and argued that any pragmatic modification in translation should be applied by considering genre and culture-specific conventions.

Bhatia (in Trosborg, 1997: 203) focused on legal genre and emphasized the importance of maintaining integrity of genres in translation. He asserted that in teaching and learning of translation, understanding the rational for the target genre was a prerequisite and this understanding would lead to a successful translation.

Montalt (2003), Montalt, Ezpeleta & García de Toro (2005), Ezpeleta (2005) and García Izquierdo (2005) have emphasized the importance of text genre in acquisition of translation competence. The studies carried out in Iran on the concept of genre are limited to text analysis of certain text types. Afzali (2001) analyzed Farsi and English narratives in genre of short story and investigated its implication for teaching ESL writing. Samadi (2009) examined the strategies used to translated legal terms. Vahedi Kia (2009), investigated explicitation in Persian-English literary genres focusing on gender in poems, dramas, and fictions and found out that symmetric explicitation is the dominant explicitation. Sayyadi (2010), worked on the strategies used for translating culture-bound terms in three Persian renderings of *Death of a salesman* in genre of drama. Her findings revealed different strategies used for the *transference* of cultural terms.

Considering conventional linguistic and textual features of each genre and the influence of the genre type on the translation strategies, it is expected that acute translators take different translation strategies while translating texts belonging to different genres. However, it seems that this idea has not sufficiently been studied so far to consider probable similarities or differences across distinguished genres among different translators. Therefore, by analyzing translation procedures used in two different genres (i.e. philosophical and literary) by Daryabandary, the researchers attempted to fill a very small part of the gap in this area of study.

3. Method

This descriptive study attempts to find the strategies used in translating two different genres used by Daryabandary. Since, in this research we deal with the analysis of two distinct genres, a comprehensive model is more appropriate. Among the translation models and

strategies, Newmark's (1988) procedures which are applied to "sentences and the smaller units of language" are chosen. This model is more general and not specified for a specific type of text. It also proposes more procedures than other available models. In his model, Newmark introduces the following translation procedures:

1.*Transference*, 2. *Naturalization*, 3. *Cultural equivalent*, 4. *Functional equivalent*, 5. *Descriptive equivalent*, 6. Synonymy, 7. Through-translation, 8. Shifts or transpositions, 9. Modulaiton, 10. Recognized translation, 11. Translation label, 12. Compensation, 13. Componential analysis, 14. Reduction, 15. expansion, 16. Paraphrase, 17. Equivalence, 18. Adaptation, 19. Notes, 20. Additions, and 21. Glosses.

In order to answer the research questions, a Persian translator, Daryabandary, who translated two distinct genres was selected. He has translated the books titled *"A History of Western Philosophy"* by Bertrand Russel (1967) in the philosophical genre and "*The Remain of the Day"* by Kazuo Ishiguro (1989) in the literary genre.

To do the comparison, first based on the translation procedures proposed by Newmark (1988), each source text was compared with the corresponding translation independently and the procedures were identified; then, the frequency of each was calculated.

Finally, in order to investigate whether there are any significant differences in the procedures used in these two distinct genres, Chi-square tests were implemented.

Since the comparison should be applied on two almost large books, the researchers selected the first fifty pages of each book to make the study more manageable.

4. Results and Discussion

As mentioned previously, the translation procedures employed by Daryabandary were identified in both translations. The frequency and percentage of each procedure was calculated. Table 1 shows the statistics related to the analysis of translation procedures of *A History of Western Philosophy* and *The Remains of the Day*. The results of chi-square tests were displayed in Table 2.

Table 1 *Frequency and percentage of translation procedures in A History of Western Philosophy and The Remains of the Day*

Procedure	History of Western Philosophy		The Remains of the Day	
	F	%	F	%

1	Transference	54	13.5	56	13.4
2	Naturalization	23	5.7	3	0.7
3	Cultural equivalent	0	0	1	0.2
4	Functional equivalent	1	0.2	0	0
5	Descriptive equivalent	3	0.7	1	0.2
6	Synonymy	2	0.5	5	1.2
7	Through translation	5	1.2	0	0
8	Shift or transposition	83	20.7	68	16.3
9	Modulation	107	26.7	126	30.2
10	Recognized translation	0	0	0	0
11	Translation label	0	0	0	0
12	Compensation	0	0	1	0.2
13	Componential analysis	0	0	2	0.4
14	Reduction	35	8.7	51	12.2
15	Expansion	64	16	62	14.9
16	Paraphrase	8	2	17	4
17	Equivalence	3	0.7	19	4.5
18	Adaptation	0	0	2	0.4
19	Notes	2	0.5	0	0
20	Additions	8	2	1	0.2
21	Glosses	0	0	0	0
	Total	398		415	

According to Table 1, the most highly used procedure in both translations is modulation. (30.2% in the philosophical and 26.7% in the literary genre). Modulation is totally concerned with the change of view point. Newmark (1988) categorizes the modulation procedure as follows: a) Abstract for concrete b) cause for effect c) one part for another d) reversal of terms e) active for passive f) space for time g) intervals and limits and h) change of symbols.

Interestingly enough, from the procedures above concerning modulation changing passive into active and vice versa were the mostly implemented ones. It seems that the translator prefers to change the passive sentences into active voice especially in the genre of philosophy.

Transposition is the second frequently used procedure in both genres (16.3% in the philosophical and 20.7% in the literary genre). Shift or transposition has to do with the change in the grammar from SL into TL. Considering the differences among languages, some of these grammatical changes are unavoidable e.g. position of the adjectives and sometimes the changes from singular into plural, while some others are optional e.g. nonobligatory changes in parts of speech.

There are some procedures that have been not used in any of the translations. Recognized translation, translation label and gloss are among these procedures. There are still some others that are below 1% (See Table 1.).

As table 1 indicates, there are some procedures rarely used by the translator in the literary genre (i.e. *The Remains of the Day*):

Naturalization (0.7%), *cultural equivalent* (0.2%), *functional equivalent* (0.0%), *descriptive equivalent* (0.2%), *through translation* (0.0%), *componential analysis* (0.4%), *compensation* (0.2%), *adaptation* (0.4%), *notes* (0.0%), and *descriptive equivalent* (0.2%) have only been rarely applied by the translator. Additionally, in the genre of philosophy (i.e. *A History of Western Philosophy*) there are some procedures rarely used. *Cultural equivalent* (0.0%), descriptive equivalent (0.7%), synonymy (0.5), compensation (0.0%), componential analysis (0.0%), equivalent (0.7%), adaptation (0.0%), and notes (0.0%) are among them.

The main observable differences in the frequency of the procedures used in the two genres are related to *naturalization* (5.7% in philosophical and 0.7% in literary genre), *addition* (2.0% in philosophical and 0.2% in literary genre), *equivalent* (4.5% in literary and 0.7% in philosophical genre), *paraphrase* (4.0% in literary and 2.0% in philosophical genre) and to some extent *reduction* (12.2% in literary and 8.7% in philosophical genre).

However, *transference* and *expansion* have been used almost similarly in both genres. In the genre of philosophy, the frequency of *transference* was 54 and 56 in the literary genre. The numbers of expansions identified in the philosophical and literary genres were 64 and 62 respectively.

In order to answer the second research question, chi-square tests were employed. Table 2. illustrates the results of Chi-square tests and the differences in procedures being employed.

Table 2   *Results of chi-square tests*

Procedures	Chi-square	Significance
Transference	.036a	.849
Naturalization	15.385a	.000
Cultural equivalent	-	
Functional equivalent	-	
Descriptive equivalent	1.000a	.317
Synonymy	1.286a	.257
Through translation	-	
Shift or transposition	1.490a	.222
Modulation	1.549a	.213
Recognized translation	0	0
Translation label	0	0
Compensation	-	
Componential analysis	-	
Reduction	2.977a	.084
Expansion	.032a	.859
Paraphrase	3.240a	.072
Equivalence	11.636a	.001
Adaptation	-	
Notes	-	
Additions	5.444a	.020
Glosses	0	0

Note: - means chi-square test was not possible to calculate because of low frequencies.

As demonstrated in Table2, only in three procedures (*naturalization,* p=.000; *equivalence*, p=.001; and *addition*, p=.020) used by the translator significant difference was noticed. In other procedures (*transference, descriptive equivalent, synonymy, transposition, modulation, reduction, expansion, and paraphrase*) the level of difference was not

significant. In the rest of procedures whose frequency was not zero in either genre, Chi-square tests could not be performed due to the low number of the frequencies.

A Careful examination of both texts revealed that the sum of employed procedures were 415 and 398 in the translations of *The Remains of the Day* and *A History of Western Philosophy* respectively. In the translation of the literary genre, the translator has employed 15 and in the philosophical genre 14 procedures out of 21 procedures introduced by Newmark.

In the genre of philosophy, where the translator is faced with a more formal, analytical and academic style of writing, it seems that he has tried to convey the message in a way that would be more comprehensible for the Persian receivers. A great number of modulations are related to the change in sentences from passive into active voice. *Expansion*, the second highly used procedure, is another reason that supports the idea of the simplification of the TT by the translator. It should be pointed out that some of the *expansions* are related to the translation of individual words that in rendering them into Persian, the translator has mostly used a collocational pair _ a very popular tendency not only among Persian translators but also the authors. Most of the cases identified as *expansion* have to do with the parts absent in the ST, but the translator has probably inserted them to make sure of a thorough understanding on the part of the Persian receivers. The number of *reductions* is nearly half of the *expansions* in this genre. However, it does not mean that the translator has attempted to avoid translating these parts, since a careful examination of reduced elements reveals that the omitted elements are so trivial that their absence does not jeopardize the integrity and the meaning of the text and the message. By employing this procedure, it seems that the translator has sought to decrease the complexity of the sentences especially where the length of each sentence may reach to four or five lines.

Beside *additions*, *notes*, and *paraphrases* whose main aim is the clarification of the ST, some other techniques were observed that are not included in the category of procedures listed in Table 1. First, it was observed that a lot of pronouns in the ST have been replaced by what they referred to in the process or translation. Second, sentences more than four or 5 lines were usually divided into two or more smaller sentences. And the third noticeable point is the insertion of appropriate Persian cohesive devices where the translator felt they are necessary for the sake of achieving a smoother text.

In spite of all the discussed modifications throughout the translation, Persian readers of the book still believe that they are reading a philosophical genre and it is certainly due to the fulfillment of their expectations of that genre. The consistency of subject matter in both ST

and TT as well as the thoughtful choice of words specific to genre of philosophy plays the main role in this regard.

What distinguishes the literary genre from other non-literary ones is the purpose lying behind the mere communication of the meaning. This genre is the author's imaginary world where style, diction, and aesthetic features are remarkably emphasized. While in the translation of philosophical genre most of the *modulations* were related to changing the voice of sentences from active to passive or vice versa, in the translation of literary genre *modulation* does not mainly focus on the change of the voice of sentences. It basically is the result of changing negative into affirmative and vice versa which provides the potential for changing the effect of the sentences.

It seems that in this genre, the translator feels more freedom. He has used *paraphrases, expansions* and reductions when he thinks they are appropriate. Most of the *expansions* (like in philosophical genre) are due to the words used as collocations in Persian while in some cases expansions were used to create more details and images in the TT.

Omission of some complete sentences in this genre is a point never observed in the philosophical genre. It is also noticed that the translator except in rare cases have tried to retain the length of the sentences which could probably be an attempt to preserve the author's style.

The use of other procedures in either or both of the genres might be due to the nature of the genres themselves. For instance, the nature of the literary genre _ which includes specific style, tone, diction, and different aesthetic features _makes the translator use procedures such as, *equivalent, componential analysis, adaptation, cultura*l and *descriptive equivalent* since they are in line with the translators' needs. On the other hand, the formal, analytical and academic style of philosophical genre may lead to the lack of some procedures and higher frequency of others such as through translation.

Another observable point in both translations was the choice of words specific to each genre which helped the translator stay in the same genre and not deviate from it. In the genre of philosophy, the translator used words such as, خلود(eternal), جوهر (substance), علی العموم (in general), موضوع و محمول (subject and predicate), etc. which are probably rarely used in other genres. Almost the same technique was used in the case of the literary genre. Here, the translator has tried to form the sentences and use words in a way which are more familiar to the readers. For instance, he has translated *"... to stretch my legs"* as پاهایم را نرم کنم(literally means: to soften my legs) or *"I decided to step out ..."* as گفتم پیاده شوم (literally means: I said I get out). The translator was also cautious about structures in translating both genres. In the

literary genre, he has tried to maintain the length and order of sentences in different paragraphs maybe as a way to preserve the style of the writer. However, in the genre of philosophy, he has attempted to cut large sentences into shorter ones, change most of the passive structures into active, and shift the order of sentences in a way that could help readers have a more comprehensible and smoother text.

5. Conclusion

According to the results of the analysis of philosophical and literary genres in this study, though very limited, it could be said that the translator (i.e. Daryabandary) used almost equal number of procedures in the translation of both works; however, there were noticeable variations in the frequency of some of them.

It might be also concluded that the translator was well aware of genre differences and tried to respect this notion in his translations. Having in mind the specific features of philosophical and literary genres, the translator was to some extent successful in fulfilling Persian readers' expectations from each genre by his meticulous choice of words and structure.

An obvious limitation of this study is the size of the analyzed texts as well as the selected genres. Studying a larger amount of the texts could provide more appropriate grounds for a safer conclusion. Furthermore, if the statement by Marías (cited in Peters, 2008, p. 819) who says "philosophy is intrinsically bound to the literary genre, not into which it is poured, but, we would do better to say, in which it is incarnated " is true, then the existed similarity between the literary and philosophical genres might have influenced the result of this study. Thus, it would be a good idea to carry out similar studies on other genres with higher degrees of variations.

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Title

A Comparative Study of Cohesive Devices in Reading Comprehension Texts by TEFL and Translation Students

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Abstract

This research attempts to comparatively study Cohesive Devices (CDs) in Reading Comprehension (RC) texts by Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and translation students. To do this purpose, from a total of 170 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, 120 homogeneous intermediate students were selected, randomly divided into eight groups, each including 15, four TEFL experimental and control (two by two) and four translation experimental and control (also two by two) groups. Next, two versions (authentic and non-authentic) of the same RC test were provided. The authentic version which included CDs and had not been changed was assigned to all groups in both fields of study to respond. Then just the experimental groups were given information about CDs. Finally the same authentic text was given to one experimental and one control group of each field of study, while the non-authentic text with no

CDs and changes was assigned to other experimental and control groups of both fields of study. The results revealed that, firstly, there is no significance difference between TEFL and translation groups in regard to RC. Secondly, students responding to the authentic texts performed better than those responding to the non-authentic texts. Thirdly, students informed about CDs outperformed students who had not informed in related issue. As a result, teaching CDs has positive effect on RC andthey are responsible for creating cohesion in textswhile non-authentic texts are weak and scrambled.

1. Introduction

Reading ability is critical for academic learning, and L2 reading is the primary way that L2 students can learn on their own beyond the classroom (Carrell&Grabe, 2002, p. 223). Some researchers have tried to find out the relationship between RC and other features associated with reading such as syntax, discoursal organization, discourse analysis (Eskey, 1971). And there have been several attempts to detail syntactic and lexical features that are characteristics of registers associated with particular subject areas.

In order to facilitate the reading process, we need to prepare students not only to pay attention to the significance of discourse but also to recognize the various devices used to create textual cohesion and more especially the use of reference and linking words. Among many devices connecting ideas in a text are CDs/discourse markers (DMs), which signal the information structure of the discourse. Discourse analysis requires an analysis of a text that depends on aspects of the linguistic and organizational structures available in the text itself. It includes any and all linguistic signaling in texts (CDs/ties, DMs, etc.) as potential resources that contribute to discoursal interpretation of the text. (Kaplan &Grabe, 2002). CDs are important factors in native-like discourse for EFL speakers for RC. They add colour and spirit to language; however, they are a fundamental and important area to manage a piece of reading passage.

Since traditional second/foreign language reading has concentrated on the sentence and units smaller than the sentences; however, recent research into second language (SL) or foreign language (FL) reading and discourse analysis has empirically proven that text is not a series of independent units and it is time to took a turn in a more discourse oriented direction.

If reading is to be efficient, the structure of longer units such as paragraphs or discourse within text must be understood.

Increasingly, in the last decade, attention has been paid to features of discourse structure that might present students with problems of interpretation in particular areas. By taking the importance of CDs into account particularly in RC, this study is an attempt to analyze and compare using CDs, that is, knowledge of discourse-organizing vocabulary, by TEFL and translation students and effects on RC.

1.1. Statement of the problem

The focus of the present study is on the resources or references of grammatical and lexical cohesion type, falling under the category of CDs. Awareness of CDs and DMs leads to some improvements in both reading and writing. As it has been mentioned in the introduction part, comprehension is based on the recognition and processing of these items.

Whenever reading a text, language learners in general and learners in EFL situations in particular, all too often, confront difficulties comprehending the author's line of reasoning due to not being acquainted with CDs including DMs which shape the text. Therefore, this is a huge pitfall from which many RC classes are suffering.

Although the teaching of such CDs is often the center of ESL (English as a Second Language) academic writing classes, it is evident that experimental studies into the impact of the knowledge of the CDs on the RC skill is still in its infancy. As a consequence, there is a gap in the experimental work on the relationship between CDs and RC that needs to be bridged. However, to determine the role of these CDs and DMs in language skills generally, and particularly in RC skill, still research needs to address these devices in relation to language learners reading proficiency.

Accordingly, analyzing these cohesive ties concerning RC by TEFL and translation students especially in Iranian context, in the best of the researcher's knowledge, is relatively low. Interest in this issue as well as insufficient studies and motivation to search for more information in this area has motivated the researcher to undertake this task regarding TEFL and translation students.

Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to investigate CDs used by TEFL and translation students to see how these two groups of different fields of study use them in texts to manage a piece of RC and aims at uncovering the existence of, if any, direct relationship between the knowledge of CDs and the students' comprehension ability.

The current study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Does knowledge of cohesive devices affect learners' RC?

2. Does the removal of CDs from a text affect its comprehensibility?

3. Is there any difference between TEFL and translation students in using CDs for RC in terms of their proficiency?

Based on the above-mentioned questions, the following hypotheses are suggested:

1. Having knowledge about CDs in RC texts influence learners' RC.

2. The removal of CDs from a text decreases students' RC.

3. There is a meaningful difference between TEFL and translation students in using CDs for RC in terms of their proficiency.

1.2. Significance of the study

Some studies have demonstrated that insufficient use of cohesive ties by ESL students contribute to the lack of cohesion in their writings. Yet so far, ESL educators seem to have overlooked the issue. More attention should be paid to this topic in research and classroom teaching. Cohesive ties have to be considered as a "manifestation of how we are making sense of the message in the text" (Carter & McCarthy, 1988, p. 204). Accordingly, it is necessary to understand cohesive ties semantically, as well as grammatically while it can be considered that a knowledge of lexical cohesion might help L2 learners understand discourse or a piece of reading. Moreover; as it is clear there is a close relationship between the degree of comprehensibility and the accurate use and precise understanding of DMs.Based on these points the significance of this study is clear.

Secondly, the bad news is that in spite of cohesive ties indispensable role in second language RC, few studies have investigated their role in RC. So based on this, our second justification is on the premise that CDs are playing a major role in second language reading comprehension and they deserve more research.

Thirdly, motivating the students to progress in using more CDs to make advanced pieces of reading is a challenge. This study takes the challenge by raising students' consciousness of this point. In this study it is supposed that using more CDs would be a shot in the arm of making advanced texts.

2. Review of the Literature

The importance and significance of CDs and DMs in language learning and more specifically in listening and reading comprehension have well been established in the literature of relevant studies. Also the crucial role of these devices in shaping the smooth flow of discourse on one hand, and their relevance to discourse and strategic competence have been noted repeatedly.

Cohesion in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) specifies five major classes of cohesive ties/devices, nineteen subclasses, and numerous sub-subclasses. The five major classes include: reference, substitution, ellipsis, lexical reiteration and collocation and conjunction; reference, substitution, and ellipsis are grammatical; reiteration and collocation are lexical; conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, temporal, and continuative) stands on the border line between the two categories. In other words, it is mainly grammatical but sometimes involves lexical selection (p. 13).

Halliday and Hasan (1976, as cited in Schiffrin, 2001) claim that DMs help to create cohesion and coherence in a given text by establishing a relationship between the various ideas that are expressed within the text. Some of the relationships noted by Schiffrin (2001) are: causal (therefore), conditional (if X, then Y) temporal (then he...), adversative (however) and additive (and). DMs also occur when "speakers shift their orientation to information. In this case the marker alerts the listener that something within the speaker has changed. Examples of discourse markers include the particles "oh", "well", "now", "then", "you know", and "I mean", and the connectives "so", "because", "and", "but", and "or".

Many studies have been done in the area of CDs and DMs and several researchers have studied them from the descriptive and contrastive perspectives. They have been investigated in lecture comprehension (Dailey-O'Cain, 2000; Perez &Macia, 2002), classroom oral discourse (Hays, 1992), reading (Abdullah Zadeh, 2006; Jalilifar&Alipour, 2007), academic genres (Blagojevic, 2003), students writing (Norment, 1994; Field & Yip, 1992; Hinkel, 2001; Johnson, 1992; Connor, 1984; Karasi, 1994; Johns, 1984), academic genres (Abdi, 2002), descriptive compositions (Jalilifar, 2008), language comprehension (Salmani-Nodoushan&Parvaz, 2006), the role of discourse structuring cues in comprehension (Tyler, 1992).

Jalilifar (2008) investigated discourse markers in descriptive compositions of 90 Iranian students. Connor (1984) compared six essays written by English native and ESL students, following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework. Field and Yip (1992) compared 67 Hong Kong students with 29 Australian students writing on an argumentative topic. Johns (1984) analyzed English essays by tertiary-level teachers following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model. Johnson (1992) analyzed 20 expository essays in Malay, 20 essays in English By the same group of Malay students, and 20 essays in English by native speakers. Karasi (1994) analyzed 135 expository essays by Singapore secondary students. Hinkel (2001) searched using CDs by non-native speaker writers. Norment (1994) studied 30 Chinese college students writing in Chinese and English on both expository and narrative topics following Halliday and

Hasan's (1976) framework. Salmani-Nodoushan and Parvaz (2006) examined the effect of cohesive ties on language comprehension of 160 university students (80 English majors and 80 non-English majors). Two cloze tests were designed, one in the standard format test and the other in the cohesive ties format.

Results have shown that non-native students of English used more conjunctions than Australian students did, and they usually put all conjunctions at the beginning of the sentence (Field & Yip, 1992), that there was a difference between text types in the use of cohesive devices (Norment, 1994), that even the advanced non-native speaker writers did not use a wide variety of cohesive ties to achieve a unified text (Hinkel, 2001), that conjuncts were overused and lexical cohesion was moderately used by native speakers (Johns, 1984), that students employed discourse markers with different degrees of occurrence, elaborative markers were the most frequently used, followed by inferential, contrastive, causative, and topic relating markers and there was statistically significant differences between the use of discourse markers and composition quality in the groups; graduate students used more discourse markers, and this led to more cohesive texts (Jalilifar, 2008), that English-major subjects had normally performed better than their non-English-major counterparts. The differences due to test format, however, were very interesting. All subjects, regardless of their majors, performed better on the cohesive ties format (although, again, the English-major subjects did better) (Salmani-Nodoushan&Parvaz, 2006), that there was no discrimination between native and ESL students in the frequency of ties (Karasi, 1994; Connor, 1984). As it is clear, the results of Connor (1984), Johnson (1992), and Karasi (1994) studies are different from that of Field and Yip (1992) and Norment (1994).

Results of the above studies, in general, suggest that language learners underutilize CDs and DMs (compared with native speaker use) especially for their pragmatic functions. While several researchers have studied CDs and DMs from the descriptive and contrastive perspectives, to determine the role of these devices and language skills, still research needs to address these devices in relation to second language learners writing proficiency.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The study was conducted by senior middle-level proficiency TEFL learners and translation students at Islamic Azad Universities in Izeh and Abadan, Khuzestan, Iran. 120 male and female subjects took part in this study. They were chosen among the whole students on the

basis of their performance in a proficiency test. To ensure whether the subjects were homogeneous or not, a Proficiency Test (Sharpe, 2003) was administered. The selected students whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were regarded as the sample and assigned randomly into eight groups. The average age of the participants was 24.

3.2. Instrumentation

This study made use of two instruments for the purpose of gathering data.

A) A 24-item Proficiency Test (Sharpe, 2003) was applied to ensure the homogeneity of language learners and to divide them into eight groups (Appendix A). The reliability of this homogeneity test was computed through the application of Kudar and Richardson(1937) (KR-21) method as (r= .75). The rationale behind adopting this test was that it is one of the available standardized tests compatible with Iranian EFL and translation students for measuring their general proficiency.

B) The second type of test was some short unmodified (authentic texts with no deleted CDs and DMs (Appendix B)) and modified (non-authentic texts with deleted CDs and DMs (Appendix C)) RC texts with 23 multiple-choice items (that were extracted from a sample TOEFL test in the NTC's preparation for the TOEFL (Broukal& Nolan-Woods, 2001)). Since there should be a significant correlation between the RC test and the standard Proficiency Test (Sharpe, 2003), according to Kudar-Richardson (KR-21) formula, the reliability of the RC test was estimated (r=.72).

The rationale for the selection of the latter instrument was two fold: 1) this instrument provided plausible and attestable mechanism for determining the learner's English proficiency regarding cohesive relationships in texts; 2) the above instrument was practical and reliable since it was standard sample test.

3.3. Procedure

To collect the required data, the following steps were taken.

The first step was to ensure of the reliability of the sample, A Proficiency Test (Sharpe, 2003) was given to twenty senior TEFL learners and translation students and the reliability was calculated (r=.75). Still then the above-mentioned test was administered to the population of one hundred seventy TEFL learners and translation students. After obtaining the average mean of the scores, those subjects (120) who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the sample. Then the selected subjects were randomly divided into eight groups; that is, four (TEFL and translation) experimental (A, B and A', B'), and four (TEFL and translation) control (C, D and C', D').

During the second phase, all eight experimental and control groups of TEFL and translation students received the unmodified texts to be answered. After the second phase, throughout the treatment, the researcher provided the experimental groups with instruction on definition, description, classification, the role of CDs and DMs in reading texts, etc., whereas the control groups received traditional teaching of RC.

In the third phase, the subjects of two experimental and control groups (A and C) of TEFL and also two experimental and control groups (A' and C') of translation received the same unmodified texts while, instead, two other experimental and control groups (B and D) of TEFL and also two experimental and control groups (B' and D') of translation were administered modified versions. In the modified version of, first all the CDs and DMs were identified according to the taxonomy proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), then all were removed with some detailed changes.

Finally, when the tests were over, the obtained scores by the eight groups were compared to determine whether or not the possible differences occurred in any of each group regarding their using of CDs.

3.4. Data Analysis

In order to determine whether using CDs by TEFL and translation students had any impact on RC, once the scores of the whole tests were obtained, the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated. Then multi-analysis of variance (MANOVA) was run to find out whether the differences between TEFL and translation students, and also each one in isolation (control and experimental groups of TEFL and that of translation) were statistically significant or not.

4. Results

4.1. Results of the comparison of the experimental and control groups' performance in terms of knowledge of CDs

In this chapter, the hypotheses will be stated again.And finally the evidence to reject or support the hypotheses will be offered:

Hypothesis 1: Having Knowledge about CDs in RC texts influence learners' RC.

This two-tailed hypothesis has two hypothesis that H0 shows no difference between the mean of experimental discrepancy scores of pretest and posttest group (M1) with the mean of control discrepancy scores of pretest and posttest group (M2) and H1 shows difference between two groups:

H0: M1=M2

H1: M1≠ M2

For this hypothesis we have used of two independent group t-tests for two TEFL and translation groups. The results have been shown in tables 4.1 to 4.4 below:

Insert Tables 1 and 2 right here

As it was shown in tables 1 and 2, there was a meaningful difference between the discrepancy mean scores of experimental pre and posttest groups and control pre and posttest groups and since $p < 0.05$ (at the level of 0.000), therefore H0 was rejected while H1 was confirmed. Regarding to the mean scores and SD of two groups, this discrepancy score in experimental group was enough higher than that in control group; that is, knowledge of CDs has positive effect on TEFL students' RC ($p = 0.000$ and $t = 11.596$).

Insert Tables 3 and 4 right here

As it was shown in tables 3 and 4, similar results have been received and there was also a meaningful difference between two groups in terms of knowledge of CDs (at the same level of significance), and the mean score and SD in experimental group was also higher than that in control group whereas the two groups have the same number of students; that is, knowledge of CDs has also had positive effect on translation students' RC ($p = 0.000$ and $t = 7.412$).

4.2. Results of the comparison of the experimental and control groups' performance in terms of removal of CDs

Hypothesis 2: the removal of CDs from a text decreases students' RC.

This two-tailed hypothesis also has two hypothesis that associates:

H0: M1=M2

H1: M1< M2

For this hypothesis it was used of two dependent group t-tests for two TEFL and translation groups. The results have been shown in tables 4.5 to 4.8.

Insert Tables 5 and 6 right here

As it was shown in tables 5 and 6, there was a meaningful difference between the discrepancy mean scores of experimental pre and posttest groups and control pre and posttest groups who received texts without CDs during posttests and since $p < 0.05$ (at the level of 0.000); therefore, H0 is rejected while H1 is confirmed. Regarding to the mean scores of two groups, this discrepancy score in control group is higher than that in experimental group; that is, the removal of CDs from a text have had more negative effect on TEFL students' RC in control group ($p = 0.000$ and $t = -4.431$).

Insert Tables 7 and 8 right here

As it was shown in tables 7 and 8, the results of these tables are similar to those in tables 4.5 and 4.6 and there was also a meaningful difference between experimental pre and posttest groups and control pre and posttest groups in terms of removal of CDs since $p < 0.05$ (at the level of .001); this means that the removal of CDs from a text has also had more negative effect on translation students' RC in control group. In a similar way, H0 is rejected while H1 is confirmed ($p = .001$ and $t = -3.670$).

4.3. Results of the comparison of experimental and control groups' performance of TEFL and translation students

Hypothesis 3: There is a meaningful difference between TEFL and translation students in using CDs for RC in terms of their proficiency.

Since, in the third hypothesis, the variable of the field of study (with two TEFL and translation levels) and CDs variable (also with two knowledge and removal of CDs levels) were assumed to have influence on students' RC; thus to respond to the third mentioned hypothesis, it was used of MANOVA (Multi-analysis of variance). The summary of MANOVA is represented in table 4.9 below.

Insert Table 9 right here

As it is shown in table 9, MANOVA was used for data. The main effects of the field of study variable ($F = 0.000$, df =.0 1 and 56, and $P = 0.000$) were not meaningful and, in fact, in both fields of study (TEFL and translation), RC was the same; however, the main effect of CDs variable ($F = 40.102$, df = 1 and 56, and $P < 0.0005$) was meaningful; that is, knowledge of CDs or removal of CDs causes high effect (variance) on students' RC. In addition, the factorsof field of study and CDs ($F = 0.220$, df = 1&56, and $P > 0.641$) was not also meaningful and there is no difference that the student is from TEFL or translation; that is, in both groups, regardless of their majors while CDs are influential but there is not a meaningful difference between TEFL and translation students in using CDs for RC in terms of their proficiency.

5. Discussion and conclusion

This section elaborates on the results and findings presented in the previous part through providing answers to the research questions.

Question 1. Does knowledge of CDs affect learners' RC?

Based on the results of the comparison between the experimental groups (A and A') and control groups (C and C'), it was revealed that knowledge of CDs are effective in improving students' RC achievement. That is, the subjects who received treatment focusing on CDs performed more successfully than the subjects who were given traditional teaching of RC and also in the post-tests than that in the pre-tests. The reason behind this phenomenon can be the fact that the subjects in the experimental groups were able to recognize different kinds of CDs, interpret the functions performed by them and predicts the following events from the preceding contents in the text due to being familiar with CDs and consciously drawing on them while reading. Of course, it is worth mentioning that the results are compatible with Intraprawat and Steffenson (1995), Perez and Macia (2002).

However, as witnessed in the pre-tests and post-tests of the control groups students' results, their RC ability did not improve very much without making effective use of CDs. The reason describing this manner could be the subjects' weakness to use CDs in an effective manner on their own.

Question 2. Does the removal of CDs from a text affect its comprehensibility?

Regarding language proficiency, the results were clear because it is quite obvious that all experimental and control groups, regardless of their majors, performed better in the authentic format since the discrepancy mean score of experimental groups was lower than that of control groups. Subjects' inability to answer the questions in the non-authentic format and the distortion in the comprehension arose as a result of the removal of CDs. Therefore, firstly, the immense magnitude of this incohesion made the passages hard to comprehend. Secondly, this difference in performance is because of the fact that, in the authentic format, CDs that are present in the text can help students comprehend the meaning, but in the non-authentic format, deletions may be crucial to the meaning of the text to be understood and may leave no clue to the meaning and consequently to the words to be supplied. In the authentic format, since cohesive ties are present, enough context is provided for the testee to supply the correct answer.

Question 3: Is there any difference between TEFL and translation students in using CDs for RC in terms of their proficiency?

Based on the results of the research and comparisons between all groups of TEFL and translation, it was revealed that all groups performed rather equally in regarding to their majors. This can be accounted for with a consideration of the fact that, all the students of TEFL and translation fields of study were homogeneous and enough familiar with the meaning of the words at their level, and equally they were studying English about three to

four years and also were familiar with CDs that were present in authentic texts and not present in non-authentic texts as it is clear in their performance in the tests.

After carrying out this methodology and analyzing the findings, the researcher arrived at the following conclusions.

1. In the reading activity, the result of the analysis showed the considerable effect that the knowledge of CDs has on students' understanding of the texts. For better reading, it is necessary for L2 learners to understand relationships among vocabulary items in discourse.

2. Language learners must be aware of the important roles that CDs play in a text to improve their language learning in general and the RC in particular. Consequently, it is claimed that CDs must be taught explicitly in the RC classes as a means to the enhancement of the students' RC ability.

3. Language learners are not able to employ CDs in their RC skill on their own. That is, students can not unconsciously make use of CDs. This is in agreement with the Consciousness Raising Theory, by Fotos (1993), which asserts that language learning processes should be made conscious to the learners.

4. The dearth of CDs in a text, to a great extent, affects the text syntactically rather than semantically. In other words, CDs-free-passages are hard to understand due to incohesion. Therefore, it is claimed that the removal of CDs from a text does not influence its coherence as much as it does influence the text's cohesion.

5.1. Implications of the study

Without the knowledge of how words and clauses are formed, the production or comprehension of a good natural text is impossible. It does mean, however, that aspects within the entire domain of language teaching, ranging from vocabulary to syntax, from pronunciation to intonation, from punctuation to paragraphing and from reading to writing should be taught with a discourse orientation. Variations in clause structure, for instance, as suggested by McCarthy (1991, p. 59) should be "taught and learnt in the context of the entire piece of discourse and its functions rather than in isolation".

The findings of this research are fruitful to language teachers because this type of study would not only heighten their understanding of the reading process on a general level, but would also lead to more effective teaching methodologies and better criteria for the selection of materials for EFL reading instruction. The language teachers, therefore, will step into the reading classes with greater authority.

The findings shed light on the importance of CDs in relation to the RC skill, and guide the students how to better read a text and what to look for during the reading process to comprehend the text effortlessly. In other words, it would result into superior RC strategies.

When the importance of CDs is revealed, language material designers can apply the findings to their books and produce much more considerate and reader-friendly materials. Language testers are also well advised to take CDs into consideration while producing RC tests.

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Tables

Table 1.*Group Statistics of Performance in Reading Comprehension*

AC groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	A group	15	3.73	.961	.248
	C group	15	.47	.516	.133

Table 2.*The Results of Independent T-test between the Means of two TEFL Experimental and Control groups in terms of Knowledge of CDs*

		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
Score	Equal variances assumed	.832	.369	11.596	28	.000	3.267	.282	2.690	3.844
	Equal variances not assumed			11.596	21.461	.000	3.267	.282	2.682	3.852

Table 3.*Group Statistics of Performance in Reading Comprehension*

A'C' groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	A' group	15	3.60	1.121	.289
	C' group	15	1.07	.704	.182

Table 4.*The Results of Independent T-test between the Means of two Translation Experimental and Control groups in terms of Knowledge of CDs*

		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
Score	Equal variances assumed	5.141	.031	7.412	28	.000	2.533	.342	1.833	3.233
	Equal variances not assumed			7.412	23.548	.000	2.533	.342	1.827	3.239

Table 5.*Group Statistics of Performance in Reading Comprehension*

BD groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	B group	15	1.80	1.207	.312
	D group	15	3.53	.915	.236

Table 6.*The Results of Independent T-test between the Means of two TEFL Experimental and Control groups in terms of Removal of CDs*

		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
Score	Equal variances assumed	2.232	.146	-4.431	28	.000	-1.733	.391	-2.535	-.932
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.431	26.101	.000	-1.733	.391	-2.537	-.929

Table 7.*Group Statistics of Performance in Reading Comprehension*

	B'D' groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	B' group	15	1.93	1.100	.284
	D' group	15	3.47	1.187	.307

Table 8.*The Results of Independent T-test between the Means of two Translation Experimental and Control groups in terms of Removal of CDs*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Sig. (2-tailed)		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df		Mean Difference		Lower	Upper
Score	Equal variances assumed	.570	.456	-3.670	28	.001	-1.533	.418	-2.389	-.677
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.670	27.838	.001	-1.533	.418	-2.389	-.677

Table 9.*Summary of MANOVA*

Source	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degree of freedom (df)	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Corrected factors					
Field of study	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	0.000
CDs	48.600	1	48.600	40.102	0.000
Factors effect					
Field of study and CDs	0.267	1	0.267	0.220	0.641
Error	67.867	56	1.212	---	---

total	576.000	60	---	---	---

Appendices

Appendix A   : English Language Proficiency Test

In the Name of God

Name ………   Age …….   Sex …………   Date ………….

This section measures the ability to recognize language that is appropriate for standard written English. There are two types of questions. In the first type of questions (1-6) there are incomplete questions. Beneath each sentence, there are four words or phrases. Please choose the one that best completes the sentence.

1. North Carolina is well known not only for the Great Smoky Mountains National Park………..for the Cherokee settlement.
a)also   b)and   c)but also   d)because of

2. ………. both men and women have often achieved their career by midlife, many people are afflicted by at least a temporary period of dissatisfaction and depression.
a)Because   b)So   c)A   d)Who

3. ………small specimen of the embryonic fluid is removed from a fetus, it will be possible to determine whether the baby will be born with birth defects.
a)A b)That a   c)If a   d)When it is a

4. To generate income, magazine publishers must decide to increase the subscription price or ……….. .
a)to sell advertising   b)if they should sell advertising   c)selling advertising   d)sold advertising

5. For the investor who ………. money, silver or bands are good options.
a)has so little a   b)has very little   c)has so few   d)has very few

6. Of all the cereals, rice is the one ………. food for more people than any of the other grain crops.
a) it provides   b) that providing   c) provides   d)that provides

In the second type of questions (7-12) there are four underlined words or phrases. You will choose the one underlined word or phrase that must be changed for the sentence to be correct. (Choose the underlined words a, b, c, and d, respectively)

7. There <u>are</u> twenty species of wild roses in North America, all of which <u>have</u> prickly stems, pinnate leaves, and large flowers, <u>which</u> usually smell <u>sweetly</u>.

8. If Grandma Moses <u>having</u> been able to continue <u>farming</u>, she may never have <u>begun</u> to<u>paint</u>.

9. Although the Red Cross <u>accepts</u> blood from the most donors, the nurses will not <u>leave</u> you <u>give</u> blood if you have just <u>had</u> a cold.

10. A turtle differs <u>from</u> all <u>other</u> reptiles in that its body is encased in a protective Shell of <u>theirown</u>.

11. one of the first and <u>ultimately</u> the most important <u>purposeful</u> of the reservoir was <u>to control flooding</u>.

12. <u>No other</u> quality is more important <u>for</u> a scientist to acquire <u>as</u> to observe <u>carefully</u>.

This section measures the ability to read and understand short passages that contains reading passages and questions about the passages. After you have finished reading the passages, you are to choose the item best answer to each question according to the information that is stated or implied in the passages.

1.Few men have influenced the development of American English to the extent that Noah Webster did. Born in West Hartford, Cunnecticut, in 1758, Webster graduated from Yale in 1778. He was admitted to the bar in 1781 and thereafter began to practice law in Hartford. Later, when he turned to teaching, he discovered how **inadequate** the available schoolbooks were for the children of a new and independent nation. In response to the need for truly American textbooks, Webster published *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, a three-volume work that consisted of a speller, a grammar, and a reader. The first volume , which was generally known as *the American Spelling Book*, was so **popular** that eventually it sold more than 80 million copies and provided him with a **considerable** income for the rest of his life. While teaching, Webster began work on the *Compendious Dictionary of the English Language*, which was published in 1806, and was also very successful.

2. In 1807, Noah Webster, began his greatest work, An *American Dictionary of the English Language.* In preparing the manuscript, he devoted ten years to the study of English and its relationship to other languages, and seven more years to the writing itself. Published in two volumes in 1828, An *American Dictionary of the English Language* has become the recognized authority for usage in the United States. Webster purpose for writing **it** was to demonstrate that the American language was developing distinct meaning, pronunciations, and spellings from those of British English. He is responsible for advancing simplified spelling forms: *develop* instead of *develope*; *plow* instead of *plough*; *jail* instead of *gaol*; *theater* and *center* instead of *theatre* and *centre*; *color* and *honor* instead of *colour*and *honour*.

3. Webster was the first author to gain copyright protection in the United States by being awarded a copyright for his *American Speller*. He continued, for the next fifty years, to lobby for improvements in the protection of intellectual properties, that is, authors' rights. In 1840 Webster brought out a second edition of his dictionary, which included 70,000 entries instead of the original 38,000. The name Webster has become synonymous with American dictionaries. This edition served as the basis for many revisions that have been produced by others, ironically, under the uncopyrighted Webster name.

13. Which of the following would be the best title for the passage?
a)Webster's Work   b)Webster's Dictionaries   c)Webster's School   d)Webster's Life
14. The word *inadequate* in paragraph 1 could best be replaced by ……...
a)unavailable   b)expensive   c)difficult   d)unsatisfactory
15. Why did Webster write A Grammatical Institute of the English Language?
a) He wanted to supplement his income. b) There were no books available after the revolutionary War. c) He felt that British books were not appropriate for American children. d) The children did not know how to spell.
16. From which publication did Webster earn a lifetime income?
a) Compendious Dictionary of the English Language b) An American Dictionary of the English Language c) An American Dictionary of the English Language: Second Edition d) The American Spelling Book
17. The word *considerable* in paragraph 1 most nearly means ……….. .
a) large   b)prestigious   c)steady   d)unexpected
18. When was An American Dictionary of the English Language published?
a)1817   b)1807   c)1828   d)1824
19. The word *it* in paragraph 2 refers to............. .
a)language   b)usage   c)authority   d)dictionary
20. The word *distinct* in paragraph 2 is closest in meaning to ....
a)new   b)simple   c)different   d)exact
21. According to this passage, which one of the following spellings would Webster have approved in his dictionaries?
a)Develop   b)Theatre   c)Color   d)Honor
22. Look at the word *popular* in paragraph 1. Which one of the following words is closest in meaning to?
a)generally   b)known   c)compendious   d)considerable

23. Which one of the followings explains Webster's purpose for writing an American dictionary according to paragraph 2?
a) the study of English and its relationship to other languages
b) for American dictionary to be the recognized authority for usage in the United States
c) to demonstrate that the American language was developing distinct meanings, pronunciations, and spellings
d)to demonstrate that the American language and British English are the same
24. The second edition of the American Dictionary of the English Language was published in
....
a)1840   b)1807   c)1828   d)1781

Appendix B: Reading comprehension test(pre-test or authentic text)
Name: age: field of study: sex:
This test measures the ability to read and understand short passages that contains reading passages and questions about the passages. After you have finished reading the passages, please choose the item that best answers to each question according to the information that is stated or implied in the passages.

In a primitive society, family and tribe provide all the education that the young receive, and are the sole transmitters of culture. But when language characters develop and an alphabet and number system have reached a certain stage, there comes a demand for some formal teaching and so schools are established for a select few, prospective rules and priests, to supplement the education given by family and tribe. When society becomes modern and complex, school does not lose its supplementary characters; for however wide its scope and curriculum, it still remains sure that the family is the first educator and a life-long influence. But in our modern way of life, the functions of the family tend to diminish, some to be assumed by school and still more by other agencies.

1. In a primitive society …………………………..
A) education is not very far advanced.
B) the family and the tribe control all aspects of life.
C) culture is passed on by the family and the tribe.
D) schools transmit some aspects of culture.
2. According to the passage, as society gets less primitive, …………………….
A) learning by characters becomes more popular.
B) alphabet and number system are started up.
C) the family leave all education to the schools.
D) some language schools are established.
3. According to the passage, in the early stages of society's development, formal teaching ……
A) is only provided for rules and religious men.
B) is demanded by many sectors of society.
C) is only given in a few select language schools.
D) depends on the development of language characters.
4. As society becomes modern …………………………..
 A) school becomes of central importance.
 B) education gets increasingly complex.
 C) the role of the family becomes supplementary.
 D) the school curriculum exerts a life-long influence.
5. The author says that in our way of life …………………………..
 A) education is of less importance than it was.
 B) education depends on other agencies.
 C) the family continues its educational function.
 D) school tends to take over some of the family's roles.
6. It can be inferred that the next sentence after the passage would look at………
A) the serious dangers affecting modern society.
B) the growth of formal teaching over the years.
C) the function of education both in primitive and in modern societies.

D) the effects of the diminishing of the function of the family.

There are three theories as to the wild ancestors of the dog; the first is that it waswolf only, the second is that it was wolf with a latter admixture of jackal, and the third is that the domestic dog may have been derived from a wild species that has since disappeared from the face of the earth. A forth theory might be that of Charles Darwin, that "the domestic dogs of the world have descended from two good species of wolf (Canis lupus and Canislatrans), and from two or three doubtful species of wolves (namely, the European, Indian, and North African forms), from at least one or two South American canine species, from several races or species of jackal, and perhaps from one or more extinct species."

7. According to the passage one theory maintains that ………………
A) the modern dog may be the same as the wolf.
B) modern dog may be as wild as their ancestors.
C) modern dogs may have had wolf ancestors.
D) the relation between dogs and wolves will never be established.
8. One other theory concerning the dog is that ……………………………
A) it is linked to both wolves and jackals.
B) its ancestors were a mixture of wolves.
C) it derives primarily from jackals.
D) its parents were wolves and jackals.
9. In the passage the writer refers to the theory that ………………
A) the modern dog may soon disappear.
B) the modern dog may be some kind of wild species.
C) the wild species of the modern dog may have died out.
D) the ancestors of the modern dog are extinct.
10. Charles Darwin is mentioned because ……………………
A) he might have had a theory about the origins of dogs.
B) he studied domestic dogs and different kinds of wolves.
C) he had some ideas about the origins of dogs.
D) he showed the differences between some kinds of wolves.
11. Among the animals Darwin investigated were………………………..
A) several kinds of jackals.
B) several admixtures of canine species and the jackal.
C) many possible ancestors of the domestic dogs.
D) European, Indian, and North American forms Canis lupus and Canislatrans.
12. The next sentence after the passage is likely to be …………………
A) many scientists consider the wolf theory to be the most likely one.
B) the wolf theory is the based on circumstantial evidence rather than proven fact.
C) the skeletons of wolves and jackals are remarkably similar.
D) the extinct species include the dog-like members of the family Canidae.

The relationship of economics to history israther different from **that** of the othersocial sciences; curious as it may sound, this relationship in many respects comes close to that between history and literature . Economics, after all, is the science (in the broad meaning of the term) of something which men actually do: even if the science did not exist, men would still make economic decisions, economic predictions and participate in the various forms of economic organization which, in part, it is the economist's function to describe. Similarly the disciplined study of literature is concerned with something which men would also do anyway even if the disciplined study did not exist: compose poems, act out dramas, write novels and read them. Political science, or the discipline of politics, has, it is true, many similarities to economics, particularly where it is concerned with generalization about political structures.

13.History is related to economics…………………………………

A) in many different kinds of way.
B) in a different way from its relationship to literature.
C) in the same way as it related to literature.
D) just as political science is related to economics.
14. The social science mentioned in the passage is …………………
A) Economics.
B) history.
C) literature.
D) making forecasts.
15. Economics looks at……………………………………
 A) all kinds of decision making.
B) people's real-life behavior.
C) broad aspects of organization over time.
D) the description of historical events.
 16. The word "that" in line 1 refers to…………………………………
A) history.
B) economics.
C) the relationship.
D) the other social sciences.
17. Studying literature involves…………………………………
A) much hard work.
B) putting poems and plays to music.
C) looking at some of the normal activities of man.
D) reading and writing novels.

     In the great spaces from Kansas City to Sacramento the frontier spirit was at its height. The experiences of three centuries of expansion were being crowded into as many decades. In the fifties the highway of the frontier had run up and down the Mississippi River and the golden age of steamboating had brought a varied life to Saint Luis; in the seventies the frontier had passed far beyond and was pushing through the Rocky Mountains, repeating as **it** went the old frontier story of boasting and dirt, of boundless hope and heroic endurance, a story deeply marked with violence and crime and heart-breaking failure. Thousands of veterans from disbanded armies, northern and southern alike, came to the west to seek their fortunes.

18.The frontier spirit was strongest …………………………………
A) in Kansas City and Sacramento.
B) in the period of the fifties.
C) in the wide open plains.
D) in the high lands.
19.The expansion of the frontier beyond Kansas City………………
A) took place over three hundred years
B) took place over thirty years.
C) took place in the golden age.
D) took place in the seventies.
20. "It" in line six refers to …………………………………
A) the seventies.
B) the frontier.
C) the Rocky Mountains.
D) the old frontier story.
21. In the seventies the frontier …………………………………
A) reached Saint Luis.
B) penetrated the Rocky Mountains.
C) passed over the Mississippi River.
D) could not be clearly defined.
 22. With the expansion of the frontier there came………………………

A) stories of heroism.
B) men boasting about crime.
C) a history of total failure.
D) a decrease in military activities.
23. The best title for the passage would be ………………………
A) the growth of the frontier spirit.
B) the expansion of the frontier.
C) why many veterans came to the west.
D) seeking your fortune in future.

Appendix C: Reading comprehension test(non-authentic text)

Name: age: field of study: sex:

This test measures the ability to read and understand short passages that contains reading passages and questions about the passages. After you have finished reading the passages, please choose the item that best answers to each question according to the information that is stated or implied in the passages.

1. In a primitive society family tribe provide all the education the young receive, are the sole transmitters of culture. Language characters develop an alphabet number system has reached a certain stage, there comes a demand for some formal teaching, schools are established for a select few, prospective rules, priests, to supplement the education given by family tribe. Society becomes complex, school does not lose its supplementary characters; wide its scope curriculum, the family is the first educator a life-long influence. In our modern way of life, the functions of the family diminish, some by school, more by other agencies.

2. Three theories are related to the wild ancestors of the dog. It was wolf; it was wolf with a latter admixture of jackal, the domestic dog has been derived from a wild species has since disappeared from the face of the earth. Theory of Charles Darwin, "the domestic dogs of the world have descended from two good species of wolf (Canis lupus are Canislatrans), from two three doubtful species of wolves (the European, Indian, North African forms), from one two South American species, from several species of jackal, from one more extinct species."

3. The relationship of economics to history is different from **that** of the othersocial sciences; this relationship in many respects comes close to between history literature. Economics is the science of something men do: the science did not exist, men make economic decisions, economic predictions, participate in the various forms of economic organization it is the economist's function to describe. The disciplined study of literature is something men do the disciplined study did not exist: composes poems, acts out dramas, writes novels, reads them. Political science, has many similarities to economics, it is concerned with generalization about political structures.

4. In the great spaces from Kansas City to Sacramento the frontier spirit was at its height. The experiences of three centuries of expansion were being crowded into many decades. In the fifties the highway of the frontier had run up down the Mississippi River the golden age of steamboating had brought a varied life to Saint Luis; in the seventies the frontier had passed beyond was pushing through the Rocky Mountains, repeating **it** went the old frontier story of boasting, dirt, of boundless hope endurance, a story marked with violence crime heart-breaking failure. Thousands of veterans from disbanded armies, northern southern, came to the west to seek their fortunes.

Title

The Study of Translation Strategies of English Idioms in Children's Literary Books

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Abstract

Idioms can be considered as a part of everyday language. They are the essence of any language and the most problematic part to handle with. This study investigated idioms and the way they are translated in children's literary texts and novels. The model taken for the framework of the study was Baker's model in translation of idioms. These strategies were investigated in *The Silver chair*, one of the seventh fantasy novels for children by C.S. Lewis and its two Persian translations. The first translation is done by Esmailian, and the second translation is done by Eghtedari and Karimzade. To answer the research questions, first, English idioms in *The Silver chair* were identified and paired. Then, the strategies

applied on idioms were identified and their frequency and percentage were calculated, the results were presented in charts for subsequent analysis. The most frequent strategy in both translations was paraphrase, and the least frequent one was omission.

Keywords: Children's literature, Idiom, Paraphrase, Literal translation

1.Introduction

Children experience the world around them in a very different way from adults. Adults have learned to see correlations, to reason and, in general, their senses have become dulled through experience. Children do not have the knowledge and skills which adults have had years to acquire. They experience their surroundings in a completely unbiased way and with an immense wealth of fantasy. They have no preconceived ideas; their abilities deserve special attention and consideration. This must be taken into account when writing books for them. A text suitable for children means, therefore, anything that children can understand, that interests them, and that meet their needs.

Children's literature as a genre has some characteristics that pose it with some problems. Firstly, books of this kind in fact address two audiences: children, who want to be entertained and possibly informed, and adults, who have quite different tastes and literary expectations. The latter group, which comprises, in the first instance editors and publishers, and subsequently, parents, educators, academics and critics, is clearly much more influential than the former (puurtinen,1995).

Idioms are language-specific expressions which occur in all languages. Idioms are expressions of "at least two words which cannot be understood literally and which function as a unit semantically (Beekman & Callow, 1917, p.121).

In other words, an idiom is a "number of words which, when taken together, have a different meaning from the individual meanings of each word" (Seidl and McMordie, 1988, p.13).

In the process of translating idioms there are some steps which seem crucial before choosing the proper strategies for translating idioms. One of these steps is to recognize idioms and spot them in the text. Another step is to understand and interpret the idioms accurately. As Larson (1984) put it, "the translator must first be sure of the meaning of the idiom and then look for the natural equivalent way to express the meaning of the idiom as a whole" (p. 143).

Additionally, a translator must be able to use idioms properly and fluently in the target language and as Larson (1984) put it a translator needs to, "develop a sensitivity to the use of idioms in the receptor language and use them naturally to make the translation lively and keep the style of the source language" (p. 116).

2. Baker's Model in Translation of Idioms

Baker (1992) suggested five strategies in translating idioms. These strategies are as follows:

1) Using an idiom of similar meaning and form

This strategy involves using an idiom in the target language, which conveys roughly the same meaning as that of the source-language idiom and, in addition, consists of equivalent lexical items. This kind of match can only occasionally be achieved.

2) Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form

It is often possible to find an idiom or fixed expression in the target language which has a meaning similar to that of the source idiom or expression, but which consists of different lexical items.

3) Translation by paraphrase

This is by far the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target languages.

4) Translation by omission

As with single words, an idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the target text. This may be because it has no close match in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons.

5) Literal translation

This strategy is giving a literal translation of the target idiom. Of course the literal version of the idiom should be acceptable by the target readers and it should be lexically modified.

2. Discussion

2.1 Materials

To investigate the extent the translators have used the strategies proposed by Baker, a book entitled *The Silver Chair* written in English by C. S. Lewis (1953) was chosen by the researchers. The materials used in this study can be divided into two groups:

1) An English full text; a story for children of 99 Pages 99, 53884 words published in 1953.

2) Two Persian translations of the source text are chosen. The first is done by Peyman Esmailian published in 2007, Tehran: Ghadyani. And the second is done by Omid Eghtedari and Manouchehr Karimzade published in 2000, Tehran: Hermes.

2.2 Research Design

This study is a descriptive-textual analysis. It is based on Nord's (1989/91) model. By means of a comprehensive model of text analysis which takes into account intratextual factors, the translator can establish the function-in-culture of a source text. This is then compared with the (prospective) function-in-culture of the target text required by the initiator, identifying and isolating those source text elements which have to be preserved or adapted in translation.

2.3 procedures

The researcher tried to recognize the idioms in the source text to find their equivalents in the target texts. Then she compared the source text findings with their equivalents to answer the questions of the present study.

3. Results

Table 2.1 shows number of idioms translated based on each strategy of two translations.

Table 2.1.

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5
Translation1	46	42	57	4	7
Translation2	50	34	63	1	8

S1: similar meaning/ similar form

S2: similar meaning/ dissimilar form

S3: paraphrase

S4: omission

S5: literal translation

Table 2.2 shows the percentage of strategies for translating of idioms in translation 1.
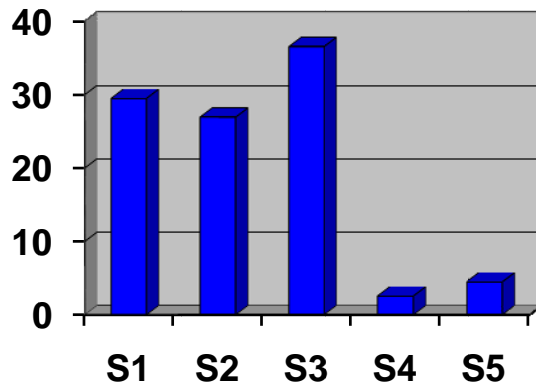
Table 2.2

Table 2.3 shows the percentage of strategies for translating of idioms in translation 2.
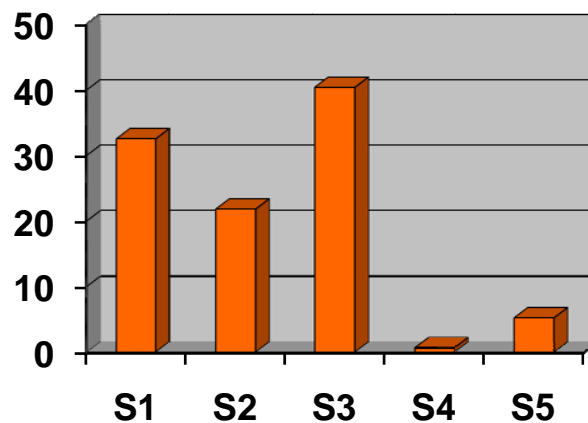
Table 2.3

3.1 Idioms of Similar Form and Meaning

The first translation strategy proposed by Baker is translation using an idiom very similar in its meaning and form to the source language idiom. It must convey roughly the same meaning and be of equivalent lexical items.

Example 1:

The idiom "don't you lose heart" in the original text, in English "lose heart" means "to stop hoping for something or trying to do something because you no longer feel confident", in translation 1 was translated as "دل داشته باش" and used strategy similar meaning/ similar form.

Example 2:

The idiom "deep down inside her", in English "deep down" means "if you know something deep down, you know your true feelings about something, although you may not admit them to yourself". In translation 2 it was translated as "از ته دلش" and was based on strategy similar meaning/ similar form.

Example3:

The idiom "in vain" in English means "without success", and was translated in translation 1 as "بی ثمر می‌ماند", the translator used strategy similar meaning/ similar form. And translator 2 translated it as "بیهوده می‌ماند", in this one also the translator used strategy similar meaning/ similar form.

3.2 Idioms of Similar Meaning but Dissimilar Form

Another strategy suggested by Baker is translation of idiom by using an idiom with similar meaning but dissimilar form in the target language. In this strategy, meaning concepts are expressed by dissimilar lexical items in target language which can be a reflection of different points of view in both English and Persian society. Since in each society, observable and familiar concepts are used to convey a meaning, the idioms which are in this category can show the differences between regions and societies.

Example 1:

The idiom "in the first place" in English means "used at the beginning of a sentence to introduce the different points you are making in an argument". In translation 1 it was translated as "در وهله اول", used strategy 2 (similar meaning/ dissimilar form).

Example 2:

The idiom "held his tongue" in the original text in English means "to remain silent although you would like to give your opinion", in translation 2 it was translated as "جلو زبانش را گرفت", so the idiom was translated according to strategy similar meaning/ dissimilar form.

Example 3:

The idiom "bring down" in English is a phrasal verb and phrasal verbs are considered as idioms. This idiom in English means "to make an animal or a bird fall down or fall out of the sky by killing or wounding it", the idiom " bring down a good fat goose" in the original text was translated as "یک غاز چاق و درشت را زد", and it was based on strategy similar meaning/ dissimilar form.

3.3 Paraphrase

The third translation strategy proposed by Baker is paraphrase. Paraphrase is one of one of the most common strategies in the translation of idioms. As sometimes it is impossible to find the right equivalent or any idiom in the target language, therefore, a translator can use translation by paraphrase. Using this kind of strategy a translator transfers the meaning of an idiom using a single word or a group of words which roughly corresponds to the meaning of idiom but is not an idiom itself.

This strategy (paraphrase) was the most frequent strategy in translation of idioms in both translations of "The silver chair".

Example 1:

The idiom "keep sb/ sth off sb/ sth" in English means "to prevent sb/ sth from coming near, touching, etc. sb/ sth. The idiom "Keep your minds off your hunger" was translated as "برای اینکه ذهنتان از گرسنگی منحرف شود" in translation1 and was based on paraphrase strategy. This idiom in translation 2 was translated as "برای فراموش کردن گرسنگی", also this one was based on paraphrase strategy.

Example 2:

The idiom "don't you lose heart" in the original text, in English "lose heart" means "to stop hoping for sth or trying to do sth because you no longer feel confident", in translation 2 was translated as "نترس" and used strategy paraphrase.

Example 3:

"In the dead of night" in English means "in the quietest part of night", was translated as "نصف شب" in translation 1 and as "نیمه شب" in translation 2. In both translations paraphrase strategy were used.

3.4 Omission

The forth strategy proposed by Baker is translation by omission. As with single words an idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the target text. This may be because it has no close match in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased or there are stylistic reasons.

Example 1:

The idiom "stood dead still", is translated as "بی حرکت ایستاد", the word "dead" was not translated and was omitted, so the strategy used was omission.

Example 2:

"deep down" in English means "If you know sth deep down, you know your true feelings about sth, although you may not admit them to yourself", but translators 2 didn't translate it at all, and totally omitted this idiom. So the strategy was omission.

3.5 Literal Translation

The final strategy proposed by Baker is literal translation. Translating idioms literally means to preserve the form of the source idiom in the target language. The result is an expression which is grammatical but unidiomatic in the target language, because it is based on the structure of a source idiom.

Example 1:

The idiom "bring down" in English means "to make an animal or a bird fall down or fall out of the sky by killing or wounding it", the idiom "bring down a good fat goose" was

translated as "یک غاز چاق و درشت را از آسمان به زمین انداخت" , and it was based on literal translation.

Example 2:

"Beetles fancy other beetles" was translated by translator 2 as سوسکها از سوسکهای دیگر خوششان می آید", in this case the translators translated the idiom word for word, so the strategy used was literal translation.

Example 3:

The idiom " you have hearts of stone" in English means "to be a person   does not show others sympathy or pity", in both Persian translations it was translated as قلب هایتان از سنگ است", translated by literal translation.

4. Conclusion

As the present paper investigated to answer the questions of the study, and surveyed the provided materials and that children literature and approaches in its translation had been investigated, and a model of translation of idioms consisted of five strategies based on what Baker proposed was selected to fulfill the study, the researchers came to the following conclusions**:** From all 156 idioms, the first translator (Esmailian) translated 46 of the idioms using a strategy, similar meaning/ similar form, 42 of them using strategy similar meaning/ dissimilar form, 57 of them by paraphrase, just 4 of them by omission, and finally 7 of all idioms were translated literally.

While the second translators (Eghtedari and Karimzade) translated 50 of the idioms using a strategy, similar meaning/ similar form, 34 of them using strategy similar meaning/ dissimilar form, 63 of them by paraphrase, just 1 of them by omission, and finally 8 of all idioms were translated literally.

The most frequent strategy used by Esmailian was paraphrase, and the least frequent was literal translation, and the most frequent strategy used by Eghtedari/ Karimzade was paraphrase and the least frequent was omission.

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Title

The Cross-sectional Study of Iranian EFL Teachers' Burnout and their Teaching Styles Preferences: Relationship in Focus

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Abstract

Nowadays, many teachers around the world are facing with the fact that students are not the sole matter in pedagogical issues, but tutors and specifically their psychological conditions have great impact on the success or failure of teaching/learning systems. This study examines the relationship between teachers' burnout and their teaching style preferences and the role of gender in teaching style preferences among 99 EFL teachers in Mashhad and Zahedan cities. The data were gathered through: Maslach Teachers' Burnout Inventory which consists of 22items (with 3 sub-scales known as: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment), and Teachers' Teaching Styles (Grasha, 1996) consisting of 40 items and 5 sub-scales (Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator styles). For analyzing the gathered data between teachers' burnout with their teaching style preferences, we used One-way ANOVA. To see if there is any significant difference between male and female EFL teachers and their teaching style preferences, the researcher ran a Chi-square test. The questionnaires were distributed among participants in one session, and then the data was inserted into SPSS. Finally, the results are discussed and some suggestions are made in the context of English language learning and teaching.

1. Introduction

For centuries in the realm of English language teaching (ELT) attention has been paid to teaching/learning styles based on the belief that, to be an effective ESL/EFL teacher, one should have a general understanding about learners' learning needs, learners' individual differences in learning milieu, and even about their own psychological conditions, the goals they want to achieve in their profession, the culture in which classes are conducted, and styles they take. After so many studies done in 1980's and even up to now, the results indicate that students' desires are not nowadays the sole matter and teachers as the material provides have lots of impact on learning/teaching conditions, pedagogical milieu and the aims the education ministry has set.

Teaching as a profession is "a combination of the teacher, students, and educational materials which gather together in a place named class" (Shabani, 2003. p. 705). Others define teaching as a help for anybody to learn everything they need. They also believe that good teaching may lead to learning essentials and important things (Fink, 2002). Khoee Nejad (1993) considers teaching as a complex and pre-programmed process which is put into practice by teacher and its main goal is to engage learners with materials.

It is said that: "the style you pick to teach is the greatest factor for your success in the classroom" (Mehr Mohammadi, 2000, p. 70).While many people argue that style is important in teaching, identifying the elements of our styles as teachers seems to be difficult. One reason is that traditionally the concept of style has been defined in a pejorative manner. Eble (1980. p. 50) says that: "it has been confused with affection, designated as a kind of posturing to mask a lack of substance, or tolerated as a natural manifestation of personal eccentricities."

Teaching style defined as "the combination of ordered thoughts for reaching a goal depending on the environment, and situation" In selecting a good teaching style, teachers must be cautious of the following issues; the selected style must be compatible with the subject of teaching, it must be compatible with learning goals, it should consider learners' ability, desire, and willingness, and also should motivate and stimulate learners to learn more (Mehr Mohammadi, 2000, p.70).

Researchers on EFL and ESL have suggested that there are different categories for teaching styles, for example, Stensurd and Stensurd's (1983) classification is consisted of visual, auditory, and kinesthetic styles. Henson and Borthwick (1984) stated six teaching

styles known as: task-oriented, cooperative-planer, child-centered, participant-centered, learning-centered and emotionally exciting. Grasha's classification of teaching styles was used in the present study since the validity of Grasha's typology of teaching styles has been supported in many conducted studies (e.g. Dincol, Temel, Oskay, Erdogan, &Yilmaz, 2011; LaBillois & Lagace-Seguin, 2009).

Grasha (1996) defined five important teaching styles that are joined in different outcomes in students. He classified teaching styles according to teachers' classroom role as the Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator and Delegator. He mentioned that these teaching styles are not isolated entities that impress only few teachers, but they are signs of teachers' presence in their classes and help us to figure out the true nature of teacher-learner encounters.

As a matter of fact, such classifications do not mean that EFL/ESL teachers can be classified neatly to one of theabove categories. Grasha (1996) emphasizes that almost every teacher shows each of the five teaching styles to varying degrees. In fact, each teaching style is like a different color on an artist's palette. Like colors, they can be mixed together. This implies that rather than talking about individual teaching styles we may talk about clusters of teaching styles.

Another issue that becomes a concern in the 21st century especially for ministry of education in many countries is teachers' burnout. Recent studies have shown that one out of every four teachers eventually leaves teaching profession (Charters, 1970; Mark & Anderson, 1978).

Burnout is defined as "a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement with people in situations that are emotionally demanding" (Pines & Aronson, 1981, 56). The concept of burnout usually mentions that it is connected with workplace stress, especially in professions that involve extensive contact with people in emotionally demanding situations (teachers, nurses, doctors….).

1.2 Literature Review

Although the lack of validated cut-off points in most countries makes it difficult to determine the prevalence of burnout, two broad findings emerge from the research: 1) teachers are more vulnerable than other workers to burnout symptoms, and 2) burnout affects all teachers around the world (De Heus & Diekstra, 1999; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

In Iran like many other large countries, burnout and other stress related disorders occur as a result of social problems. Nowadays, Iran is facing major problems such as increasing inflation, economic depression and high cost of living. In fact many people feel

stress about combined with tension and anxiety, fears, resentment and other emotional disturbances when they start to work. Investigations have shown that stress and burnout are one of prevalent issues among Iranian teachers (Fakhraee Faruji, 2012).

Dombrovskis, Guseva, and Murasovs (2011) highlighted and analyzed the connection between peculiarities of motivation to work and professional burnout among urban and rural school teachers in Latvia. The results of the study showed significant correlations between emotional exhaustion, economic motive and the motive of career growth in both groups of teachers. Urban and rural school teachers in Latvia with professional experience of less than five years demonstrated a high level of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced accomplishment. A high reduction level shows that teachers are experiencing difficulties in their professional self-realization.

Talmor, Reiter, and Feigin (2005) did a research to identify the environmental factors that relate to the work of regular school teachers who had students with special needs in their classrooms, and to find out the correlation between these factors and teacher burnout. The analysis of the data revealed that teachers' attitude had a significant relationship to their burnout. The more was the negative attitude, the more the teacher experienced burnout. Two other findings that were found to correlate with higher burnout rates were the number of students with special needs in the class. And very little assistance provided to the teacher. Also three environmental factors were found to have negative correlation with teachers' burnout: organizational, psychological and social factors, while the latter was negatively correlated with burnout. The less social support the teacher has, the higher his level of burnout is.

A study done by Zhang (2007) investigates the predictive power of personality traits for teachers' teaching styles. To this end, they employed the Neo-Five-Factor Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1992) for five personality dimensions, and teachers took the thinking styles in teaching Inventory (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1993). The result of the investigation showed that in general, teachers who had received higher levels of education were significantly more creative in their teaching, but significantly less conservative in it than teachers who had reported lower levels of education. Furthermore, the study revealed that teachers' personality traits played a significant role in their teaching styles beyond their gender, educational level and their perceptions of the quality of their students.

Although there are lots of existing studies done about EFL teachers abroad there are little such studies in Iran about the effect of psychological conditions of Iranian EFL teachers on their teaching styles. So we felt that there is a gap of studies between teachers' burnout

and the teaching styles they would select. The present study will not only enrich the literature on the academic profession internationally, but also have practical implications for higher education in Iran. Accordingly, the present study aims at shedding light on Iranian EFL teachers' psychological conditions. According to the previous issues mentioned, the following research questions were posed:

Q₁. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' Burnout and their Teaching Styles Preferences?

Q₂. Is there any difference between Male and Female Iranian EFL teachers' Teaching Style Preferences?

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

The sample group consisted of 110 male and female EFL teachers from Mashhad and Zahedan cities in the Northeast of Iran. Based on practicality and feasibility, the participants were selected from EFL institutions.

The sample was distributed equally in these two cities, to be a true representative of the population. From among the 110 participants, 4 didn't take the Teachers' Burnout test, and 7 didn't take the Teachers' Teaching Style survey. Therefore 11 pieces of data were excluded from data analysis with the total number of 99 EFL teachers (46 male and 53 female).

The teachers held B.A. (n=85) and M.A. (n= 25) degrees with teaching experiences ranging from 1 year up to 45 years, and they were between 18 to 63 years old and had different socio-economic backgrounds. Permission of authorities was obtained to distribute the Maslach Burnout Inventory and Grasha's Teaching styles Preferences among teachers. The purpose of the study was explained to participants and they were assured that the gathered information will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purposes. All the distributed questionnaires were arranged and coded numerically. The participants took questionnaires home, filled them out and returned them the other day.

2.2. Research Instruments

The following instruments were used for data gathering:

2.2.1 Maslach Burnout Inventory

For the purpose of the study, Maslach Teachers' Burnout Scale, MTBS (Maslach, 1976) was used to measure the participants' sense of burnout. The MTBS (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) is

the most common instrument used for determining burnout. Originally, it was developed to be used for human service organizations; the original form has been modified to allow assessment of burnout in different settings. The primitive form was composed of 47 items. Subsequently it was reduced to 25 and the final version has only 22 items. The present inventory has three sub-dimensions; emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA). High emotional exhaustion and lower personal accomplishment were the cause of high burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The EE dimension assesses feelings of fatigue and being drained in relation to excessive psychological demands in the occupational activity, the DP dimension denotes dehumanization and negative attitudes toward students, and the PA dimension involves labor satisfaction, occupational success, and competence feelings.

The EE and DP correlate positively, but negatively with PA dimension. Respondents score on a 7-point likert-type scale, according to the Frequency with which they experience the feelings and attitudes described by each item (Never: 0, A few times a year/less: 1, Once a month/less: 2, A few times a month:3, Once a week: 4, A few times a week: 5, Everyday: 6). The Cronbach Alpha values of dimensions for each sub-scale are as follow: emotional exhaustion 0.90, depersonalization 0.79, and personal accomplishment 0.71.

Researchers replicated the original MTBS three-factor structure through a Varimax rotation method. Test-retest coefficient obtained after a 4-week period yielded 0.80, 0.76, and 0.083, while internal consistency alphas were 0.88, 0.61, and 0.82 for EE, DP, and PA respectively.

2.2.2. Grasha's Teachers' Teaching Style

A 40-item instrument called Grasha's (1996) Teaching Styles Inventory (TSI), version3.0, was used to identify the dominant teaching style of each teacher. It categorizes responses into five teaching style categories: Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator (Grasha, 1996). Teachers were asked to complete the scale about themselves and their teaching preferences. Each item is scored using a 7-point Liker scale, 1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Mean score ranges for each of the sets of items were calculated relating to the individual teaching styles. Then, the mean scores were categorized as low, moderate, and high (based on the Standards developed by Grasha, 1996), where high corresponds to a dominant teaching style. Regarding this instrument Grasha (1996) reports acceptable reliability (α= 0.68- 0.75 on individual scales, and $\alpha = 0.72$ for the entire tests) and validity.

2.3. Data collection procedure

This study was performed in Mashhad and Zahedan English Language Institutes and Universities. Permission of authorities was obtained to distribute the questionnaires of MTBS, and TSI among teachers.

The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and they were provided with instructions and explanations for completing the questionnaires. The researchers assured them that the collected information would be kept confidential and would be just for research purposes. Besides, all the questionnaires were coded numerically and participants did not need to write their names on the questionnaires. Teachers were asked to take the questionnaires home, fill them out, and then return them the next session.Totally a sample of 200 teachers received the questionnaires but only 99 individuals returned them back (roughly a return rate of 50%).

To assess the participants' score on the three questionnaires, and neutralize the effects of any probable inconsistent marking behavior of scorers, the researcher decided to have more than one rater employing analytical scoring procedure.

2.4 Data Analysis

Different types of statistical analyses were used in the current study: In order to answer the first research question which deals with the possible relationship between teachers' burnout and their teaching style preferences, contrary to the researchers' expectation, Pearson correlations could not be run. Pearson correlations are based on the assumption that both variables are continuous scores (Brown, 2005), whereas teaching styles here were considered nominal data. According to Momeni, Salehi, and Siraj (2008) in such a case a One-way ANOVA and a *post hoc* Scheffétest (if there is/are significant relationship(s) between variables) should run to get a more comprehensible view of the relationship between the variables of the study. Hence, a One-way ANOVA was run to find the possible relationship between teachers' burnout and their teaching style preferences.

And for the second question investigating the differences between male and female participants in terms of their teaching style preferences, and as stated previously because gender and teaching style preferences, a Chi-square test was run. Chi-square is one of the non-parametric tests that can deal with nominal data. The Chi-square procedure can tell us whether there is a significant difference/relationship between two nominal variables, and if there was any, we can find out how the figures in each cell are different from the expected figures.

Also, all the statistical analysis were performed in the environment of the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) software, version 18.0 besides, the *alpha level* for all the research analyses was set at 0.05.

3. Results

As discussed earlier, to examine whether there is a significant relationship between teachers' burnout and their teaching style preferences, the Pearson product-moment correlation could not be run since it has one interval variable and one nominal variable (teaching styles). Therefore, a one-way ANOVA ran to have a better view of the relationship between these variables (for more information see Momeni, et al., 2008). Consequently, the obtained results are presented below. In the following table (Table3.1), the descriptive statistics of teachers' burnout are shown.

Table 3.1 Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Burnout

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Burnout	99	81.00	9.00	90.00	53.2525	12.54733
Valid N (list wise)	99					

In Table 3.1 the minimum and maximum scores are 9.0, and 90.0 with the mean score of 53.25 and standard deviation of 12.54. And Table 3.2 shows the descriptive statistics for different teaching style preferences. In table 4.2 descriptive statistics of different teachers' teaching styles are presented below.

Table 3.2 Descriptive Statistics of Different Teaching Styles

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
Expert	16	54.5000	13.41144	3.35286	41.00	90.00
formal authority	21	50.7619	14.01394	3.05809	9.00	73.00
personal model	3	65.6667	13.57694	7.83865	53.00	80.00
Facilitator	44	54.2500	10.79432	1.62731	33.00	78.00
Delegator	15	50.0000	13.63818	3.52136	15.00	69.00
Total	99	53.2525	12.54733	1.26105	9.00	90.00

As Table 3.2 shows, the mean score and the standard deviation for each teaching style is as follow: expert style (54.50, 13.41; formal authority 50.76, 14.01; personal model 65.66,

13.57; facilitator 54.25, 10.79; and for delegator 50.00, 13.63). Also, the minimum and maximum amounts of the observed teachers' burnout in each teaching style are presented.

For better understanding of the relationships between our two variables, a One-way ANOVA was run. Its results are presented as in Table3.3.

Table 3.3One-way ANOVA for Teachers' Burnout and Teaching Styles

.		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expert	Between Groups	1439.760	4	34.280	1.018	.470
	Within Groups	1886.200	16	33.682		
	Total	3325.960	98			
Formal authority	Between Groups	1146.161	4	27.290	.531	.983
	Within Groups	2877.839	21	51.390		
	Total	4024.000	98			
Personal model	Between Groups	1202.231	4	28.625	1.022	.465
	Within Groups	1568.517	3	28.009		
	Total	2770.747	98			
Facilitator	Between Groups	1727.315	4	41.127	1.346	.148
	Within Groups	1710.867	44	30.551		
	Total	3438.182	98			
Delegator	Between Groups	1667.649	4	39.706	1.019	.469
	Within Groups	2182.189	15	38.968		
	Total	3849.838	98			

As Table 3.3 indicates, the results of the One-way ANOVA shows no significant relationship between teachers' burnout and their teaching style preferences, the result of One-Way ANOVA for each teaching style is presented below:

For Expert, $F_{(4,16)}=1.01$, $p=.00<.47$, Formal Authority $F_{(4,21)}=0.53$, $p=.00<.98$, Personal Model $F_{(4,3)}=1.02$, $p=.00<.46$, Facilitator $F_{(4,44)}=1.34$, $p=.00<.14$, and Delegator $F_{(4,15)}=1.01$, $p=.00<.46$.Based on the results of One-way ANOVA analysis, it can be concluded that teachers' burnout is not related to their dominant teaching styles.

To provide answer to the second research question, an Independent sample T-Test was run for considering the differences of EFL teachers' Styles based on their gender.Table 3.4 shows the mean scores and standard deviation of different teaching styles for male and female English language teachers. As Table 4.6, shows the mean score of facilitator style is higher than other teaching styles which imply that the majority of EFL teachers choose facilitator style as their dominant style in their classes.

**Table 3.4 Descriptive Statistics of Male and Female EFL Teachers in Their
Teaching Styles Preferences**

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Expert	Male	46	38.2826	6.26689	.92400
	Female	53	40.0000	5.34574	.73429
Formal Authority	Male	46	38.0435	7.32107	1.07943
	Female	53	39.2075	5.50999	.75685
Personal Model	Male	46	35.2826	5.69078	.83906
	Female	53	36.7170	4.92785	.67689
Facilitator	Male	46	42.3913	6.77406	.99878
	Female	53	41.8302	5.12436	.70389
Delegator	Male	46	38.7174	6.51379	.96041
	Female	53	38.1321	6.09551	.83728

Figure 4.1 depicts the distribution of the male and female teachers. As you can see the female participants have a bigger group with regard to male counterparts.

Figure 3.1 the Distribution of Male and Female Participant Teachers

3.1 The Results of the Chi-Square Test

By the help of SPSS software, we used the Chi-Square test to show the differences between Iranian EFL male and female teachers in terms of Grasha's teaching style preferences.

The Table 3.5 shows the Chi-Square Test for Grasha's five teaching styles and male and female EFL teachers.

Table 3.5 Gender * Dominant Teaching Style Cross Tabulation

			Dominant					
			expert	formal authority	personal model	facilitator	delegator	Total
Gender	male	Count	7	7	2	23	7	46
		Expected Count	7.4	9.8	1.4	20.4	7.0	46.0

		9	14	1	21	8	53
female	Count	9	14	1	21	8	53
	Expected Count	8.6	11.2	1.6	23.6	8.0	53.0
Total	Count	16	21	3	44	15	99
	Expected Count	16.0	21.0	3.0	44.0	15.0	99.0

Table 3.6 Chi-Square Tests for Gender and Teaching Style Preferences

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.592[a]	4	.628
Likelihood Ratio	2.631	4	.621
Linear-by-Linear Association	.840	1	.359
N of Valid Cases	99		

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.39.

As Table 3.6 demonstrates, A 2x5 Chi-square analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between gender and the teaching style of the sampled participants, $x^2(2, 99) = 2.59$, p= .628. Therefore, the significance of differences between male and female teachers was not proved, which means, there is no significant difference between male and female Iranian EFL teachers in their teaching styles preferences.

4. Discussion

The study aimed at examining the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers'burnoutand their teaching style preferences and teachers' teaching style differences with regard to their gender.Analysis of the data revealed that there is no significant relationship between teachers' burnout and their teaching styles. Also, it was observed that the mean differences of burnout for expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator styles were not significant. This finding can be explained in the light of the nature of each teaching style and its prerequisite amount of burnout to fulfill it. If Grasha's (1996) typology of teaching styles be looked at carefully, it can be considered as a continuum. One end of the continuum starts with expert then goes to formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and at the other end with delegator style. As we move along the continuum from expert to delegator style, responsibility of the teacher for making students independent and caring about their needs increases. The expert teacher insists on lecture-based style of teaching and is just concerned with transmitting information. While at the other end, the delegator teacher advocates a more

humanistic and student-centered style of teaching and concerned with making student independent and autonomous.

However, there are some situations which may be troublesome to get a clear picture of the relationship between teachers' burnout and teaching styles. For example, a burnout teacher may have an expert style due to the pressure of some external powers such as educational system or school requirements. Therefore, other variables need to be considered concomitant with teachers' burnout and the teaching styles to gain a more over view of the relationship between them (Zhang, 2007; Fakhraee Faruji, 2012; Dombrovskis, Guseva & Murasovs, 2011).

Many prominent scholars and theoreticians in teaching language realm believe that high level of burnout feelings leads to passivity, decrease of professional and self-evaluation and competition as a way to live in a society. In their studies high levels of depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment are significantly correlated with motivation for teachers. And other scholars figured out that environmental conditions in which teaching and learning are taking place have significant relationship with their feelings of burnout. The supports a teacher has from his society can have a dramatic effect on his self-confidence and psychological conditions (De Heus & Diekstra, 1999; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Talmor, Reiter & Feigin, 2005).

The findings of the present research is in consistent with Fakhraee Faruji(2012) about the emotional and psychological conditions of Iranian teachers and their level of burnout, also the findings has correlation with Dombrovskis, et al,. (2011) and Talmor, et al, (2005) which they said there is a high correlation between teachers burnout and their environmental and work conditions and their level of burnout, the more were the teachers in their pedagogical field the more they were burnt-out. But our results were not in consistency with Zhang (2007) because our teachers all of them had academically degrees from high and qualified Iran's universities but they all did have conservative attitudes in their teaching profession despite their gender.

Traditional teacher education programs usually insist on pedagogical and technical skills. While both of these skills are necessary in preparing the teacher for the classroom, they are not sufficient and focusing on) teachers' personality factors would be rewarding as well. Therefore, the findings of the present study can be informative regarding what kinds of teaching styles are most common in high schools and how better to prepare pre-service teachers to exceed the current practice. Furthermore, the outcomes of this study may be useful for different individuals such as language policy makers, material developers (esp.

those who write English teacher training materials), school administrators, teacher educators, English language teachers, and students.

5. Conclusion

As it was discussed previously, teachers' burnout had no correlation with teachers' teaching style preferences.

Concerning the first research question, the researcher found out that the relationship between teachers' burnout and teaching style preferences was not significant. To prove this claim we ran a One-way ANOVA between these two variables.This investigation states that job anxiety of Iranian English teachershas no significant effects and consequences on their approach for their classes.

After all, regarding the second research question there is no significant difference between teaching style preferences in male and female Iranian English teachers. In this case, the mean difference score for both male and female teachers were so close to each other that we can conclude it was not statistically great and significant. This result is somehow in complete correspondence with some common characteristics and conditions we observed among Iranian EFL teachers, whether they are male or female.

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Title

A Study of Translating Metaphors in Business Texts:
A Case Study: *Eat That Frog!*

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Abstract

This paper is aimed at identifying the way Iranian translators render metaphors in business texts from English to Persian according to Larson's strategies. For this purpose, a business book named "*Eat That Frog!*" by Tracy was compared with its translation done by Aryan. The results of the study revealed that the translator used all Larson's strategies more or less to render the business metaphors. The analysis also demonstrated that the most common strategy applied by the translator was the one in which metaphors were kept because they were correctly understood by the target readers. It is hoped that the findings of this study shed some light on the translation of metaphors in business texts.

Keywords: Translation, Metaphor, Business Texts, Larson's Strategy

1. Introduction

Apparently, translation is a simple task. On the other hand, it is a complicated process which needs special skills. In fact, translators encounter various problems in the process of translation one of which is the translation of metaphor. Therefore, translating metaphors is a challenging problem facing all translators. As metaphors play an important role to influence

readers, almost all types of literature consist of metaphors. Among different types of language discourses, business ones also deal with this type of figure of speech that have to be taken into consideration when reading, translating, or comprehending texts and newspaper articles.

Several authors pointed out that business texts are heavily metaphorical (McCloskey, 1983 & Mason, 1990). "Business texts in English contain a large number of simple and complex metaphors: markets are *bullish* and *bearish*, profits *dive* and *plummet,* while the *credit crunch bites* and banks employ a *scorched-earth policy* in the face of *hostile take-over bids*" (Munday, 2004, p.75). To translate metaphors, various strategies were proposed such as strategies of Newmark (1988) and Larson (1984). In this study, it is intended to identify business metaphors in a business book named *"Eat That Frog!"* written by Tracy (2001) and its translation done by Aryan (2011). The strategies mentioned by Larsen (1984) will be studied for the purpose of analyzing the translation of business metaphors in the above mentioned book. There are two objectives in this study. First, it is sought to identify whether the strategies proposed by Larson (1984) were used in the translation of *"Eat That Frog!"* by Tracy (2001) into Persian. Second, it is intended to find out which strategies were used more frequently than others.

2. Review of the Related Literature

All languages have some verbal and non-verbal features and the translator should be well acquainted with these features in both the source and the target language in order for his/her translation to achieve an appropriate level of equivalence. Some of verbal features are maintainable in translation, such as linguistic and conceptual structures. On the other hand, the non-verbal features are more complicated and at some degree untranslatable, such as the culture-specific and social significances, presenting unique challenges during the translation process. Among the extreme problematic cases in the field of translation that compiles both verbal and non-verbal features is metaphor, the focus of this study.

Metaphor translation was considered by Nida & Taber (1969), Van Den Broeck (1981), Newmark (1982), Larson (1984), Dobrzynska (1995), Toury (1995), and Kurth (1999) amongst others. They all practically agreed that there were three main possibilities to translate a metaphor: "to use a total or partial equivalent of the original metaphor (the same image), to look for another metaphorical expression with a similar sense (but probably a

different image), and to substitute an untranslatable metaphor by an approximate literal paraphrase" (Dobrzynska, 1995, p. 599).

To translate metaphorical elements, translators apply different procedures to overcome the difficulties of translating the elements. For instance, Newmark (1981) distinguished between five types of metaphors: dead, cliché, stock, recent, and original. In his discussion of stock metaphors, he proposed seven translation procedures, which have frequently been taken up in the literature. These procedures are arranged in order of preference. Newmark's focus was on the linguistic systems, and his arguments can be linked to the substitution theory of metaphor (Goatly, 1997): *(1)* Reproducing the same image in the TL, *(2)* Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image which does not clash with the TL culture, *(3)* Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image, *(4)* Translating metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense (or occasionally a metaphor plus sense), *(5)* Converting metaphor to sense, *(6)* Deletion, if the metaphor is redundant, *(7)* Using the same metaphor combined with sense, in order to enforce the image.(p. 116)

Moreover, Van Den Broeck (1981) listed the following possibilities: Translation 'sensu stricto' (i.e., transfer of both SL tenor and SL vehicle into TL), *(2)* Substitution (i.e., replacement of SL vehicle by a different TL vehicle with more or less the same tenor), *(3)* Paraphrase (i.e., rendering a SL metaphor by a non-metaphorical expression in the TL). (p.77)

Larson (1984) generally proposed five ways to translate metaphors: *(1)*The metaphor may be kept if the receptor language permits, *(2)* a metaphor may be translated as a simile. *(3)* a metaphor of the receptor language which has the same meaning may be substituted, *(4)* the metaphor may be kept and the meaning explained, *(5)* the meaning of the metaphor may be translated without keeping the metaphorical imagery. (p. 254)

Among various contexts, business one contains a large number of metaphors. In a word, many economists and linguists, such as Henderson (1982), McCloskey (1983), Boers and Demecheleer (1997), and Charteris-Black (2000) conducted studies on metaphor in business contexts in the past decades. In the studies, they agreed that metaphors in business contexts play a significant and essential role in understanding abstract business theories and complicated business phenomena.

In 1982, Henderson, a famous economist, formally began to discuss the metaphorical use of language in economic discourses. Then, McCloskey (1983) recognized the importance of metaphor in economic contexts. He argued that "economics is metaphorical in nature" (ibid., p. 480).

Obviously, translating metaphors in business discourse can be a convoluted task because of the complex nature of metaphor as a rhetorical figure of speech. Therefore, finding an appropriate way to deal with the task of translating business metaphors is appreciated.

Although several studies exist in the field of metaphor in general, very few works were done in Iran on translation of metaphors in business texts from English to Persian to the best of the researcher's knowledge. Therefore, the researcher sufficed to two studies which are more relevant to the present one.

Amouzadeh Mahdirji (2006) conducted a contrastive analysis of metaphorical trade names in pre and post revolutionary times based on the binary framework in applying the views of Jakobson and Vorlat. The data were described in terms of syntactic structure, type of projected features, and the implications. The results showed that linguistic features of metaphorical trade names in the post-revolutionary data tended to be more complicated than the linguistic features in the pre-revolutionary data. Jafari (2009) considered economic metaphors in the mystical poems of Lalalud-Din Rumi. He also discussed Rumi's view of poetic language, basically as related to the economic metaphor. Unfortunately, the researcher could not find any clear evidence for the results and conclusion of this study.

3. Method

In the present study, metaphors from a business book named *"Eat That Frog!"* written By Tracy (2001) were identified and compared with their translation in Persian. All metaphorical expressions were individually matched to the equivalents in the TT and their translations were analyzed according to the strategies proposed by Larson (1984). At this stage, their frequencies were identified as well.

3.1. Materials

"Eat That Frog!" is an English business book written by Tracy in 2001 in which 21 great ways were mentioned to stop procrastinating and get more done in less time. It contains instances of business metaphors. The above mentioned book was translated into Persian by Aryan in 2011. Only one translation version could be found for the book, so that was the sole text to be investigated.

The book was chosen not only for the large number of business metaphors instances but also for its worldwide popularity and success in the field of Economics with 450,000 copies sold and translated into 23 languages according to http://www.amazon.com. Its author, Tracy, is among the world's most renowned eminent authors in business literature. He has been

awarded many prices. Referring to http://www.wikipedia.org: Brian has studied, researched, written and spoken for 30 years in the fields of business. He is the author of 55 books that now have been translated into 42 languages, and which are now available in 60 countries.

Therefore, in the case of business literature, selecting one of his books served the purpose of the study very well.

Another reason for the selection of the book was that Tracy's diction in this book was metaphorical. He even used the title *"Eat That Frog!"* as a metaphor for tackling the most challenging task of your day – the one you are most likely to procrastinate on, but also probably the one that can have the greatest positive impact on your business life.

3.2.   Procedure

As the target of this study is metaphor, firstly, all English sentences containing business metaphors were extracted by a line-by-line analysis of the SL. Then the equivalent metaphors or translations of the metaphors in the TT were found and matched to their corresponding metaphors. Finally, they were scrutinized to see what sort of translation strategy the translator opted to render each business metaphor. In Addition, the most frequently used strategies or strategy were identified. The researcher took the strategies of Larson (1984) for translation of metaphor into consideration to analyze the data.

4. Results and Discussion

In the following section, the strategies applied to render business metaphors into Persian are presented and the collected data will be analyzed after being classified on the basis of the aforementioned framework.

The following are examples of some metaphors stand out as especially conspicuous in the selected business text.

1) You are literally swamped with work and personal responsibilities. (p. ix)

شما به معنای واقعی کلمه غرق در کار و مسئولیت های شخصی هستید. (p. 1)

In translating above metaphor, the translator kept it since its meaning is natural in the receptor language (strategy 1).

2) Sales went up. (p. xi)

فروشم بالا گرفت. (p.5)

The translator kept the same metaphor (strategy 1).

3) I was a vice-president in charge of a ninety-five-person sales force in six countries. (p. xii)

توانستم به مقام نائب رئیسی برسم که دارای نود و پنج نیروی فروش در شش کشور مختلف بود. (p.6)

The translator kept the metaphor (strategy 1).

4) If the first thing you do is to eat a live frog, you can go through the day with the satisfaction of knowing that that is probably the worst thing is going to happen to you all day long. (p.2)

اگر اولین کاری که هر روز صبح باید انجام بدهی این باشد که قورباغه زنده ای را قورت بدهی، باقی روز خیالت راحت خواهد بود که بدترین و سخت ترین کاری را که ممکن است برایت پیش بیاید انجام داده ای. (p.11)

The translator kept the metaphor and explained the meaning in the following sentence (strategy 4).

5) Your attitude toward time, your "time horizon," has an enormous impact on your behavior and your choices. (p.26)

نگرش شما نسبت به زمان یا "افق زمانی شما" تاثیر شگرفی بر رفتار و انتخاب های شما دارد. (p.45)

As the metaphor is understood correctly by the receptor readers, the translator kept it (strategy 1).

6) The more important and valuable the task is to you, the more you will be motivated to overcome procrastination and launch yourself into the job. (p.31)

هر اندازه کار مورد نظر برای شما مهمتر و ارزشمندتر باشد برای غلبه بر تنبلی و دست به کار شدن برای انجام آن کار انگیزه بیشتری خواهید داشت. (p.50)

The translator substituted the metaphor (strategy 3).

7) Why are you on the payroll? (p.35)

چرا به شما حقوق می دهند؟ (p.56)

In this case, the metaphorical instance was translated without keeping its sense (strategy 5).

8) When you are fully prepared, you are a cocked gun or an archer with an arrow pulled back taut in the bow. (p.47)

هنگامی که کاملا مهیا شده باشید مانند تیراندازی هستید که تفنگش آماده و پر در دستش می باشد و یا مانند کمانداری که زه کمان را به عقب کشیده و تیرش آماده پرتاب است. (p.72)

As it is obvious, the translator rendered the metaphor as a simile (strategy 2).

9) Your most valuable asset, in terms of cash flow, is your "earning ability." (p.57)

مهمترین سرمایه نقدی شما توانایی کسب درآمد می باشد. (p.84)

The meaning of the metaphor was translated without keeping the metaphorical imagery (strategy 5).

10) Once they revamped their pricing, their sales went back up and they returned to profitability. (p.64)

هنگامیکه آنها قیمت گذاری خود را اصلاح نمودند فروش بالا گرفت و شرکت به وضعیت سود دهی بازگشت. (p.93)

The translator rendered the metaphor regardless of its metaphorical imagery in the receptor language (strategy 5). In the following section, the frequency of each strategy is shown. The table indicates the number and the percentage of the strategies applied by the translator, and the pie chart shows the strategies applied to translate the metaphors in percentage.

Table 1. *Frequency of Different Strategies Applied by the Translator*

	Strategy	Total	Percentage
1	The metaphor may be kept if the receptor language permits	47	43.93%
2	A metaphor may be translated as a simile	2	1.87%
3	A metaphor of the receptor language which has the same meaning may be substituted	9	8.41%
4	The metaphor may be kept and the meaning explained	5	4.67%
5	The meaning of the metaphor may be translated without keeping the metaphorical imagery	39	36.67%

Figure 1. Graphic Representation of Frequency of the Applied Strategies
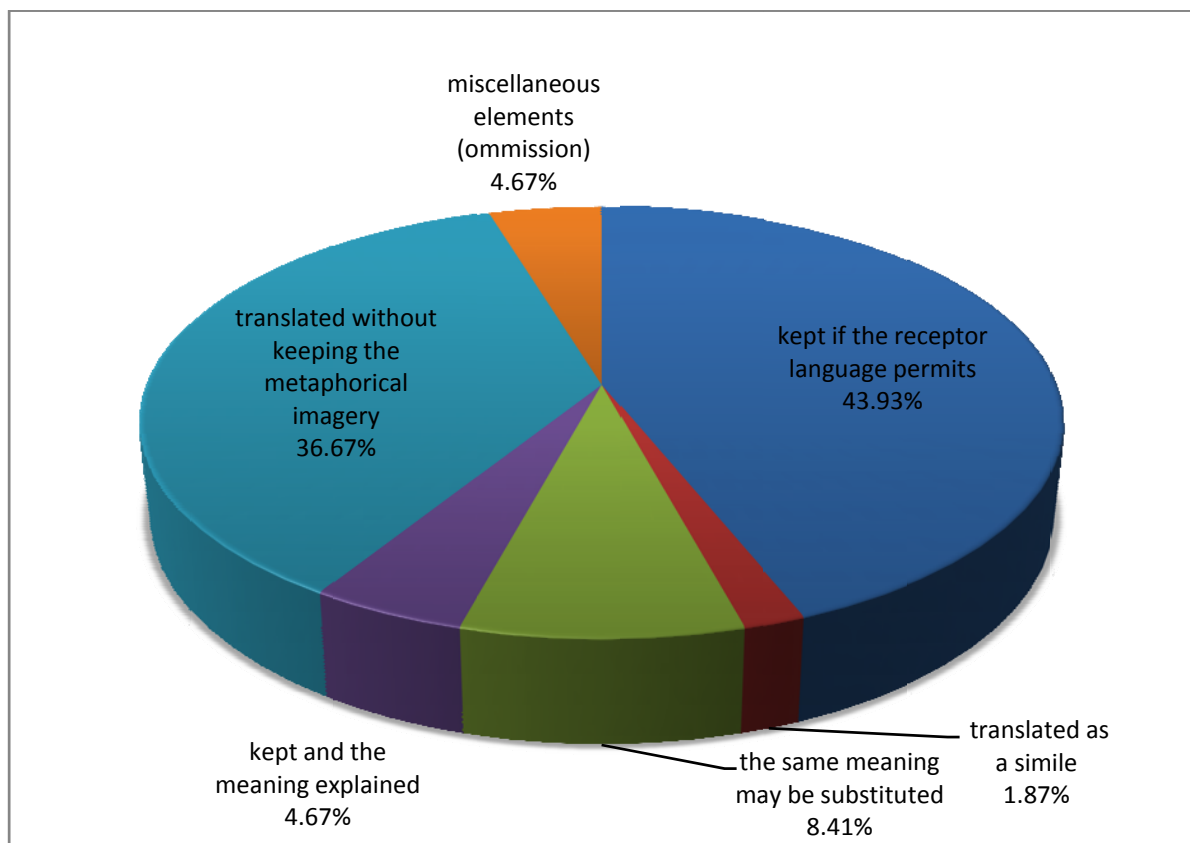
The results revealed that, of the total of 107 metaphors in the ST, 47 metaphors were retained because of their naturalness in the receptor language, only two metaphors were rendered into simile, nine metaphors of the TT with the same meaning were substituted, five were kept and the meanings were explained, and 39 metaphors were translated without keeping the metaphorical sense. From 107 metaphors matched to their equivalents in the TT, five metaphors were omitted.

According to Table 1, the most common strategy applied by the translator is the one in which metaphors are kept because they are correctly understood by the target readers. However, it has its shortcomings. There are some instances which were translated according to this strategy although they are not crystal clear in the receptor language. In this case, the translator either should have searched for a substitute understandable in the receptor language or provided extra explanation to make the meaning more obvious in the TT.

5. Conclusion

With respect to the first and second objectives of the research which concern the strategies translators use to fill the lexical gaps and their frequencies, the results showed that the translator of the selected business book applied all strategies proposed by Larson (1984) in the translation more or less. Although she managed to provide a proper translation, she failed to translate some metaphors appropriately. There were some instances of metaphors in which the translator used wrong strategies and the results were a vague translation in the TT. Moreover, she omitted some metaphors which could have been easily translated based on the proposed strategies. To sum up, strategies proposed to translate metaphors are abundant, but it is the translator's choice to decide how to deal with them in business texts.

The findings of the present study are practically helpful as guidelines for translators, particularly the novice ones, who are more likely to confront the problems of translating business metaphors. Translation of metaphors is of difficulty to any translator due to their tricky nature. When it comes to metaphors in business texts, the problems are doubled. The findings can raise their awareness of choosing appropriate strategies. Translators should do their best not to skew the message by deleting the metaphorical elements of the text or even by applying unjustifiable strategies which may lead to some loss of the intended meaning.

Furthermore, the findings could be also useful in translator training courses to provide students with guidelines on translating metaphors in business texts.

This study explored only one problem for translating business texts. There are different areas which are worthy of further studies. Metaphor was the main issue discussed in this study; however, metaphor is just one instance of figures of speech. Other figures of speech such as metonyms, hyperbole, simile, proverbs, and other figures of speech can also be observed in business texts to see how they are dealt with.

Moreover, translation of metaphors can be studied in other discourses such as political, legal, religious, scientific, medical and historical ones as well as translation of metaphors in films and cartoons. Therefore, researching these areas can yield fruitful results.

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Internet Resources

http://www.amazon.com/Eat-That-Frog-Great-Procrastinating/dp/1576754227

http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brian_Tracy

Title

The Aesthetic Comparison of Hafez Shirazi's and William Shakespeare's Sonnets

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Abstract

Comparative literature deals with aesthetic comparison of the world's great literary works in terms of intertextuality's aims. Researcher can find overt and covert similarities, when they study these works. Likewise, in this article, the researcher compares the sonnets of Hafez, the great Persian lyric poet, and William Shakespeare, the great English sonneteer, as two lyric genre, and deals with the same themes like similar views toward lover and beloved, especially their behavioral aspects in Hafez's and Shakespeare's poems. It seems likely that, these similarities indicate the covert parts and traditional cultural roots rather than reciprocal influences between the texts. Therefore, in this article, the researcher reaches the way of similar narration of the two poets regarding the reflections of being, especially love. In addition, both Hafez and Shakespeare represent homogeneous narration concerning the depth of being and creation that have heavenly and spiritual aspects. Thus, these spiritual and heavenly aspects reveal the difference between thought of these two poets of spirituality with modern life that does hardly believe being as the creation of God.

1. Introduction

When we study and interpret a story or poetry, that work turns to be a text. Because that work is created by the author and text represents the type of views and studies that were done by literary critics. Of course, the work itself, the result of the creation of the author, is formed by the multi-sided relations of other texts: in addition, the work of the author itself is one of those texts. And this form has the light and shade of many varieties of texts: therefore, some of those texts have obvious signs and some others are hidden in the intricate layers of texts in an aesthetic way. Therefore, intertextuality reveals itself as scenes surrounding a beautiful image among the texts of a particular literature. In other words, intertextuality and comparative literature are viewed in terms of aesthetics. Here, aesthetics is "an embodiment of aesthetic value, and other values, in the works of literature" (Gálik, 2000, p. 2).

Furthermore, among other nations' literatures, it also leads to creation of literary and non-literary works in terms of mutual states and/or overt and covert give and take. This is the most apparent mode of indication of these literary analyses and relationships which researchers represent by comparison between two or more texts in the field of literature. Therefore, there are varieties of links among these literary texts, such as "a human being cannot find a clear definition, if he is not to be considered among other human beings" (Ebrahimi, 2010, p. 25). Hereupon, comparative literature is one of the consequences of intertextuality which were considered by critics in the twentieth century literary criticism. "The subject matter of aesthetic criticism is the beauty of the texts. Such a beauty is natural, crude, and distinctive. The criterion of this naturalness is not the nature that is outside of the poet's mind, but its criterion is poet's wit. Therefore, aesthetic criticism focuses on this point that a literary text is firstly self-sufficient, and should not have utilities and giving messages. In other words, aesthetic criticism shows that a literary text should be firstly literary in order to be considered and criticized as an art. Although aesthetic literary texts often have other aspects like giving messages; however, this subordinate aspect of a text" (Ebrahimi & Zarrinjooee, 2013, p. 398).

Poststructuralist critics were the first who exploited the term "intertextuality. Actually, Julia Kristeva (1966), as a poststructuralist, coined the term "intertextuality". Kristeva believes in the relations of a given text to previous and future texts. Therefore, "She attempts

to capture […] a vision of texts as always in a state of production, rather than being products of be quickly consumed"(Allen, 2006, p. 34).She also considers intertextuality in a text in which "several utterances, taken from other texts, intersect and neutralize one another" (Kristeva, 1980, p. 36).

Mikhail Bakhtin is another poststructuralist critic that influenced Julia Kristeva. His main term is "dialogue" (Bakhtin, 1986, p. xxxvi) that refers to the relations of numerous texts. Allen(2006) discusses Bakhtin's(1981)view that "the text is a practice and a productivity, its intertextual status represents its structuration of words and utterances that existed before, will go on after the moment of utterance, and so on"(p. 36). And it is technically called "double-voiced" (Bakhtin, 1999, p. 40). Therefore, from Bakhtin's(1986) point of view,works are not autonomous or "monumental" (p. 72).

Roland Barthes, as a poststructuralist, emphasizes the intertextuality of literary works. He considers the differentiation between text and work. He said that by reading a literary work, that work becomes a text. In addition, text is out of the control of the author. In other words, reading is rewriting of the texts. As a result, Barthes enters to the field of poststructuralism. He said that "text is a tissue, a woven fabric"(Barthes,1977, p. 159). The text is related to previous and future texts. Barthes (1977) said that texts are "quotations without inverted commas"(p. 160); in other word, "the text is a tissue of quotations drawn from the innumerable centers of cultures"(pp.146-7).

The most obvious way of appearing of these relations is literary study and analysis that is done and represented by literary researchers with comparison of two or more texts. Accordingly, comparative literature is one result of intertextuality that is considered since twenties century.

2.Comparative Literature as Aesthetic study

Comparative literature exists in the extent of texts which are both reckoned to be masterpieces in the world literature and exuded from the talented minds of artistic stylists and authors. "Comparative literature means the knowledge of more than one national language and literature, and/or it means the knowledge and application of other disciplines in and for the study of literature" (Tötösyde Zepetneck, 1998, p.13) The influence and interrelationship of texts in this ground take place through two ways: first, overtly, the author is clearly or directly familiar with the first or source text or poet. Therefore, he has read that text itself (even its translation). Second, covertly, it means that these two poets do indirectly exploit the

universal literary and cultural fountain-head or trough in their own unconscious without actually knowing each other. It seems likely that, these exploitations are represented in their works, obviously or covertly.

Here, the task of literary critics is to figure out these cultural and literary relationships and secrets which their trough is the world of mythology; that is, a world which is shared by all ancient nations, minds, and languages like subterranean water. Therefore, "to such a degree may this comparability exist that comparative analysis can invoke a concept of an underlying myth which has structured the works in a given way" (Childs &Fowler,2006, p. 30).This is based on the fact that, in studying the field of comparative literature, literary critics should know these common and shared points in order to better reveal similarities and differences. Tötösyde Zepetneck (1998) said that "it produces that meaningful dialogue between cultures and literatures" (p.15). As a result, two nations' literatures are brought close to mankind's shared borders. Thus, critics take fundamental steps in the route towards bringing together men in the world of art and culture.

It is evident that the more fundamental studies being done in this field, the rich native literatures become. Likewise, when a river joins to a sea, both releases from the land, irrigate thoroughly the sea, and the river itself becomes sea. In other words, the relationship between comparative literature and native literatures are a mutual one which being cut in one side causes the dryness and drought of the other side. Particularly, this relationship is more significant but rather more vital for both native and national literature. Therefore, this study represents aesthetic sign of these two poets' sonnets which are rendered aesthetically, and each poet rendered them in their own beautiful and especial way. Therefore, this study represents aesthetic sign of these two poets' sonnets which are rendered aesthetically, and each poet rendered them in their own beautiful and especial way.

In the field of Persian and English literature, in regard to their linguistic roots in the level of ancient Indo-European languages which refers deeply to the more fundamental cultural roots, the study of comparative literature is obviously necessary. In the ground of these studies, the main poets and authors should be considered, because they are both the expressive of style and thought and/or indicative of exudation of literary and artistic masterpieces from their own mind. In addition, the comparison of greats of literatures can be somehow the comparison of the entire literature of those nations.

In comparative literature, joint points and their comparisons can better come to concrete results. In this field, literary types can be useful for literary researchers, because the borders of every literary kind is clearer in literary types such as, in the ground of epic literature, it

would be better to compare great poets and authors in epic kind and in the extent of lyric type, the lyric poets, who represent the deep feelings of mankind in their own works, have the same and common points that unconcerned with superficial issues that refer to the geographical environment, the feelings of these poets deeply deal with the fundamental questions and needs of mankind regardless of color, race ,and so on; accordingly, in Persian literature, HafezShirazican be considered a poet who represents language in the form and terms of expression of mankind's deep feelings better than other lyric poets in Iran. In English literature, William Shakespeare's sonnets also contain the same fundamental feelings of mankindthat express constant pains and joys of men's society. The two lyric poets, however, have moved from the ground of native literature to the world literature – intentionally and unintentionally- should be considered more by literary men today. Because emphasizing on the names and works of these greats is a humanistic thought that makes a mutual understanding among nations more efficient than any other devices and avoids dangerous and untrue judgments. Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1951) said that: "I am more and more convinced {…} that poetry is the universal possession of mankind, revealing itself everywhere and at all times in hundreds and hundreds of men {…} we Germans to fall too easily are very likely into this pedantic conceit, when we do not look beyond the narrow circle that surrounds us. I therefore like to look about me in foreign nations, and advise everyone to do the same. National literature is now rather an unmeaning term; the epoch of world literature is at hand, and everyone must strive to hasten its approach" (pp. 165-66).

In this respect, untrue judgments about the greats of every nation's literature can separate those nations years but centuries; while in the depth of human society, or in the world of unconsciousness, that refers to the mythologies, human societies are related to each other and the loop of this relations have always been the great cultural-literary works.

3. Aesthetic Discussion

Great poets and artists' views are always ultra mundane. They express their own lives' experience in terms of art as if these are mankind's experience, because they have not involved in the trivial problems that have no results except disagreement and disunity and chaos. Furthermore, the poets, as a learned master and wise psychologist, understand the main roots of humanistic sensations and concerns by their own great genius. Thus, they create a literary work in an artistic and aesthetic language. In addition, they overlook the mistakes

that human nature makes, and then attach to the great human aims, which are friendship and peace. As Hafez said in lines 5-6 and 15-16 of sonnet 19:

> Whoever came to this (effacing) world hath the mark of ruin (the effacement by death of this borrowed existence):
>
> In the tavern (the world), ask ye saying: "The sensible one is where?"
>
> Hafez, grieve not of the (cruel) autumn wind (which bloweth) in the sward of the world:
>
> Exercise reasonable thought. The rose (time) without the thorn (the autumn wind) is where? (Clarke, 2007, pp. 153-54)

Therefore, Hafez considers forgiveness of mistakes as a true way of life and living; however, forgiveness at the time of ability, not at the time of abjectness and contemptible consequences in which it is worthless. As Hafez said in lines 1-16 of sonnet 59:

> Of a great favor from the threshold of the Friend (God), hope mine is;
>
> A great sin I have done; of His pardon hope mine, is.
>
> I know that He will pass (forgive) by my sin; for
>
> Although, Pari-like (vengeful and omnipotent) He is, of angel- nature (merciful and compassionate), He is.
>
> To such a degree, I wept that everyone who passed (by me),
>
> When he beheld running the pearl of our tears, spake saying: "This stream what is?"
>
> At the head of Thy street, we played our head (life) like a ball:
>
> None knew saying: "This ball what is? This street what is?
>
> Speechless, Thy tress (the attraction of divine grace) draweth my heart:
>
> Against Thy heart-alluring tress, the way of speech whose is?
>
> A (long) lifetime it is since we perceived the perfume of Thy tress
>
> Yet in the perfume-place of my heart, the perfume of that (great) perfume is.
>
> That (small) mouth, no trace whereof I see, is naught:
>
> That waist is only a hair (in slenderness); and I know not what that hair is.
>
> (O true Beloved) at the picture of Thy (peerless) form, I wonder saying: How goeth it not
>
> From my eye, whose work, momently, washing and washing (with stream of tears)
>
> Hafez! Bad is thy distraught state; but,
>
> Good, to the memory of the Friend's tress thy distraught state is.(Clarke, 2007, p. 79)

William Shakespeare also refers to the fundamental roots of human feelings and worries. His widespread view creates such worldwide experience in an artistic way in order to mention friendship and forgiveness as the essential ways of human life. Thus, vain and trivial problems are denied because they cause great conflicts. As he said in lines 1-14 of sonnet 35:

> No more be grieved at that which thou hast done:

Roses have thorns, and silver fountains mud;

Clouds and eclipses stain both moon and sun,

And loathsome canker lives in sweetest bud.

All men make faults, and even I in this,

Authorizing thy trespass with compare,

Myself corrupting, salving thy amiss,

Excusing thy sins more than thy sins are;

For to thy sensual fault I bring in sense

Thy adverse party is thy advocate

And 'gainst myself a lawful plea commence:

Such civil war is in my love and hate

That I an accessary needs must be

To that sweet thief which sourly robs from me. (Bennett, 2007, p.62)

These poets have been upset, they have smiled and have asked questions in an aesthetic way, although they have not found answers. And these two, smiling and not getting an answer, have been their art and way of life in order to inspire happiness, hope, and feeling of seeking of wisdom to their own readers. In this ground, love as an elixir gives golden nature to the worthless life of human being and changes the shortness of life to eternity. Here, love is only love, neither can it be called a figurative name nor real, because love has always been colorless and traceless; this love carries pain and difficulties in its nature, because whatever is gained easily is worthless. Love is not something that touches the heart without a great deal of suffering and onerous pains. "A friendship or affection that accompanied by tribulation and hardship, and this is their everlasting destiny" (Ebrahimi, 1998, p. 94). Therefore, these difficulties and pains should be seen through beautiful and nice angles. That said, the poet narrates suffering and difficulties of love and the long, tortuous coquetry of the beloved with indescribable joy, because he sees freedom in His / Her love. As Hafez said in lines 1-6 and last 2 lines of sonnet 316:

So that me, to the wind of destruction thou give not, to the disheveling breeze, thy tress give not:

So that my foundation of life, thou take not, the foundation of disdain, establish not.

So that me, independent of the rose-leaf (perfume) thou mayst make, thy face illumine:

So that me, free of the (lofty) cypress, thou mayst make, thy stature exalt.

So that my head (in perturbation) in desire for (the solitude of) the mountain

So that me, Farhad, thou make not, the disdain of Shirin display not.

[…]

Of thy tyranny, God forbid that Hafiz should, one day, complain:

From thy day when, in thy bond, I am, free I am. (Clarke, 2007, pp.686-87)

In lines 1-14 of sonnet 29 of William Shakespeare, we see freedom and satisfaction of the poet by thoughts of love in spite of his suffering, difficulties, and pains. He can see beauty in his own love. In other words, his aesthetic approaches towards love represent his theory and practices of love:

> When in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes
> I all alone beweep my outcast state,
> And trouble deaf heav'n with my bootless cries,
> And look upon myself, and curse my fate,
> Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,
> Featured like him, like him with friends possessed,
> Desiring this man's art and that man's scope,
> With what I most enjoy contented least;
> Yet in these thoughts myself almost despising,
> Haply I think on thee, and then my state,
> Like to the lark at break of day arising,
> From sullen earth sings hymns at heaven's gate;
> For thy sweet love remembered such wealth brings
> That then I scorn to change my state with kings.(Bennett, 2007, p.50)

Freedom exists in love, but when the lover poet sees society in a disordered and chaotic situation, and people in a distress and negligence of their own state and condition, as one of them who ask assistance but nobody helps, narrates this situation. The poet deals with the narration of this state and circumstance in order to portray this current situation. In this heart-rending narration, poet both warns the readers, and versifies this narration for future comers for taking lessons.

In Hafez's sonnet 169, in lines 1-18, we see:

Friendship is none, I perceive. To friends what hath happened?

Friendship ended when? To friends what hath happened?

[…]

None saith: "A friend preserved the right of friendship."

Those right-understanding, what state hath befallen? To friends what hath happened?

Years it is since no ruby came from the mine of manliness:

To the sun's heat, to the wind's effort, to the rains, what hath happened?

This land was "the city of friends" and "the dust of kind ones"

Friendship, how ended? To the city of friends, what hath happened?

Into the midst, the ball of grace of liberality, they have cast:

In the plain none appeareth. To the horsemen what hath happened?

Many a rose hath blossomed: no cry of a bird hath risen:

To the nightingales, what hath chanced? To those of a thousand notes what hath happened?

No sweet melody, makethZohre, perchance, she hath consumed her lute:

Intoxication, none desireth. To the wine-drinkers, what hath happened?

Hafez! Divine mysteries, none knoweth. Silence!

Of whom, askest. Thou saying: "To the state of Time's revolution, what hath happened?"(Clarke, 2007, pp. 409-410)

In William Shakespeare's lines 1-14 of sonnet 33, the chaotic condition of individuals, even himself, is revealed:

Full many a glorious morning have I seen

Flatter the mountain-tops with sovereign eye,

Kissing with golden face the meadows green,

Gilding pale streams with heavenly alchemy;

Anon permit the basest clouds to ride

With ugly rack on his celestial face,

And from the forlorn world his visage hide,

Stealing unseen to west with this disgrace:

Even so my sun one early morn did shine

With all triumphant splendor on my brow;

But out, alack! He was but one hour mine;

The region cloud hath mask'd him from me now.

Yet him for this my love no whit disdainth;

Suns of the world may stain when heaven's sun staineth.(Bennett, 2007, p.58)

Accordingly, the poet versifies his most hearty and alienated sonnets in a lugubrious and warning state. The poet is alienated in the society like any other learned and wise men. This loneliness and alienation is seen in both emotional and social aspects, because these two issues have the same root; that is, a sea that is created by drops and sea necessitates the existence of drops. He moans and groans about separation and travelling. This travelling, in the first case, refers to the expatriate or his exile in this world, and, in the second one, the separation from the beloved and homeland that is difficult and heart-ending for the poet. At these moments, that is the time of dark night, that mention black era of separation, the imagination of the poet deals with portraying the statue of the beloved. Therefore, it becomes the narrator of a one-sided dialogue or one- sided love. This narration reveals the loyalty of the poet and inattention of the beloved. Actually, this theme is a dominant mode and

preponderant element in most sonnets of Persian poets, especially Hafez. As Hafez said in lines 1-16 of sonnet 320:

> Last night, with a torrent of tears, sleep's path,
>
> In memory of Thy down, a (vanishing) picture on water,
>
> In my view, the Friend's eye-brow; and the consumed khirka:
>
> To the memory of the corner of Thy prayer-arch (eye-brow), a cup
>
> In my thought, the form of the idol (the true Beloved) displayed grandeur;
>
> From afar, on the cheek of the moon, a kiss,
>
> On the Saki's face, my eye; on the harp's wail, my ear;
>
> In this matter, with eye and ear, an omen (of what will be revealed),
>
> Till morning-dawn, the picture of the fancy of Thy face,
>
> On the workshop of my sleepless eye,
>
> To the words of this ghazal, the cup uptook my Saki:
>
> This song, I uttered; and pure wine,
>
> Every bird of thought, that, from the tip of joy's branch, flew,
>
> Again, to the snare of Thy curl, it,
>
> Happy, was the time of Hafiz; and an omen of object and of desire,
>
> In respect of long (life), and of great (fortune) of friends, (Clarke, 2007, p. 673)

And William Shakespeare also refers to the same travel in imagination at night in lines 1-14 of sonnet 27:

> Weary with toil, I haste me to my bed,
>
> The dear repose for limbs with travel tired;
>
> But then begins a journey in my head,
>
> To work my mind, when body's work's expired:
>
> For then my thoughts, from far where I abide,
>
> Intend a zealous pilgrimage to thee,
>
> And keep my drooping eyelids open wide,
>
> Looking on darkness which the blind do see
>
> Save that my soul's imaginary sight
>
> Presents thy shadow to my sightless view,
>
> Which, like a jewel hung in ghastly night,
>
> Makes black night beauteous and her old face now.
>
> Lo! Thus, by day my limbs, by night my mind,
>
> For thee and for myself no quiet find.(Bennett, 2007, p.48)

As said before, to some extent two texts often are the same in terms of thought and images as if one of them is written from another directly. However, this is not exactly. Sensitive and

ambitious minds usually reach these same points of mankind's needs and desires, and then portray them. As Hafez versifies the appreciation of his own unique and exceptional love in lines 15-16 of sonnet 317: "On my heart's tablet is naught save the (straight) alif of the Friend's stature: / What may I do? Me, recollection of other letter the teacher (the murshid) gave not (Clarke, 2007, p. 703). And William Shakespeare said in lines 7-8 of sonnet 24 that: "which in my bosom's shop is hanging still, / That hath his windows glazed with thine eyes"(Bennett, 2007, p. 43). And Hafez said in line 1 of sonnet 322 and last two lines of sonnet165 respectively: "(O true Beloved) on the workshop of the eye, the form of Thy face, / An idol in Thy form, not I saw; no I drew; I heard." (Clarke, 2007, p. 721), and "O eye!(with thy weeping) wash not grief's picture from the tablet of Hafez's heart:/For it (the picture) is the Heart-possessor's sword-wound; and, (with washing) the blood-color will not go" (Clarke, 2007, p. 353). And Shakespeare said in lines 1-2 of sonnet 24: "Mine eye hath play'dthe painter and hath stell'd / Thy beauty's form in table of my heart"(Bennett, 2007, p. 43).

In heavenly thought of Hafez, the lover only fall in love with the unique beloved and nothing else, and it is interpreted intuitive unity in transcendental knowledge. This absolute unique beloved only shines in the lover's heart and is influential in the lover existence and essence. But it cannot be understood by rationality or mind. Therefore, Shakespeare also reveals such thought by other interpretation. The kinds of poet's interpretations regarding being and cosmos are different from each other, but they also have the same points of thoughts. The admiration and astonishment toward being and the eternal unique beloved can be the joint point of thought of the two poets. However, based on the environment, it gains a different interpretation, when it comes out of each poet's mind and language. In addition, this kind of different interpretation of the style leads to the differentiation in the style. Here, style is considered more as a linguistic issue. And in the comparison of their thoughts and types of images, this linguistic type of style disappears, because it leads to the translation of their interpretations and opinions.

Based on Heraclitus' Fragments,(as cited in Wheelwright, 1959)light, fire, and logos are the basic formers of the universe in ancient Iranian and Greek philosophy. In mysticism, this light is black. Therefore, eternal beloved is often revealed and represented as a black face by the side of Iranian mystics. Hafez is one of those poets that have a different beloved rather than others, although his beloved often has a white face like other poets. However, the different opinion of Hafez is better represented in the black face of his beloved. Perhaps this blackness refers to the mysterious aspects of the base of the universe that human beings have

not been able to understand. Hafez said in lines 7 and 8 of sonnet 71: "what is this lofty roof, smooth, with many pictures? / In the world, acquainted with this mystery, Sage there is none" (Clarke, 2007, p. 82).Accordingly, blackness is the mysterious color of truth and principle of universe. As Hafez said in lines 2 and 3 of sonnet 57: "all the sweatness (goodness, laudable qualities, external beauty, internal excellence) of the world is with him / The fair eye, the laughing lip, the joyous heart (each) is with him" (Clarke, 2007, p. 78).

Heraclitus (as cited in Wheelwright, 1959) notes that Logos and fire that have transversal relationship in different religions have a name for explanation of the basis of the universe. In other words, these three terms are like texts that influence each other, and refer to the unique existence of the truth.

William Shakespeare said in lines 3 and 4 of sonnet 130: "If snow be white, why then her breasts are dun; / If hairs be wires, black wires grow on her head"(Bennett, 2007, p. 219). Hafez also refers to this kind of beloved's hair in lines 11 and 12 of sonnet 16: "The violet fastened up her twisted tresses: / Before the assembly, the tale of Thy tress, the wind cast" (Clarke, 2001, p. 34). Or in Shakespeare's lines 1-10 of sonnet 127, we see the black beloved:

> In the old age black was not counted fair,
>
> Or if it were, it bore not beauty's name;
>
> But now is black beauty's successive heir,
>
> And beauty slander'd with a bastard shame:
>
> […]For since each hand hath put on nature's power,
>
> Fairing the foul with art's false borrowed face,
>
> Sweet beauty hath no name, no holy bower,
>
> But is profaned, if not lives in disgrace.
>
> Therefore my mistress' brows are raven black
>
> Her eyes so suited, and they mourners seem(Bennett, 2007, p. 213)

4.Conclusion

At last, Hafez and William Shakespeare, as two great poets of two different cultures, indicate similarities that are beyond the boundaries of the world. The aesthetic resemblances and similar themes reveal spirituality and beautification of the sonnets. They portray universal issues in a way that go beyond the limitation of little problems like mystics. As a result, the aesthetic comparison of great poets leads to the recognition of the universal themes of the poet, even though these themes had been gotten different names or terms by different intellectuals. Therefore, we should be careful that in revealing these hidden and obvious

similarities, because we do not want to catch the sources. To conclude, this article shows resemblances of these two poets regarding being and its reflections.These poets regard their subject matter or love aesthetically. They act resemblances in their own unique and aesthetic way.

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Title

Exploring the Relationship between Willingness to Communicate, Self-perception and Personality Type among Iranian EFL Learners in Ayandesazan Institute of Kerman

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Abstract

Willingness to communicate (WTC), an individual difference (ID) variable, has gained an increasing amount of attention in the area of Foreign language acquisition (FLA). Only a few studies have investigated the situational nature of WTC. This study is an attempt to realize the relationship between WTC and Self-perception and the relationship between WTC and Personality type. A mixed-method approach design employed in order to explore the different aspects of the WTC construct. Data collected through a questionnaire, classroom observations, and interviews. The participants, 221 Iranian students, completed the WTC questionnaire. Classroom observations carried out with four of these participants

in order to understand their behavioral WTC. Follow-up interviews then conducted with these four participants. Findings from this study revealed that the selected Iranian students' self-report WTC did not necessarily predict their actual WTC behavior, and thus confirming the dual characteristics of WTC. Trait-like WTC could determine an individual's general tendency to communicate whereas situational WTC predicted the decision to initiate communication within a particular context. A number of factors that appeared to influence their WTC identified as self-confidence, self-perceived proficiency, and international posture. The results of this study contribute to the theoretical foundation and methodology of the WTC construct. The researcher of the current study has chosen to test MacIntyre et al.'s model of WTC (1998) for the goal of applying the model to the Iranian context.

Keywords: Willingness to Communicate, EFL (English as a Foreign Language), Perceived communication competence, Personality

1. Introduction

To compete in the globalized world, the need to speak English has become an issue in East Asian countries and communication skills have been given top priority in English education. English communicative competence considered as playing a significant role in promoting international exchange, fostering economic progress and participating in international competence (Ross H.A, 1992). Iranians like other Asian countries are not exceptional in this trend. In Iranian context like Chinese and Japanese context, English is deeply associated with social, economic, and educational success. The government has put pressure on schools and teachers to implement communicative language teaching. Even though, however, Iranians like Chinese are passionate about learning English, they frequently labeled as 'reticent learners' who lack intention to initiate communication in English when given the opportunity. It is clear that various individual difference factors are relevant to their willingness to engage in communication using English. However, in spite of the emphasis on communication in English education in EFL contexts and the generally accepted view that students need to practice in speaking in order to learn (MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. 2003). English learners choose to remain silent when there are opportunities to use English in or outside of the classroom.

Self-Perceived Communicative Competence is "the feeling that one has the capacity to communicate effectively at a particular moment" (MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. 1998). Self-perceived communication competence reflects upon how confident people are in different communication contexts. As Weaver (2010) stated' "This feeling of confidence arises from a combination of previously encountering a particular communicative situation and having the needed knowledge and skills to successfully communicate in that situation. One's willingness to communicate might decrease when individuals encounter a novel communicative situation where they lack the required knowledge and skills (p.16).

The other factor, which might affect learners' WTC, is personality, which is "the part of the field of psychology that most considers people in their entirety as individuals and as complex beings" (Pervin and John 2001, p.3). Therefore, the variables that affect learners' to participate in a real communication situation examined.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is a concept, which explains why some people would like to speak in a particular communication situations; while some other prefer to remain quiet. An important variable in interpersonal communication processes represents the intention to initiate communication they are when they free to do so (McCroskey,J. c., Baer. J. E. 1985). According McCroskey & Richmond (1990) high willingness associates with frequency and amount of communication and it is associated with a variety of positive communication consequences. Low willingness is associated with a variety of negative communication outcomes with decreased frequency and amount of communication. WTC in L1 defined as a stable predisposition toward communication when free to choose to do so (McCroskey &Baer, 1985, cited in MacIntyre & Charos, 1996, p.7).

McCroskey (1997) treats WTC in L1 as a personality-based, trait-like predisposition, which was relatively consistent across a variety of communication contexts and types of receivers. In other words, even though situational variables might affect one's willingness to communicate, individuals exhibit regular WTC tendencies across situations (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; McCroskey, 1997). McCroskey(1997) also identified introversion, self-esteem, communication competence, communication apprehension, and cultural diversity as antecedents that lead to MacIntyre et al. (1998) model and developed the heuristic model of L2 WTC (See Figure 2.) to recognize linguistic and psychological factors that might

influence learners' level of L2 WTC. In this model, there is a distinction between enduring influences and situational influences.

The model comprises twelve variables arranged in six layers, which are classified into two main levels: level one involves situational variables (Layers I-III) and levels two involves individual influences (Layers IV-VI). The situational variables (e.g., desire to speak with a specific person) are subject to change, depending upon the specific context at a given time. The individual variables (e.g., intergroup relations, learner personality) are conceived as being stable properties of a person that can be applied to any situation.
The distal arrangement of the situational variables and the individual influences in the model indicates the significance of situational variables over individual influences, because situational ones are located in the upper level closer to the top of the pyramid, the individual variables are located in the lower level at the base of the pyramid. Despite having non-immediate impact on WTC, individual influences form the fundamental level of the WTC process.

Layer I situated at the top of the pyramid represents the L2 Use, which not only refers to speaking activities, but also to other activities, such as reading newspapers and watching TV in L2. Layer II represents behavioral intention, which refers to Willingness to Communicate. Layer III indicates situated antecedents, which immediately influence the WTC, and involves Desire to Communicate with a Specific Person as well as State Communicative Self-Confidence. These two situational dependent variables are the most salient determinants of WTC, that are formulated by the enduring influences or individual differences located underneath. Desire to Communicate with a Specific Person depends on situations where two types of motives operate. These motives are Affiliation and Control. Affiliation refers to a need to establish a relationship with the interlocutors that comes from integrative motives such as attractiveness, similarity, and familiarity, while Control refers to a type of communication which depends on instrumental motives, such as more powerful interlocutors, where interlocutors aim to manipulate each other when communicating, often with specific aims, such as requiring their assistance, cooperation or services.

These two types of situations also influence enduring variables (i.e., Interpersonal Motivation and Intergroup Motivation) in layers below. State Anxiety and State Perceived Competence determine state Communicative Self- Confidence, which is oriented by situational variables. State Anxiety refers to levels of worry in speaking in a specific situation, which can be attributed to many factors, such as negative past experiences. State Perceived Competence refers to how a person perceives her or his capacity to communicate

now of speaking. The latter two variables were evident as the most important antecedents of WTC (MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Under the situational variables remote from the summit of the pyramid are located the enduring influences or individual differences level. Layer IV, Motivational

Propensities, contains three variables. First, Interpersonal Motivation depends on either Control or Affiliation. Second, a particular group to which a person belongs and which is impacted by Intergroup directly affects Inter-group Motivation Climate and Intergroup Attitudes in layers below and also depends on either Control or Affiliation. Third, L2 Self-Confidence consists of two components, Cognitive and Affective. The L2 self-confidence at this level is more stable than state communicative self-confidence in the situational level. Layer V, Affective-Cognitive Context includes three variables: Intergroup Attitudes, Social Situation, and Communicative Competence.

Finally, layer VI, Social and Individual Context, comprises two factors, Intergroup Climate and Personality. Intergroup Climate reflects the special characteristics of the bilingual context, where the issue of availability of the language or linguistic vitality (Structural characteristics of the community), as well as attitudes towards ethnic groups (Perceptual and affective correlates), becomes important. Control and Affiliative motives are important elements that drive WTC, because they are repeatedly emphasized in both situational and individual variables in the model.
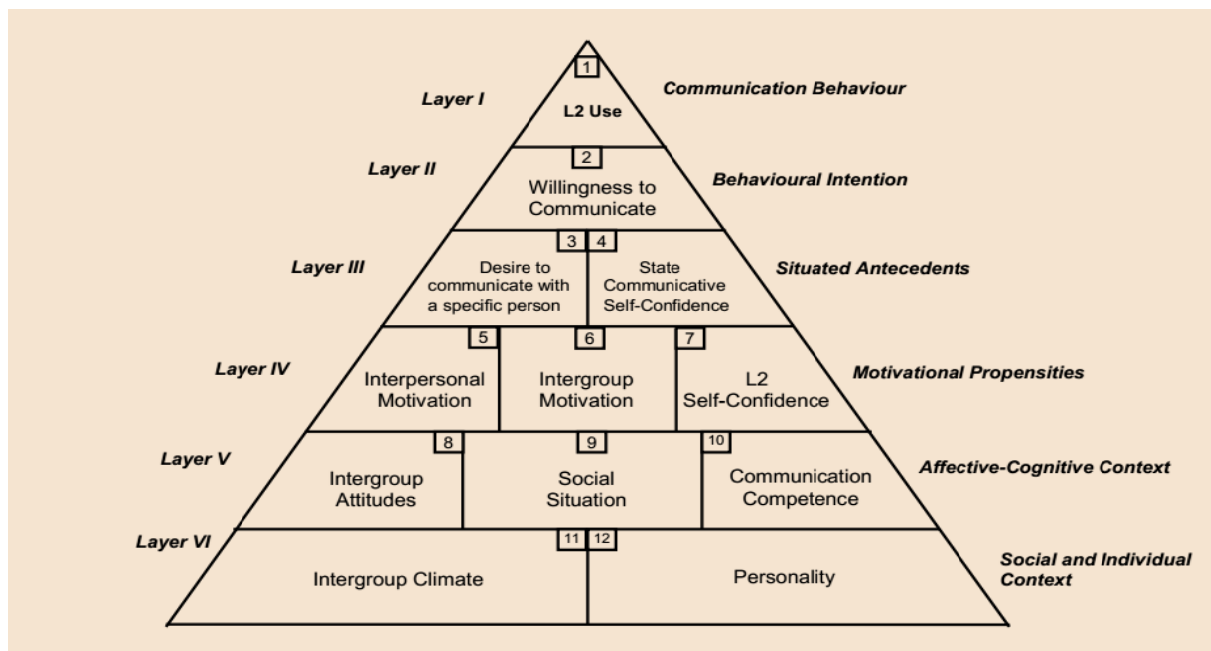
Figure 2.1. Heuristic Model of WTC in L2 of MacIntyre et al. (1998)
Note. From "Willingness to Communicate in the Second Language: Understanding the Decision to Speak as a Volitional Process." by P. D., MacIntyre, 2007, *the Modern Language Journal, 91,* p. 568.

Self-Perceived Communicative Competence is "the feeling that one has the capacity to communicate effectively at a particular moment" (MacIntyre et. al., 1998).). Enlightened by the early work of Philips' on reticence (1968) in which anxiety and lack of communication skills were listed as two major reasons of the communication withdrawal and avoidance, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) suggested communication apprehension and communication skills to be the antecedents which may impact an individual's willingness to communicate. They noticed that in the training of communication skills, people's willingness to communicate in the training context were positively correlated with their communication skill development. The individual's personality is another factor that helps explain how individuals react to, and communicates with, the members of their own cultural group as well as out-group members. Personality traits such as extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience, influence second language learning and the willingness to communicate in that second language (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Lalonde & Gardner, 1984). Different types of personalities may entail more or less willingness to learn a second language as well as different levels of competence and/or confidence in using another language to communicate (Ehrman, 1990; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990).

This study aimed at finding answer for the following research question:

- What is the significant relationship between Iranian university students' level of willingness to communicate in English inside an EFL classroom and t level of self-perceived L2 communicative competence?

- How does the personality type influence WTC?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participant

The population of this research included English Foreign Language Learners at Ayandehsazan Institute of Kerman. 221 samples of EFL learners in eight classes were chosen for this study. Their ages ranged between 16 and 20. Of all the 221 participants, 175 of them were female, 46 of them were male. Four participants are chosen for interview.

They were all in pre-intermediate and intermediate level.

3.2 Instrumentation

The instruments employed in this study included a L2 WTC questionnaire, Self-Perceived Communication Competence Scale, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI),classroom observations, and semi-structured interviews as detailed below.

3.2.1. L2 WTC Questionnaire

Second Language Willingness to Communicate questionnaire (α= 9.32) was used in order to measure the degree of willingness among students. This questionnaire was adapted from MacIntyre, Baker, Clément and Conrod (2001). The Scale measures Second Language Willingness T0 Communicate questionnaire in four basic skill areas: listening (8 items, α=8.32), speaking (5 items, α=7.6), reading (6 items, α=8.1), and writing (8 items, α=8.32). It also measures students' willingness to engage in L2 communication inside the classroom. This questionnaire includes 27 items and the students are asked to choose an answer based on the Likert scale from 1 to 5. The scales are (1=almost never willing, 2= sometimes willing, 3= willing half of the time, 4= usually willing and 5= almost always willing).

3.2.2 Self-Perceived Communication Competence Scale

Self-Perceived Communication Competence Scale is a 12-item questionnaire that designed to measure participants' self -assessed competence in different communication situations (McCroskey ,1997).

The Self-Perceived Communicate Competence scale is a 12-item self-evaluation measure of an individual's perception of his or her ability to communicate effectively. The overall SPCC score ranges from 0 (completely incompetent) to 100 (completely competent). According to the authors, higher SPCC total scores (>87) indicate higher self-perceived communicative competence; lower scores (<59) suggest low self-perceived communicative competence.

3.2.3. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), which was developed, by Myers and her Briggs measured participants' personality type. It frequently used for determining different normal human personalities. It clarifies the participant as one of the sixteen types of personality, shown by four letters. This questionnaire included sixty items in four parts and each part composed of fifteen questions with two alternatives.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1WTC and SPCC

In the first research question, the relationship between WTC and SPCC among Iranian EFL students investigated and it hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between second language WTC inside the classroom and SPCC. The descriptive statistics presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1.*Descriptive Statistics for WTC and SPCC*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Self-Perceived Communicative Competence	209	9.17	100.00	64.9920	21.81624
Willingness to Communication	203	27.00	131.00	89.6502	21.50065
Valid N (list wise)	192				

There was a strong positive correlation between the two variables, *r*= .57, *n*= 192, *p*<.005, with levels of willingness to communication and self-perceived L2 competence. Therefore, the hypothesis would be rejected and it can be concluded that there is statistically significant relationship between Iranian university students' level of willingness to communicate in English inside an EFL classroom and their level of self-perceived L2 communicative competence.

The first variable measured by L2 WTC questionnaire. As it is shown in table 4.2 the mean score for WTC is (M=89.65, SD=21.50) and the highest and lowest observed value, are (27 and 13).

Table 4.2.*Descriptive Statistics of the Overall WTC (N=203)*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Willingness to Communication	203	27.00	131.00	89.6502	21.50065
Valid N (listwise)	192				

Descriptive statistics applied to describe and summarize these components of WTC L2 questionnaire. Table 4.3 shows the item statistics of WTC.

Table 4.3.*Item Statistics for Willingness to Communicate (N=203).*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTC_1	2.89	1.358	203
WTC_2	3.27	1.308	203
WTC_3	3.24	1.427	203
WTC_4	3.19	1.281	203
WTC_5	2.71	1.367	203
WTC_6	2.62	1.492	203
WTC_7	2.79	1.353	203
WTC_8	3.75	1.282	203
WTC_9	3.80	1.301	203
WTC_10	3.54	1.283	203
WTC_11	3.22	1.395	203
WTC_12	3.77	1.297	203
WTC_13	3.49	1.329	203
WTC_14	3.19	1.330	203
WTC_15	3.42	1.338	203
WTC_16	2.73	1.298	203
WTC_17	3.04	1.351	203
WTC_18	3.23	1.317	203
WTC_19	3.74	1.241	203
WTC_20	2.75	1.422	203
WTC_21	3.56	1.361	203
WTC_22	3.36	1.398	203
WTC_23	3.42	1.273	203
WTC_24	3.23	1.455	203
WTC_25	3.42	1.257	203
WTC_26	4.00	1.233	203
WTC_27	4.28	.961	203

Table 4.4 demonstrates the descriptive statistics for WTC components. It depicts that participants are more willingness to speak (Mean=27.60) and write (Mean=24.20) inside the classroom. These results support MacIntyre et al. (2001) study. In that, study students were

more willing to speak and write.

Table 4.4.*Descriptive Statistics of WTC Components*

	Speaking	Comprehension	Reading	Writing
Valid	221	221	221	221
Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean	27.6063	17.6290	19.0860	24.2036
Median	29.0000	19.0000	20.0000	24.0000
Mode	26.00	19.00	18.00	22.00
Variance	54.558	24.016	33.924	56.954
Range	40.00	25.00	30.00	39.00
Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00
Maximum	40.00	25.00	30.00	39.00

Table 4.5 displays the item Statistics of Self-perceived Communicative Competence.

Table 4.5.*Item Statistics of Self-perceived Communicative Competence (N=209)*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SPCC_1	56.70	27.720	209
SPCC_2	76.46	24.197	209
SPCC_3	63.40	29.162	209
SPCC_4	54.45	28.128	209
SPCC_5	80.53	23.802	209
SPCC_6	62.97	28.803	209
SPCC_7	55.84	29.668	209
SPCC_8	68.80	25.758	209
SPCC_9	69.00	26.228	209
SPCC_10	51.39	29.442	209
SPCC_11	73.40	25.747	209
[1]SPCC_12	66.99	27.210	209

Table 4.6 demonstrates the mean score for SPCC is (Mean=64.99, SD=21.81) and the highest and lowest observed value, are respectively (100 and 9.17).

Table 4.6.*Descriptive Statistics for Self-Perceived Communication Competence*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Self-Perceived	209	9.17	100.00	64.9920	21.81624

[1]

Communicative
Competence
Valid N (list wise)   192

Table 4.7 represents the three subscales of SPCC in terms of interlocutors. It demonstrates that participants moderately feel competent to speak in English (M= 64.99). However, they felt more competent speaking in English with friends (Mean=71.59, SD=22.55) rather than with acquaintances (Mean=69.08, SD=23.75) or strangers (Mean=54.97, SD=25.24). These results support Jung (2012) study. One reason that students are more competent to speak with friends is that they feel less nervous with their friends or acquaintances.

Concerning attitudes towards the international community, the interview data suggested that these students generally had a positive attitude toward the international community. In the interviews, all four participants expressed their desire to go abroad for travel or further study. They seemed to be curious about the lifestyle and people of foreign countries. In their opinion, English-speaking countries were more technologically developed and more powerful than Iran. It also makes sense that in the classroom situation, students with high-perceived L2 competence and less anxiety arousal tend to be more willing to enter into communication.

It appeared that self-perceived L2 proficiency influenced the Iranian learners' WTC in this study.

4.2 WTC and Personality Type

To answer question two some parts are considered. Table 4.7 demonstrates descriptive statistics of WTC and Type References. The most observed type reference was introversion and extraversion observed as the least common reference type.

Table 4.7. *Descriptive Statistics of WTC and Personality Type References*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic
Willingness to Communication	89.6502	21.50065
Sensing	7.57	3.075
Intuitive	7.15	3.031
Introvert	9.00	3.599
Extrovert	5.84	3.490
Perceiving	6.25	3.872
Judging	8.52	3.824
Thinking	8.03	3.743

	Feeling	6.67	3.760

Valid N (list wise)

Table 4.8 demonstrates descriptive statistics of WTC and Type References. The most observed type reference was introversion and extraversion observed as the least common reference type. Therefore, it can be assumed that most Iranian students are introverts.

Table 4.8.*Descriptive Statistics of WTC and Personality Type References*

	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic
Willingness to Communication	89.6502	21.50065
Sensing	7.57	3.075
Intuitive	7.15	3.031
Introvert	9.00	3.599
Extrovert	5.84	3.490
Perceiving	6.25	3.872
Judging	8.52	3.824
Thinking	8.03	3.743
Feeling	6.67	3.760

Valid N (list wise)

The introverted students seem to have lower self-confidence than the extroverted students do. Introverts seem to have higher communication anxiety and lower perceived communication competence. In order to see the relationship between WTC and Personality Type, correlation analysis was employed.

Table 4.9.*Descriptive statistics for willingness to communicate among language learners with different personality type*

	Personality types	N	Mean Rank
Total WTC	ISTJ	35	120.29
	ISFJ	17	76.50
	ISFP	11	93.64
	ISTP	14	98.04
	ESFP	2	125.00
	SETP	3	130.50
	ESFJ	4	104.88
	ESTJ	14	131.89

INTJ	15	95.93
INFJ	17	92.50
INTP	12	93.96
INFP	16	74.56
ENTP	7	127.21
ENFP	5	71.90
ENTJ	12	109.67
ENFJ	19	104.61
Total	203	

Table 4.9 shows the descriptive statistics for willingness to communicate among language learners with different personality types. It is revealed that there are negative weak correlation between WTC and Intuitiveness (r = .16, n= 203, p < .005), Introversion (r = .15, n= 203), perceiving (r = .18, n= 203), and feeling (r = .20, n= 203). There were also positive weak correlations among Sensing (r = .19, n= 203), Extroversion (r = .16, n= 203), Judging (r = .18, n= 203), and Thinking (r = .21, n= 203). These results indicate that there were weak correlations among WTC and type references. From these findings, it can be concluded that although there is a weak correlation between WTC and the personality type, these relationship is not that strong to affect WTC.

Table 4.10. *Kruskal Wallis Test examining WTC among students with different personality types*

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	Willingness to Communicate
Chi-Square	18.699
Df	15
Asymp. Sig.	.228

From table 4.10, it can be argued that there is no significant difference between WTC and Personality Type among Iranian EFL students. These results can be argued in favor of hypothesis, which came true. The personality type of the person therefore does not noticeably affect WTC. In other words, whether, Extrovert or Introvert, Sensing or Intuitive, Thinking or Feeling and Judging or Perceiving, the level of WTC is not significantly related to and affected by these types.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was employed to identify students' personality type. This type indicator includes eight type references (or four dichotomies). These type references are extraversion–introversion, sensing–intuition, thinking -feeling, and judging–perceiving. Table 4.11 demonstrates the item statistics of MBTI.

Table 4.11. *Item Statistics of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PT_1	1.39	.488	148
PT_2	1.26	.438	148
PT_3	1.32	.470	148
PT_4	1.58	.495	148
PT_5	1.12	.328	148
PT_6	1.57	.497	148
PT_7	1.45	.499	148
PT_8	1.63	.485	148
PT_9	1.29	.456	148
PT_10	1.39	.488	148
PT_11	1.68	.467	148
PT_12	1.47	.501	148
PT_13	1.48	.501	148
PT_14	1.28	.449	148
PT_15	1.22	.418	148
PT_16	1.50	.502	148
PT_17	1.34	.475	148
PT_18	1.51	.502	148
PT_19	1.45	.499	148
PT_20	1.68	.470	148
PT_21	1.49	.502	148
PT_22	1.68	.470	148
PT_23	1.43	.496	148
PT_24	1.45	.499	148
PT_25	1.30	.462	148
PT_26	1.30	.462	148
PT_27	1.59	.493	148
PT_28	1.56	.498	148
PT_29	1.49	.502	148
PT_30	1.46	.500	148
PT_31	1.42	.495	148
PT_32	1.66	.477	148
PT_33	1.22	.413	148
PT_34	1.29	.456	148
PT_35	1.18	.388	148
PT_36	1.59	.493	148
PT_37	1.51	.502	148
PT_38	1.56	.498	148
PT_39	1.58	.495	148
PT_40	1.43	.497	148
PT_41	1.51	.502	148

PT_42	1.52	.501		148
PT_43	1.17	.376		148
PT_44	1.45	.499		148
PT_45	1.36	.481		148
PT_46	1.52	.501		148
PT_47	1.40	.491		148
PT_48	1.60	.491		148
PT_49	1.38	.487		148
PT_50	1.52	.501		148
PT_51	1.50	.502		148
PT_52	1.56	.498		148
PT_53	1.45	.499		148
PT_54	1.59	.494		148
PT_55	1.61	.488		148
PT_56	1.54	.500		148
PT_57	1.39	.490		148
PT_58	1.72	.452		148
PT_59	1.64	.483		148
PT_60	1.75	.434		148

Table 4.12.*Descriptive Statistics of TypeReferences (N=221)*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Sensing	221	1	15	7.57	3.075
Intuitive	221	0	14	7.15	3.031
Introvert	221	1	15	9.00	3.599
Extrovert	221	0	14	5.84	3.490
Perceiving	221	0	15	6.25	3.872
Judging	221	0	15	8.52	3.824
Thinking	221	0	15	8.03	3.743
Feeling	221	0	14	6.67	3.760
Valid N (list wise)	203				

The next type references are introversion and extraversion. 15 items measured these two type references. Table 4.12 also indicates that most of students were introverted (Mean= 9.00, SD= 3.59) and the highest and lowest observed values were (1and 15).

Data from the interviews revealed that these four participants were predominantly learning English in order to communicate with foreigners or for travel purposes. When asked about perceptions of their personalities, student number 3 and student number 4 regarded

themselves as being extroverted, student number 2 thought she was quiet and student number 1 thought herself to be not too quiet or too talkative

5. Conclusion

Given the fact that the goal of language teaching is to encourage learners to communicate effectively, it is crucial to find out why some learners are reluctant to speak in language classrooms. The problem is worse in an Iranian EFL setting where learners have little, if any, exposure to the target language outside the classroom (Krashen& Terrell 1983). There are not many opportunities for the students to practice their language and their practice is limited to classroom environment.

To understand the underlying system of WTC as a volitional process for the decision to speak, it would be crucial to examine how EFL learners perceive their own willingness to communicate in English and how affective factors (attitudes, personality, English learning motivation, communication anxiety, and self-perceived communication competence) influence WTC in English in EFL contexts.

The present study has highlighted some aspects and relationships between Willingness to Communicate, Self-Perceived Communicate Competence. In the first research question, the relationship between WTC and SPCC among Iranian EFL students investigated and it hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between L2 WTC inside the classroom and SPCC. To examine the strength of the relationship between students' level of willingness to communication in L2 with the degree of their self-perceived L2 communicative competence correlation analysis is used. A positive correlation found between second language WTC and SPCC.

The introverted students seem to have lower self-confidence than the extroverted students do. Introverts seem to have higher communication anxiety and lower perceived communication competence. In order to see the relationship between WTC and Personality Type, correlation analysis employed.

The descriptive revealed that there is negative weak correlation between WTC and Intuitiveness, Introversion, perceiving, and feeling. There were also positive weak correlations among Sensing, Extroversion, Judging, and Thinking. These results indicate that there were weak correlations among WTC and type references.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

The present study, through its detailed descriptions of WTC, offers valuable information for the purpose of teachers' reflection and classroom practice. The results of this study have confirmed that WTC needs to be seen as an important component of SLA. Language teaching should ultimately foster learners' willingness to engage in communication and their willingness to talk in order to learn. It may be also advisable for teachers to give students that are more reticent the opportunity to speak and build up their self-confidence by fostering a less threatening and a more caring classroom atmosphere. The findings of this study revealed that the students' low L2 WTC did not seem to be solely attributable to their self-confidence, it was also due to an absence of opportunities for interaction because of the large number of students in a typical Iranian classroom.

It suggested that teachers should arrange more group activities so that learners may have more opportunities and feel more willing to communicate.

Teachers should create as many opportunities as possible for learners to use the language in the classroom. This should eventually make non-immersion students more comfortable when using the second language and possibly improve their perceptions of self-confidence in the L2.

The findings of the present research study are also useful in terms of determining the dominant personality types of language learners. The results of this study show that the most EFL students are introverts. Because most EFL students are introvert, language teachers suggested encouraging students to participate in communication activities and ask or motivate students to express their thoughts and ideas in different communication situations

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

This study examined only two variables (SPCC and PT) of the WTC model; further research is needed to examine the effect of communication apprehension, self-perceived communicative competence, motivation, personality, and attitude on WTC at the same time in Iranian EFL context. Furthermore, the degree of WTC can be examined in accord with students' language proficiency to see if language proficiency can affect WTC. Other researchers can be done using qualitative approach toward WTC and using interviews to investigate the other variables that effect WTC in Iranian EFL context.

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Title

The Role of Power Relations in the Translations of Postcolonial Fictions: Focusing on English Translations of Persian Works

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Abstract

The concept of multiplicity of meaning in language appeared with the development of post-structuralism in the sixties. Post-structuralism directs the translation researchers to the power relations and power hierarchy in the society and also marginalization that is behind the meaning of transparent language. The present study, accordingly, aimed at investigating how power relations were reflected in the content and structure of Persian-into-English translated postcolonial fictions. For this purpose, at first, one hundred and forty paragraphs were selected from two Persian fictions and compared with their translations to determine to what extent Berman's "twelve deforming tendencies" were justified and to what extent ethnocentric pressure in translations could be identified. Then, to analyze the data, the occurrences of each deforming tendency were counted. The obtained results indicated that "Ennoblement and popularization" was the most frequent deforming tendency and "Destruction of vernacular networks or their exoticization" was the least frequent one. This may suggest that the translations, under the influence of ethnocentric behavior, are naturalizations of the original texts. Understanding how much the content and structure of different

languages and their values preserve in our today world may be useful to the assessment of translation quality. These assessments are useful for students of English translation, translation teachers and theorists to improve the translation studies.

1. Introduction

The study of different texts and cultures not only enriches understanding of own culture but also helps us come to know others'. The systematic comparison of prevailing themes or the mutual impact of two or more cultures has streamlined this process. For this reason, always translations are considered as a significant source of being informed of other culture, in fact, the processes of translation affect the interaction between two or more 'national' traditions. Olk (2001, p. 54) believes that translation is a discursive practice and translation strategies can "influence the way the source culture is perceived in the target culture".

The flows of translations should be resituated in a transnational field determined by the power relations among national states, their languages, and their literatures. When a translator translates a text, he selects an especial theory and perhaps manipulates the text, so maybe there be a target text in the favor of target readers which eliminates the identity of individuals and cultures and this elimination of identity doesn't have satisfactory consequences. Tymoczko and Gentzler (2002) put an emphasis on the translator not only as a figure with contradictory fidelities to the source and recipient collectivities but also as someone whose double role allows for an identification of hybridization, blurring positions, and shifting power dynamics. Translation is linked to issues of cultural dominance, emphasis, and persistence, in a word, to power, namely, culture is the unit of translation. "Behind every one of the translator's selections, adding or leaving out, choosing words and placing them, there is a voluntary act that reveals his history and the socio-political milieu that surrounds him; in other words, his own culture" (Alvarez and Vidal, 1996, p. 5).

Venuti (1995) claims translation, as a cultural activity that is rich in choices and consequences, is not as an objective exercise between a source and a target language turning something from one language into a second language (interlingual translation); but rather as the point of contact between peoples who do not have the same access to power. Literary critics in the West have viewed it as the task of bridging the gap between different cultures

and peoples, as the quaint essential human activity, for this reason it necessarily involves power. According to Schulte and Biguenet (1992), the power of translation to crystallize our views of other cultures has been argued from a different aspect by postcolonial scholars. They point out the inequality of power relationships between languages and the latter deviation of an internationally accepted canon of great literature in favor of Western European models.

Xianbin (2006) states the inequality of linguistic cultural power does not mean the translator should give in to cultural hegemony, that the delineation of ideological manipulation in translation does not illustrate that manipulation is fully legitimatized, that overemphasis on social limitations will eventuate to the fall of the translator's position and that liability and neglect of the social norms might result in casual translation. Nergaard (2002) in his article 'Translation and power: recent theoretical updates' about consequences of the power turn says the power turn which was taken from the culture turn gives us the opportunity to make explicit that the explanations of the shifts occur in translation are not to be found in the nature of culture itself, but in the power relations that govern in any culture and these power relations can often explain why a certain translation displays the source text in one way rather than in another. We should have more possibilities to realize why translations decide to be partial in one way rather than another while we are investigating the power relations in culture. The major focus of the present study is to find how power relations impose themselves on translations.

2. Review of the literature

We can realize the variable relations of multicultural spaces via translation. Tymoczko and Gentzler (2002) argue that linguistic acts take place in the context and texts are created in the continuum. A writer is a product of a particular time and a particular context, just as a translator is a product of another time and another context. Translation is about language and also about culture because of their inseparability. It never takes place in a void, but is always embedded in a certain culture at a certain moment in history actually it is the product of history and arises in response to specific social, historical and cultural demands. As Tymoczko and Gentzler point out, translation is implicit in processes of cultural transformation and change. Culture refers to all socially conditioned aspects of human life and translation should be identified as a social phenomenon, a cultural practice (Hermans, 1999).

Bassnett traces a shift in emphasis from history in the 1970s, to power in the 1980s and visibility in the 1990s. Translation theorists now tend to adopt a descriptive approach and focus on the various power relations influencing the whole process of translation. Venuti's *The Translator's Invisibility* is an opposition to descriptive approaches. Venuti, like the other cultural theorists, in 1995 insisted that the scope of translation studies must be broadened to take the account of the value-driven nature of sociocultural framework. He used the term invisibility to describe the translator situation and activity in Anglo-American culture. Venuti (1995) claims the translator ideally be invisible, in order to preserve the sociocultural aspect of a text therefore he discusses the invisibility of the translator hand in hand with two types of translating strategies: domestication and foreignization. Domestication and foreignization are concerned with two cultures. Only when translator sees the differences in both linguistic presentation and cultural connotation, domestication and foreignization exist. He that was alert to the cultural effects of the differential in power relation between colony and ex-colony, holds that the phenomenon of domestication as dominating culture entailing creating a translation governed by Anglo-American in which a transparent, fluent style is adopted to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text and thus bringing the text to the reader. For example, as a part of a domesticating strategy in cultures that have symbolic meanings or color perception different from that of the source culture, it is easy to see how changes are necessary (Deutscher, 2011).

Moreover, domesticating translation consolidates the power hierarchy that imposes hegemonic discourses in the target culture by conforming to its worldview. It is an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to TL cultural values that brings the author back home. These power relations are of three types: political, economic and cultural, the latter break in two aspects: the power relations between linguistic communities as discerned by the number of primary and secondary speakers and the symbolic capital collected by different countries within the pertinent field of cultural generation (Casanova 1999, cited in Wolf and Fukari, 2007). The produced significant works had paid the great attention to issues of power since the cultural turn in the 1990s. The comprehensive study of the relations between translation and power started in the early 1990s by Bassnett and Lefevere's "*introduction to translation, history and culture*". About political powers, Venuti (1992) says the effective powers like governments and other politically motivated institutions that may decide to censor or promote certain works are controlling translation, value system, a set of beliefs, or even an entire culture. He says that they effect cultural translation by their power. Translation studies beseems to relinquish the power relations in forming translation as well as the

historicity or effective history of translated texts. The famous theorist of descriptive translation studies, Toury (1978) shows that from the point of view of the source text and source system, translations have acutely any importance at all.... Not only have they abandoned the source system behind, but also they are in no position to affect its linguistic and textual rules and norms, its textual history, or the source text as such.

On the other hand, Venuti defines Foregnization, also is called 'minoritizing' or 'resistancy' translation, as a non-fluent or estranging translation style that entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation technique along lines that excludes the domination of the target language and its cultural values actually by highlighting the foreign identity of ST and protecting it from the ideological dominance of the target culture is aimed at moving the reader's perspective towards the writer. Ventuti (1995) considers "the foreignizing method to be an ethno-deviant pressure on target language cultural values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad" (p. 20). According to him it is highly desirable in an effort to restrain the ethnocentric violence translation. Translation definitely domesticates foreign texts and imposing on them linguistic and cultural values that are apprehensible to specific domestic constituencies."

Berman (2000) in his seminal article entitled "translation and the trials of the foreign" and translated to English by Venuti (2004) describes translation as a trial in two senses: 1. a trial for the target culture in experiencing the strangeness of the foreign text or word; 2. a trial for the foreign text in being uprooted from its original language context (Munday, 2004, p. 149). He deplores that translators tend to negate the foreign in translation by the translation strategy of "naturalization" equal to venuti's later domestication.

Based on Berman (2000, cited in Venuti, 2004), the ethical aim of the translating act is receiving the foreign as foreign. He proposes to examine in a nutshell the system of textual deformation that functions in every translation and hinders it from being a "trial of the foreign." He believes a glance at the history of translation is sufficient to show in the literary field everything emerges as if the second type of translation wanted to deforce and hide the first type. As if translation is not the trials of the foreign, it is rather its negation, its naturalization. Venuti uses the term "domestication" for this in translation and both of them believe this translation style is an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target language. Berman calls this examination the analytic of translation. Analytic in the psychoanalytic sense, insofar as the system is very unconscious, render as a series of tendencies or forces that incur translation to deviate from its main aim. The analytic of translation is consequently designed to find these forces and to show where in the text they

are practiced. In reverse the negative analytic is primarily concerned with ethnocentric, annexationist translations and hypertextual translations (pastiche, imitation, adaptation, free rewriting), where the play of deforming forces is freely exercised.

Berman believes the novel is considered a lower form of literature than poetry and the deformation of translation are more accepted in prose because they do not immediately reveal themselves. He furthers it is easy to discover how a poem has been massacred but is not easy to detect what was done to a novel, especially if its translation seems good. He mentions the linguistic variety and creativity of the novel and also the ways translation tends to decrease variation. He defines twelve 'deforming tendencies': rationalization, clarifications, expansions, ennoblement and popularization, qualitative impoverishment, quantitative impoverishment, the destruction of rhythms, the destruction of underlying networks of signification, the destruction of linguistic patterning, the destruction of vernacular networks or their exoticization, the destruction of expressions and idioms, the effacement of the superimposition of languages (cited in Venuti, 2004, p. 288)

The field of Postcolonial Studies has been reaching prominence since the 1970s. It emerged as an area of study just a few years before Translation Studies. Postcolonial studies looks at contestation about race, power, religion nationality, colonialism, gender, politics class, income, and language and how these elements work in relation to colonial hegemony (western colonizers controlling the colonized) namely, the formation of empire, the impact of colonization on postcolonial history, economy, science, and culture, the cultural productions of colonized societies, feminism and post-colonialism, agency for marginalized people, and the state of the postcolony in contemporary economic and cultural contexts are some major topics in the field. Some would date its flourishing in the Western academy from the publication of Said's book Orientalism in 1978. Spivak (1993) defines Post-colonialism is one of the most burgeoning points of contact between Cultural Studies and Translation Studies. It can be defined as a broad cultural approach to the study of power relations between different groups, cultures or peoples and language, literature and especially translation may have an effective role in colonization process and promotion of an ideological image of the colonized peoples. Cheyfitz (1991) believes the central issue in postcolonial translation is bringing to the forehand the role of translation as a tool of domination by empires first politically and now economically. In the unequal power relationships created in colonial situations, language used to conquer, and translation became one of the mediums by which the other was altered, "from its beginnings the imperialist

mission is…one of translation: the translation of the "other" into the terms of the empire" (p. 112).

According, the following research question was formulated:

•   What is the description of power relations reflected in the content and structures of Persian-into-English translated postcolonial fictions?

3. Methodology

3.1. Materials

The materials analyzed in this study were four books; Two Persian fictions *"Boofe Koor[1]"* and *"Mahiye Siahe Kouchouloo[2]"* and their translations *"Blind Owl[3]"* and *"The Little Black Fish[4]"*, respectively. *"Boofe Koor"* is the seminal work of Sadegh Hedayat and was translated by Costello in 1957. *"Mahiye Siahe Kouchouloo"* is a book in children literature written by Behrangi (1967) and translated by Hooglund and Hoogland in 1976. The rationale behind choosing these books was that their translators were the native English translators without the presence of any Persian translator as editor. This can remove the possibility of diming the effects of imposition of target language on translation in the process of translating to power language, English.

3.2. Procedures

One hundred paragraphs of *"Mahiye Siahe Kouchouloo"* and forty paragraphs of *"Boofe Koor"* were selected as the materials under analysis in this study from the beginning of these books. The selected paragraphs from the Persian books were compared with their translations and Each and every word and sentence was examined based on Berman's model (2000). The rationale behind using Berman's model was his claims that naturalization exists in the translation activity which may point to an ethnocentric behavior and that translators domesticate the translation to the target culture by imposing twelve deforming tendencies. Briefly, Berman said the deforming system operates in fictions in complete tranquility convenience. His analytic of translation located twelve deforming tendencies. Following are the brief definitions of the twelve deforming tendencies taken from Berman (2000, cited in Venuti, 2004, p. 291):

1. Rationalization: This deforming tendency pertains primarily to the syntactical structures of the source text, punctuation is the most important intimation of this in a prose. Rationalization recomposes sentences and the sequence of sentences. It rearranges them according to a certain idea of discursive order. Rationalization, by reordering the sentence

structure and by translating verbs into nouns and substantives, changes the original from concrete to abstract.

2. Clarification: it treats the level of clarity comprehensible in words and their meanings. Every translation includes some degree of explicitation. Explicitation can show two different things:

a) It renders "clear" what is not clear in the original for example: the movement from polysemy to monosemy.

b) It manifests something that is not apparent, but concealed or repressed, in original.

3. Expansion: Berman says that TTs tend to be longer than STs. Expansion can be qualified as empty, namely, the addition steps up nothing. It is often called overtranslation.

4. Ennoblement and popularization: it produces elegant sentences. The ennoblement utilizes the source text as raw material, thus it is only a rewriting at the expense of the original. it produces texts that are "readable," "brilliant," rid of their original clumsiness and complexity so as to enhance the "meaning." This type of rewriting thinks itself justified in recovering the rhetorical elements inherent in all prose, but in order to banalize them.

5. Qualitative impoverishment: this refers to the replacement of terms, expressions and figures in the original with terms, expressions and figures that lack their sonorous richness or, correspondingly, their signifying or iconic richness. An example is the word butterfly; this does not mean that the word "butterfly" objectively resembles "a butterfly," but that in its sonorous, physical substance, in its density as a word, we feel that it possesses something of the butterfly's butterfly existence.

6. Quantitative impoverishment: this refers to a lexical loss. Every prose renders a certain multiplication of signifiers and signifying chains. These signifiers can be explained as unfixed, especially as a signified may have a plurality of signifiers: e.g. *'face'* for both 'viso' and 'faccia'. This loss coexists with the expansion.

7. Destruction of rhythms: the novel is rhythmic as much as poetry. It contains a multiplicity of rhythms. Its entire bulk is in movement and fortunately it is difficult for translation to spoil this movement. In the prose, the deforming translation can affect rhythms for example through an arbitrary revision of the punctuation and word order. Michel Gresset (1983, cited in Venuti, 2004) shows how a translation of Faulkner destroys his distinctive rhythm: where the original included only four marks of punctuation, the translation uses twenty-two, eighteen of which are commas!

8. Destruction of signification networks: the literary works contains a hidden dimension, an underlying text, where certain signifiers correspond and link up, forming all sorts of networks beneath the surface of the text itself. It is this subtext that carries the network of word-obsessions. These underlying chains constitute one aspect of the rhythm and signifying process of the text.

9. Destruction of linguistic patternings: the systematic nature of the text goes beyond the level of signifiers, metaphors, etc. it extends to the type of sentences, the sentence constructions employed. Such patternings may include the use of time or the recourse to a certain kind of subordination. The previous tendencies destroy the systematic nature of the text by introducing elements that are excluded by its essential system. Hence the translated text is more homogenous than the original and is equally more incoherent and, in a certain way, more heterogeneous, more inconsistent.

10. Destruction of vernacular or exoticization: this area is pivotal because all great prose is rooted in the vernacular language. So the effacement of vernaculars injures seriously the texuality of prose. The old method of maintaning vernaculars is to exoticize them by italic or addition to be more credible. For example, the Picard <u>"bibloteux"</u> is more expressive than the French **"livresque"** *(bookish).* The Old French <u>"sorcelage"</u> is richer than **"sorcellerie"** *(sorcery),* <u>the Antillais "dérespecter"</u> more expressive than **"manquer de respect"** *(to lack respect).*

11. Destruction of expressions and idioms: prose has many images, expressions, figures, proverbs, etc. which are different from the vernacular. Most convey a meaning or experience that readily finds a parallel image, expression, figure, or proverb in other languages but if translation renders idioms by its equivalents, it is an ethnocentrism for example, the well-known insane asylum bedlam, should not be translated by 'Charenton', a French insane asylum.

12. Effacement of superimposition of languages: the superimposition of languages in a novel involves the relation between dialect and a common language, a koine, or the coexistence, in the heart of a text, of two or more koine. If translation is threatens the superimposition of languages, the relation of tension and integration that exists in the original between the vernacular language and the konie, between the underlying language and the surface language, etc, tends to be effaced. The case is illustrated by José Maria Arguedas and Roa Bastos, where Spanish is modified profoundly (syntactically) by two other languages from oral cultures: Quechua and Guarani.

According to above explanations and examples, four books were analyzed and the identified variables were classified, counted and specified their numbers.

3.3. Data Analysis and Results

The overall results of the data analysis indicated that the occurrences of deforming tendencies are quite a lot and so undeniable. As table 3.1 reports on, the results indicated five deforming tendencies had the frequencies more than seventy. The most frequent deforming tendency was 131 and the least one was 2 and there was not any instance of the effacement of the superimposition of languages. These results confirmed the major terms in Berman's theory, "naturalization", and in Venuti's theory, "domestication", and their belief in the existence of ethnocentric pressure on translation. Table 1 presents the total frequency of each variable in the two books:

TABLE 1
The frequency of deforming tendencies in the two books

variables	frequency
Ennoblement and popularization	131
Destruction of expressions and idioms	102
Expansion	89
Rationalization	84
Quantitative impoverishment	78
Clarification	43
Destruction of rhythms	37
Qualitative impoverishment	22
Destruction of linguistic patternings	21
Destruction of underlying networks of signification	16
Destruction of vernacular networks or their exoticization	2
The effacement of the superimposition of languages	0

Each of these twelve variables, followed by its examples, is presented briefly in the next sections. The examples show how the variables are imposed on the words, sentences or paragraphs.

3.4. The deforming tendencies in the data

3.4.1. The occurrence of "Rationalization"

"*The little black fish*" had forty nine rationalizations and "blind owl" had thirty five. It was possible that the sequence of sentences had been changed and translator rearranged them based on a certain idea of discursive order. In "The little black fish", many examples of this rearrangement were found. In contrary to Berman's definition of rationalization (i.e. rationalization makes the original abstract by translating verbs into substantive), in "*blind owl*", the nouns were mostly translated by verbs. For this reason, their sentences were not located in the rationalization calculation.

The example below shows rationalization in *"The little black fish"*:

(1) یک ماهی سیاه کوچولو بود که با مادرش <u>در جویباری زندگی می کرد. این جویبار از دیواره های سنگی کوه</u> <u>بیرون می زد و در ته دره روان می شد</u>

A little black fish lived with her mother <u>in a small pool on the side of a mountain.</u>

The following example shows rationalization in *"blind owl"*:

(2) <u>از حسن اتفاق خانه ام بیرون شهردر یک محل ساکت و آرام دوراز آشوب و جنجال زندگی مردم واقع شده اطراف</u> <u>آن کاملا مجزا و دورش خرابه است.</u>

<u>I am fortune in that the house where I live is situated beyond the edge of the city in a quiet</u> <u>district far from the noise and bustle of life.</u>

3.4.2. The occurrence of "Clarification"

"The little black fish" had twenty four clarifications and *"blind owl"* had nineteen. According to Berman's definition, clarifications in the translation comprised the explicitation. Explicitation was as rendering "clear" what was not clear in the source text and manifestation of contents that were concealed or repressed in original.

The example below shows clarification in "*The little black fish*":

(3) شب <u>چله</u> بود.

It was <u>the longest night of the winter</u>.

The following example shows clarification in *"blind owl"*:

(4) آیا ممکن بود کس دیگری <u>در من تاثیر بکند؟</u>

Was it possible that anyone other than she <u>should make any impression upon my heart</u>?

3.4.3. The occurrence of "Expansion"

"The little black fish" had seventeen expansions and *"blind owl"* had seventy two. Many sentences were found in which rationalization and clarification occurred and at the same time they also were instances of expansion. The reason for the presence of the high frequency of this variable in "*blind owl*" was that to convey Hedayat's intention, Translator had to explain more because that phrase or sentence didn't cast in a word.

The following example shows expansion in "*The little black fish*":

(5) <u>به امید دیدار</u>، دوست دانا و بی باک!

<u>We hope to see you again</u>, learned and fearless friend.

The following example shows expansion in "*blind owl*":

(6) و بعد این پرتو در گرداب تاریکی که <u>باید ناپدید بشود</u> دوباره ناپدید شد.

After, that brightness disappeared again in the whirlpool of darkness in <u>which it was bound</u> <u>inevitably to disappear.</u>

3.4.4. The occurrence of "Ennoblement and popularization"

"*The little black fish*" had eighty Ennoblements and "*blind owl*" had fifty one. This variable was the most frequent among the other variables in "*The little black fish*". This showed that the translator tried to improve the original. The translator changed the language of the book by using the formal structures instead of informal and colloquial ones, and sometimes used different expressions in an elegant style to improve the content of the book.

The following example of "*The little black fish*" shows Ennoblements:

(7) کلکی تو کار نباشد؟

Could this be a trick?

This example is selected from "*blind owl*":

(8) نه گول نخورده بودم

No, it was not an illusion.

3.4.5. The occurrence of "Qualitative impoverishment"

"*The little black fish*" had twenty qualitative impoverishments and "*blind owl*" had two.
The found example with lack of sonorous richness in "*The little black fish*" is showed following:

(9) حرفهای گنده گنده

Pretentious talk

The following example is from "*blind owl*":

(10) تهویه

Ventilation

3.4.6. The occurrence of "Quantitative impoverishment"

"*The little black fish*" had thirty one quantitative impoverishments and "*blind owl*" had forty seven.

The following example is showed quantitative impoverishments in "*The little black fish*":

(11) کسالت

Sick

The following example shows this deforming tendency in "*blind owl*":

(12) شراره ی چشمانش

Radiance of her eyes

3.4.7. The occurrence of "The Destruction of rhythms"

"*The little black fish*" had eleven destructions of rhythms and "*blind owl*" had twenty six.
Rhythm can be destroyed by deformation of word order and punctuation.

The following example is instance of destructing of rhythms in "*The little black fish*:

(13) مگر یادت رفته <u>اینجا و آنجا</u> که می نشست چه حرفهایی می زد؟

Have you forgotten the things he used to say <u>everywhere</u> he went?

The following example shows this variable in "*blind owl*":

(14) از <u>روز ازل تا ابد تا آنجا که خارج از فهم و ادراک بشر است</u>

<u>To a degree that surpasses human understanding, poisoned my life for all time to come</u>

3.4.8. The occurrence of "The Destruction of signification networks"

"*The little black fish*" had thirteen destructions of signification networks and "*blind owl*" had three. The formal translation of some conversational words in the atmosphere of "*The little black fish*" changed an intimately spoken style to formal conversations among different characters some of which happened several times in different sentences. Translator didn't pay attention to some words in the three paragraphs of "*blind owl*". These words helped reader understand the deep perturbation of story's main character.

The following example shows formal translation of conventional words:

(15) بعد فکر کرد بهتر است با مادرشان <u>هم دو کلمه ای حرف بزند</u>

But then changed its mind and decided <u>to speak to their mother</u>

The following paragraph shows deletion of words showing deep perturbation:

(16) شب آخری که مثل هر شب به گردش رفتم هوا گرفته و بارانی بود و مه غلیظی در اطراف پیچیده بود. در هوای بارانی که <u>از زنندگی رنگها و بی حیایی خطوط اشیا می کاهد</u>، من یک نوع آزادی و راحتی حس می کردم و مثل این بود که <u>باران افکار تاریک</u> مرا می شست.

A dense mist had fallen over the surrounding country. In the fine rain which <u>softened the intensity of the colors and the clarity of the outlines</u> I experienced a sense of liberation and tranquility. It was as though the rain was washing away <u>my black thoughts</u>.

3.4.9. The occurrence of "The Destruction of linguistic patternings"

"*The little black fish*" had sixteen destructions of linguistic patternings and "*blind owl*" had five. This deforming tendency is the cause of incoherence in the text**.** In "*The little black fish*", in many cases translator destroyed the coherence of a colloquial childish story by deleting personification and also deleting children tone. In "*blind owl*" translation of some paragraphs didn't have the coherence of original text.

The following example shows this variable in *"The little black fish"*:

(17) من میخواهم بدانم که، <u>راستی راستی</u> زندگی یعنی اینکه توی یک تکه جا، <u>هی بروی و برگردی</u> تا پیر بشوی و دیگر هیچ، یا اینکه طور دیگری هم توی دنیا می شود زندگی کرد؟......

I want to know if life is <u>simply</u> for <u>circling around</u> in a small place until you become old and nothing else, or is there another way to live in the world?

The following example indicates incoherence of some paragraphs of "*blind owl*":

(18) نمی دانم، فقط می دانم که هرچه نقاشی می کردم همه اش همین مجلس و همین موضوع بود. دستم بدون اراده این تصودر را می کشید، و غریب تر آنکه برای این نقش مشتری پیدا می شد، و حتی بتوسط عمویم از این جلد قلمدانها به هندوستان می فرستادم که می فروخت و پولش را برایم می فرستاد.

I don't know. What I do know <u>is that whenever I sat down to paint I reproduced the same design, the same subject. My hand independently of my will always depicted the same scene. Strangest of all, I found customers for these paintings of mine.</u> I <u>even</u> dispatched some of my pen-case covers to India <u>through the intermediary of my paternal uncle</u>, who used to sell them and remit the money to me.

3.4.10. The occurrence of "The Destruction of vernacular networks or their exoticization"

"*The little black fish*" didn't have destruction of vernacular or exoticization because the book's language is an informal conversational but official standard language and "*blind owl*" had one. A word that is belongs to local speech and is not in the standard language and translator couldn't convey it correctly:

(19) <u>بغلی</u>

<u>The bottle</u>

3.4.11. The occurrence of "The Destruction of idioms and expressions"

"*The little black fish*" had seventy six destructions of expressions and idioms and "*blind owl*" had twenty six. This frequency in "*The little black fish*" indicates that translator either converted the Persian idioms, figures, proverbs to the English idioms, figures, and proverbs or translated them to non-figurative language. In many cases, In "*blind owl*" translator had tried to translate Hedayat's expressions and figures as source text but like "*The little black fish*" some expressions and idioms are translated to the expressions and idioms of target language or translated to non-figurative language.

The following example shows this variable in "*The little black fish*":

(20) <u>یکی بود یکی نبود</u>

<u>Once upon a time</u>

And this example is belonging to "*blind owl*":

(21) نمی دانم این خانه را کدام مجنون یا کج سلیقه ای در <u>عهد دقیانوس</u> ساخته!

They must have been built by some fool or madman heaven knows <u>how along ago</u>

3.4.12. The occurrence of "The Effacement of superimposition of language

"*The little black fish*" and *"blind owl"* didn't have the effacement of superimposition of languages.

4. Discussion

This section deals with two different parts. The first part is concerned with the interpretation of the obtained results against the related literature and the second part is a comparison between the results with theories of power relations.

Overall results show the Venuti's claims about domesticating of the original texts to the target culture although this domestication is imposed on translations at different degrees, which is also supported by the comparison of *"the little black fish"* with *"Blind owl".* Translation includes the elements such as idioms and expressions which clearly come from other culture or language. If they are translated to the TL's idioms and expressions, the SL's atmosphere fades and this helps destroy the traces of presence of different languages and literatures in the other countries (Berman 2000, cited in Venuti, 2004). According to the analysis of *"the little black fish"* and *"Blind owl",* the frequencies of the deforming tendencies show salient differences between the two books. For example, the occurrence of "the destruction of expressions and idioms" in *"the little black fish"* is 76 although that is 26 in *"Blind owl"* or "the occurrence of the qualitative impoverishment" in *"the little black fish"* is 20 and its frequency in *"Blind owl"* is 2. The high frequency of some elements of Berman's theory indicates that translating to the target language causes changes in translation as if it is an original text. The obtained results suggest that the translation of *"the little black fish"* is read as if it had been written in English. It seems that the book is almost overlooked as a work of translation, and this supports Venuti's claim about the invisibility of translators.

Venuti's belief about the cultural hegemony of the Anglo-American publishing world seems to be borne out in the study something that sounds not to exist in the *"blind owl"* as much as *"the little black fish"*. In this translation, in addition to translator's mistakes in understanding sentences and also deletions, there are changes that are not in the Berman's theory. In the first glance, book's cover gives an Intellectual background about the story. The cover is also changed in the English publishing; the Persian cover shows just the main character of the story *'fish'* whereas the English cover involves the other characters of the story as well as the fish. On the other hand, with considering the translation of *"boofe koor"*, it seems that because of Sadegh Hedayat's very beautiful imaginative literary prose,

translator is visible and work is a translation of a text from other language and culture, although there are also the elements of Berman's theory but their frequencies, except in two cases, in comparison with the first book is the lower. Nevertheless some sentences are not translated correctly and some phrases are deleted. The two books have standard languages; the Common point between them is there were no traces of different forms of language coexisted in the Persian language.

From all analyses the researcher arrived at a conclusion that power relations were reflected in the content and structures of Persian-into-English translated postcolonial fictions. This conclusion is in agreement with the general believes of Venuti (1995), Berman (2000), Spivak (1993), Bassnett and Lefevere (1990) and many other scientists that had introduced postcolonialism and every concept related to it. All regard translation as a harmful instrument of the colonizers who produce their languages and use translation to construct a skewed image of the suppressed people which served to support the hierarchical structure of the colony whereas according to the two analyzed works, it seems that many literary works of today just paid attention to literary effects actually power relations just affected the literary aspect and didn't mention to political issues. The results of this research specifically verified Spivak the most impressive character in postcolonial field, Spivak who sees the translation and translation studies from the postcolonial theory. Her belief that translation policy in these days gives prominence to English and the other hegemonic languages of the former colonizers and translators would adapt translation to the target language and population to extreme to be intelligible for the western reader and this caused the view of the source language society faded in translation was affirmed.

This study also corroborated Phillipson's (1992) comment that says domestication replaces the source culture with the target culture, exactly; it equates to ethnocentric violence akin to imperialism and colonialism, one which tries to appropriate others and assimilate them into its signifying structures, thereby conserving prejudices and misrepresentations of foreign peoples. Moreover, domesticating translation consolidates the power hierarchy that imposes hegemonic discourses in the target culture by conforming to its worldview. It is an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to TL cultural values that brings the author back home.

Almost all of the deforming tendencies were found in the translations. According to Berman, their uses were naturalization of the SL in the TL through translation, consequently, the translators of examined works used a domestication strategy for translations and this strategy equaled to ethnocentric violence.

Berman (2000) emphasizes on the necessity for an analysis that shows how and why ethical aim of the translating act has been perverted and assimilated to other things different from itself. The analytic of translation is consequently designed to find the forces that cause translation to deviate from its essential aim, and to show where in the text they are imposed, where the play of deforming tendencies is freely practiced. Every translator is inescapably exposed to this play of forces, even if he is stimulated by another aim. According to all of these, the extent of changes in content and structure of different languages and their values may be useful to the assessment of translation quality.

5. Conclusion

In order to investigate the effect of power relations on the translation of literary works to the language of former colonizer countries, a comparative descriptive method was used in this study. The study examined totally one hundred and forty selected paragraphs and their translations to English in the postcolonial period. The results indicate that the comments and theories of many scientists which claim the power can change the original text in the translation in the interest of ethnocentrism are true. Translators often tries to impose their culture, expressions, idioms and a more elegant style on the source text but in some cases this imposition are noticeable more than imposition on the other book. The results indicate some words that carry away with themselves an especial meaning or their sounds help the readers understand the meanings are not translated as rich as the source text and sometimes the translator cannot find a word to convey the exact meaning of the original word and these reasons cause the many changes in the content and the structures of the ST. Finally, all of these results lend support to the theories underlying this study; namely, Berman (2000)'s and Venuti (1995)'s theories that claim the ethnocentric pressure exist in translating to other languages especially power languages.

There were many theorists that believed the power had a big effect on translation in the postcolonial period but their comments were general believes without contending examples about texts and their translations. Finding that there was an ethnocentric pressure on translation of English literary works to Persian or not, helped to deeply understand the presence of power relations. It needed more analyzing and consequently much more time that was not possible in this study. Hope further studies try a mutual analyzing.

The researcher is interested in the investigation of one work whose written language had the local and vernacular speeches and just not to be bound to standard language to analyze

how the sentences of a non-standard language are translated and how they show the deforming tendency "the effacement of the superimposition of languages" in translation (Berman, 2000, as cited in Venuti, 2004, p. 295), but unfortunately it was not practical regarding the time limitation. It is recommended that future research also focuses on the effects of power relations on a work written in non-standard language in the former colonized countries.

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Title

Item Preview and Proficiency Level in Multiple-Choice Reading Comprehension Items

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Abstract

According to some studies, there can be a correlation between item preview, stem-option and stem, and test-takers' performance on a test. The present study was conducted to investigate the effect of test format on the testees' performance in reading comprehension based on their level of proficiency. Three groups were selected based on the test-takers' performance in the TOEFL test, namely elementary, intermediate and advanced. Stem-option and stem were the methods applied to administer the main test. After administration of the TOEFL test, the interaction between the variables, item preview, reading comprehension test performance and proficiency level, were investigated. It was assumed that the students' performance depends on the proficiency level and the item preview chosen as a method to administer the test. Results suggest that test performance can be manipulated based on the testees' proficiency level and the item preview applied to administer a test.

Keywords: Reading test performance, Proficiency level, Stem preview, Stem-option preview

1.Introduction

According to Rezaei (2005), sometimes some variables interfere with the students' test performance. Some of the variables are language assessment procedures, individual characteristics, and the respondents' background knowledge. Bachman (1991) believes that

there are three factors influencing test-takers' performance. He says that they include: "communicative language ability, the personal characteristics of test-takers, and the characteristics of the test method or test tasks". He considered the communicative language ability as the central issue in this area. Bachman asserted that communicative language ability includes: "language competence, strategic competence, and psycho-physiological mechanisms". He also believes that the second factor, the personal characteristics of test-takers, consists of some personal factors such as: age, gender, native language, educational background, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, learning strategies, and cognitive style. He clarifies that the third factor refers to the specifics related to the test instrument (cited in song, 2005). According to a study done by Kozo Yangawa and Anthony Green (2008), item preview plays a main role in the result of multiple-choice listening comprehension test, but no study has been found on the effect of item preview on multiple-choice reading comprehension test. The item preview methods considered in their study were: stem-option, stem and option preview. It is also stated that students with different educational background may have different performances; in other words, proficiency should be defined based on the students' characteristics as well as that of test (Farhady, 1978; Hisama, 1977, 1978).

Farhady (1982) refers to Carroll's idea in this regard: "It is small wonder that a proposed external examination on English proficiency, designed for the testing of candidates from many countries and courses, will have to face the fact of profound differences in the kinds of preparations these candidates will have had (1961, p. 314)". Phakiti (1982) says that individual characteristics may influence reading performance, so different testees with different characteristics, e.g. Purposes, interests and background knowledge may process the same text differently. Farhady says that language proficiency has more than one dimension. Farhady & Abbasian (2000) reports that there are some factors affecting language ability. The factors are such as: test rubrics, test method, item format, and the level of language proficiency (Vollmer, 1983; Hughes & Porter, 1983; Alderson, 1986, 1991; Milanovic, 1988; Anivan, 1991). Hsu (2006) refers to some factors affecting reading proficiency. He says that the factors can be involved of "text types, school and social environments, student's intelligence, learning motivation, teaching method, and so on." Therefore, it is assumed that the students' performance in different test methods is different based on their proficiency levels. It means that item preview influences testees' performance at particular proficiency levels. If the assumption is supported, the most suitable test method can be selected based on the students' proficiency level. In other words, the method applied to administer a test should

be selected based on the purpose of the test and the testees' proficiency level, so the evaluation can be more effective.

Bachman (1990) argues that there are two systematic sources which lead to the variations in testees' performances: 1. Individuals' differences across their communicative language ability. 2. Differences across test formats, test methods and test tasks. A test has to be administered in a way that items of the test perform as the test developer intends them to perform. The item preview has to conform to a procedure by which the testees can be motivated to employ the language material that the test purports to measure. This study investigated the effect of the item preview on the students' performance in reading comprehension test. As mentioned above, proficiency level can influence the testees' performance in a reading comprehension test. So the other variable considered in the study is proficiency level of the participants. The test method variations investigated in the study are: 1. Allowing test takers to preview both the stems and options prior to reading 2. Allowing test takers to preview only the stems.

Based on the different performances of testees at a multiple-choice reading comprehension test one question can be evoked:

Q1. Is there any relationship between the type of item preview, proficiency level and reading comprehension performance?

Regarding the research questions mentioned above, the following null hypothesis can be proposed:

H0-1. There is no relationship between the types of item preview, proficiency level and reading comprehension performance.

2.Purpose of the study

Based on a variety of studies done on reading comprehension and the variables affecting the skill, three different variables were selected to be investigated. The relationship between the three variables, reading comprehension performance, proficiency level and item preview in reading comprehension has not been investigated up to now. Elementary, intermediate and advanced are the levels considered in this study.

3.Significance of the study

Ozuro, Y., Best R., Bell, C., Witherspoon, A. & Mcnamara D. S. (2007) cite that effective assessment helps administrators know the testees' problems (Pellegrino, Chudowsky and Glaser, 2001). Therefore, it is critical to do research on reading comprehension assessment.

To assess reading comprehension effectively, it is necessary to know restrictions related to the students because the situation and even the test structure can be manipulated based on the limitations.

4. Review of the Literature

4.1 Reading Process Components

Zhang and Wu (2009) quote that based on some studies done on reading comprehension, reading can be defined as a "meaning-making process" which is performed by utilizing the input, existing text, and some strategies (Alderson, 1984, 2005; Anderson, 1999; Carrell, 1988; Hudson, 1998; Zhang, Gu, & Hu, 2008). Nunan (1999) defines reading in two different viewpoints: 1. Reading is a kind of deciphering 2. Reading means making meaning out of the words (cited in Shah, P. M.,Yusof, A. & Lip, S. M., Mahmood, N., Hamid, Y. E. A.,Hashim, S. M., 2010). Chen, J. M., Chen, M. C. & Sun say that for foreign language learners reading can play a main role to improve not only their reading skill, but also speaking, listening and writing (2010). In fact, he believes that the skills are linked to each other. Carrell also believes that reading is an important skill by which new information can be learned. He says that this skill can facilitate acquisition of other skills (1998). There are some benefits underlying reading comprehension in other languages. The act of reading exposes us to a useful material by which readers can facilitate their learning, so the text at hand can be considered as a useful input for language improvement. Vocabulary knowledge can be improved as well. He reports that writing ability can also be improved through reading (Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, & Kuehn, 1990).

Parvaresh & Nemati (2008) quotes that reading is one of the crucial skills in second or foreign language learning (Grabe & Stroller, 2001; Lynch & Hudson, 1991). They report that a lot of learners consider this skill as one of their most important purposes because reading comprehension can facilitate language acquisition, and it can provide learners with new topics and materials e.g. vocabulary and grammar (Richards and Renandya, 2002). They say that this skill according to Nunan (2001) needs top-down and bottom-up processes interactively; in other words, readers should use their schemata in addition to looking for new words meaning. Cheng (1985) defines reading as a process in which readers anchor the new knowledge with the previous one, he adds that in reading, strategies are adjusted to the existing task, and prediction is also done based on the clues provided by the writer. Reading is defined as a process in which meaning is produced by application of schemata (Al-Issa,

2006). He says that schema is used by cognitive scientists to show how the new knowledge is processed, organized and retrieved. Widdowson (1993) believes that information can be organized in long-term memory by schemata (cited in Al-Issa, 2006). Al-Issa states that deficiency in schemata can lead to reading comprehension failure (2006). He also points out that schemata have to be activated appropriately; otherwise, comprehension will be failed. A text does not have meaning by itself; it is the reader who employs meaning fitting with the text by application of schemata embracing culture, emotion, knowledge (Brown, 2001; cited in Al-Issa, 2006). According to Pearson & Anderson (1984), reading comprehension occurs when a new "home" is found for the new knowledge by the reader, or an existing "home" is adjusted to accept the new information. Brewer (2002) refers to a critical point got out of some writers' investigations. He says that based on their research, before reading, relevant knowledge has to be activated (cited in Pearson & Anderson, 1984). Anastasiou & Griva (2009) cite that reading is a process to get the intended meaning of the text (Sweet, & Snow, 2002). They report that reading is a complex process requiring integration of the text information and the testees' background knowledge (Anderson, & Pearson, 1984; Afflerbach, 1990; Meneghetti, Carretti, & De Beni, 2006). They quote that reading arises an interaction between readers and texts (Rumelhart, 1994).

Wei Wei (2009) believes that reading comprehension which is a cognitive skill can be occurred by employing the available information in the text at hand and background knowledge. Lawrence (2007) quotes that vocabulary and schema are the important components in reading comprehension (Anderson, 1999; Huckin, Haynes, & Coady, 1993). Based on the researchers' studies, it can be concluded that comprehension revolves around integration between new and old knowledge. Lawrence (2000) says that based on the national reading panel's report; there are three important issues that can be considered: first, reading is a cognitive process in which vocabulary knowledge and strategy instruction can play a main role. Second, comprehension can be done successfully by application of background knowledge, and the third, for successful reading comprehension, the readers can be provided with strategy instruction. Adams (1990) says reading is a process composed of perceptual, psycholinguistic and cognitive abilities (Anastasiou & Griva, 2009).

4.2 The Effect of Item Preview on Test performance

Item preview has been investigated on multiple-choice listening comprehension by Yanagawa and Green (2008). They assert that there are three different test formats in multiple-choice listening comprehension. They say that the formats are such as: stem-option preview, option-preview and stem preview. The second format, option preview, has been

rejected by the researchers. They claim that the second format causes more wrong answers than the other ones. Yanagawa & Green also mention that there were no significant differences between stem and stem-option preview (2008). Yanagawa & Green (2008) say that some researchers believe that stem preview makes test-takers ready to apply test-taking strategies more effectively (Littlewood, 1981; Ur, 1984; Mendelsohn, 1995; Buck, 1995; Thompson, 1995; Vandergrift, 1999). Yanagawa & Green quote that based on Berne's investigation (1995) item preview helps the participants apply background knowledge relevant to the text effectively (2008). Yanagawa & Green conclude that question preview can improve test-taking strategy and the planning before reading the existing text, but option preview may put a bigger burden on short-term memory. It is mentioned that test strategies are selected based on the test method or test format (Yanagawa & Green, 2008). Cohen (1998) and Nevo (1989) state that, for example, in multiple-choice reading comprehension tests, lexical matching strategy is applied between answer options and the words existing in the text at hand because maybe there is a word/words in the option similar to a word in the text, or even perhaps the selected option had a word/words in the same word family as the word in the existing text, the choice can be because of existing a word in the option with the similar sound or meaning to a word in the text, and so forth (cited in Yanagawa & Green, 2008). They draw the conclusion that the kind of available information before listening can influence the test performance. Freedle and Fellbaum (1987) believe that; besides, item preview proficiency level is the other factor that can affect the applied test-taking strategy.

They say that low-proficiency participants apply lexical matching to find out similar words in the options or stems to the words in the text (cited in Yanagawa & Green, 2008). After administration of a multiple-choice listening comprehension test, a verbal report developed by Wu (1998). He finds that item preview can improve and facilitate advanced listeners, but it can be problematic for less proficient listeners (cited in Yanagawa & Green, 2008). Yanagawa & Green conclude that the kind of test format influences test performance of the low-proficiency levels more than that of high-proficiency levels (2008). They stated that contextualization of the questions can facilitate low-proficiency test-takers' performance, but the test-takers with higher proficiency can complete the task without helping of the questions (2008). The effects of stem preview on listening comprehension test performance have been investigated by Buck (1990, 1991) and Sherman (1997). They find out that there is not any significant relationship between stem preview and test performance or item difficulty (cited in Yanagawa & Green, 2008).

5. Method

5.1 Participants

153 subjects were selected from among university students. The universities chosen were Islamic Azad universities of Islamshahr and Roudehen. The subjects' ages ranged from 20 to 24. The participants were majoring English Translation and English Literature. Before administration of the pre-test to determine the students' levels, the subjects were selected based on the term in which they were studying. The participants were selected from among Junior and senior students. They were expected to understand the TOEFL reading texts due to passing different courses on reading during their education. To get more exact information related to the students' levels, the scores got at the TOEFL exam, which was administered as a pre-test, were considered. The participants included both females and males.

5.2 Instrumentation

The instrument used in the study was the TOEFL reading test taken from original TOEFL PBT which was administered in 2003. The test consisted of three texts with 25 reading comprehension questions and 40 structure questions. The test was applied to determine the subjects' levels. For the main test, original sample of TOEFL PBT (2004) was selected. This test was composed of five texts, it contained 50 questions. The time allocated to the test was regularized based on the original test which was 55 minutes.

5.3 Procedure

At first, The original TOEFL reading comprehension test composed of 40 structure questions and three passages with 25 questions was applied to assign the participants' levels. The test was administered to 153 students. Then, their levels were determined based on their scores at the test. To identify elementary, intermediate and advanced subjects, the mean score of the subjects was calculated. The students whose scores fell at 0.5 SD above and 0.5 SD below the mean were considered as intermediate students, the subjects with the scores more than + 0.5 SD were assigned as advanced participants and the testees with less than – 0.5 SD were considered as elementary subjects (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PROFICIENCY	153	4.00	24.00	13.0784	5.27847
Valid N (list wise)	153				

So there were three groups: elementary, intermediate and advanced. There were 60 elementary, 48 intermediate and 45 advanced subjects. The participants were informed of the purpose of the study. Dictionary use was not allowed. To administer the main test with two different item preview methods, the participants were divided into two groups. The groups have 90 and 63 students. As it was mentioned before, each of the groups was a combination of the three elementary, intermediate and advanced levels. The first group had 36 elementary, 33 intermediate and 21 advanced participants. The second group had 24 elementary, 15 intermediate and 24 advanced subjects. An independent t-test was run to compare the Stem-Option and Stem groups' mean scores on proficiency test in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 5.2, the mean scores for Stem-Option and Stem groups on proficiency test are 13.71 and 12.63 respectively.

Table 5.2 Descriptive Statistics Proficiency Test Stem-Option and Stem groups

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
STEM-OPTION	63	13.7143	6.01726	.75810
STEM	90	12.6333	4.67710	.49301

The results of the independent t-test (T= 1.19, P = .234 > .05) indicate that there is not any significant difference between Stem-Option and Stem groups on proficiency test.

Table 5.3 Independent t-test Proficiency Test Stem-Option and Stem groups

	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
Equal variances assumed	9.241	.003	1.249	151	.214	1.08	.865	-.629	2.79
Equal variances not assumed			1.195	111.62	.234	1.08	.904	-.710	2.87

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met (Levene's F = 9.24, P = .003 < .05). That is why the first row of Table 5.3, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.
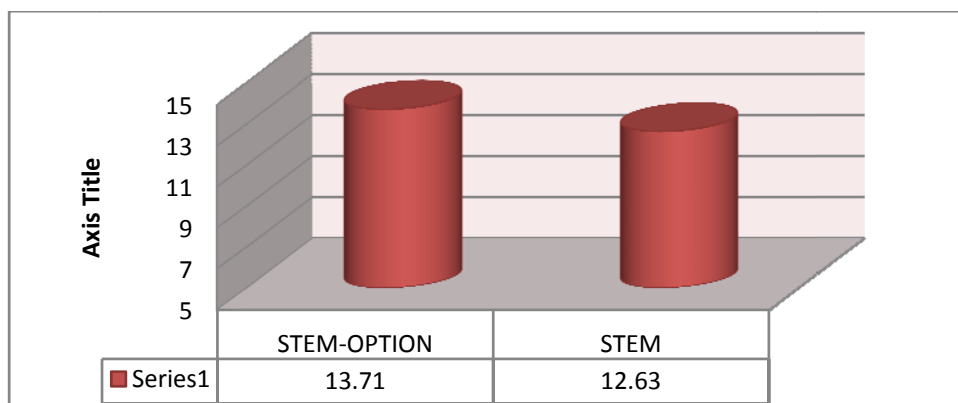
Graph 5.1: Proficiency Test Stem-Option and Stem groups

The TOEFL test composed of five passages with 50 questions was administered to one of the groups with stem-option preview which is typical in Iran; in other words, the group comprised of 63 subjects was allowed to have both stem and options of the tasks before reading the text. But the other group comprised of 90 participants just had stems at hand before reading the text. The first administration is typical in Iran. To administer the test with the second method each text was given to the participants just with stems; therefore, at first they were not provided with options. As it was mentioned above, the test had 50 questions. The time allocated to the test was regularized based on the original test time, so it was 55 minutes; hence, the suitable time for each of the texts was about 12 minutes. In the second administration, after reading each text and its stems in about 8 minutes, the options were provided too, so the subjects had almost 4 minutes to choose the best option which could be as the correct answer. After 12 minutes, another text was given to the students, so the test was administered in this way to the end. The answer sheets were scored in this way: each correct answer had one value. After calculating the scores, the international score chart was used to assign the test takers' real scores out of 30. The statistical design used in this study is ex post-facto.

6. Data Analysis

The instrument used in the study was a TOEFL reading comprehension test. The study attempted to find out the effect of item preview on the testees' performance based on the subjects' proficiency level. To achieve the goal of the study, the process of statistical procedures used in the study was explained in the following expressions. To investigate the test reliability, Kuder-Richardson 21 (KR-21) was used. It should be noted that the Stem and Stem-Option groups enjoyed homogeneous variances on the reading comprehension test – an assumption that must be met for an appropriate independent t-test.

Do types of item preview, stem and stem-option, have any significant effect on the performance of the students in the reading comprehension test?

An independent t-test was run to investigate the effect of item preview, stem and stem-option on the performance of the students in the reading comprehension test. The t-observed value is 5.14 (Table 6.1). This amount of t-value is higher than the critical t-value of 1.97 at 151 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the Stem and Stem-option groups' mean scores on the reading comprehension test.

Table 6.1   Independent t-test Reading Comprehension by Types of Item Preview

| | 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
Equal variances assumed	.294	.589	5.145	151	.000	2.33810	.45442	1.44026	3.23593
Equal variances not assumed			5.089	128.235	.000	2.33810	.45944	1.42903	3.24716

As displayed in Table 6.2, the Stem group with a mean score of 9.43 outperformed the Stem-Option group with a mean score of 7.09 on the reading comprehension test. In fact, the students generally performed better on the reading comprehension test when they previewed the stems only.

Table 6.2

Descriptive Statistics of Reading Comprehension by Types of Item Preview

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
STEM	90	9.4333	2.69436	.28401
STEM-OPTION	63	7.0952	2.86646	.36114
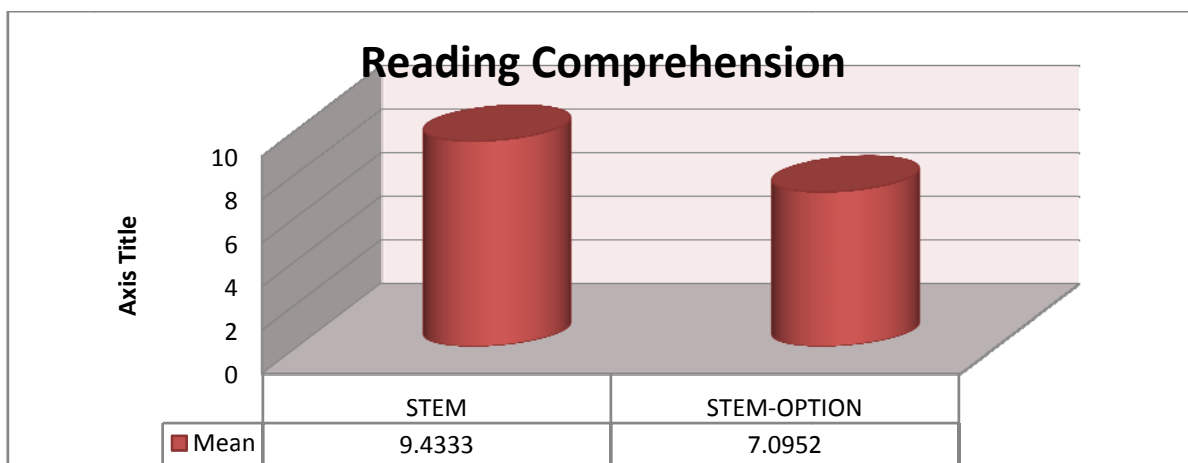
Graph 6.1: Reading Comprehension by Types of Item Preview

Table 6.3 displays the descriptive statistics for the interaction between type of item preview and language proficiency.

Table 6.3   Descriptive Statistics Language Proficiency and Types of Item Preview

GROUP	PROFICIENCY LEVEL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
STEM-OPTION	ELEMENTARY	6.125	.546	5.046	7.204
	INTERMEDIATE	7.000	.690	5.635	8.365
	ADVANCED	8.125	.546	7.046	9.204
STEM	ELEMENTARY	8.917	.446	8.036	9.797
	INTERMEDIATE	9.091	.466	8.171	10.011
	ADVANCED	10.857	.584	9.704	12.010

A two-way ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of the types of item preview, proficiency levels and their interaction on the performance of the students on the reading comprehension test.

Table 6.4   Two-Way ANOVA Reading Comprehension by Types of Item Preview and Proficiency Levels

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GROUP	226.766	1	226.766	31.708	.000
PROFICIENCY LEVEL	101.169	2	50.584	7.073	.001
GROUP * PROFICIENCY LEVEL	3.369	2	1.684	.236	.790
Error	1051.299	147	7.152		
Total	12336.000	153			

The F-observed value for the effect of the types of the item preview is 31.7 (Table 6.4). This amount of F-value is higher than the critical F-value of 3.90 at 1 and 147 degrees

of freedom. There is a significant difference between the Stem and Stem-option groups' mean scores on the reading comprehension test.

The F-observed value for the effect of the proficiency levels is 7.07 (Table 6.4). This amount of F-value is higher than the critical F-value of 3.05 at 2 and 147 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the elementary, intermediate and advanced groups' mean scores on the reading comprehension test. As displayed in Table 6.5, the mean scores for the advanced, intermediate and elementary groups on the reading comprehension test are 9.49, 8.04 and 7.52.

Table 6.5   Descriptive Statistics of Proficiency Levels on Reading Comprehension

PROFICIENCY LEVEL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ELEMENTARY	7.521	.352	6.824	8.217
INTERMEDIATE	8.045	.416	7.223	8.868
ADVANCED	9.491	.400	8.701	10.281

Although the F-value of 7.07 indicates significant differences between the mean scores of the three proficiency levels on the reading comprehension test, the post-hoc Scheffe's tests must be run to locate the exact places of differences between the means of the three groups. Based on the information displayed in Table 6.5, it can be concluded that:

A: There is not any significant differences between the elementary (M = 7.52) and the intermediate group (M = 8.04) on the reading comprehension test.

B: There is a significant difference between the elementary (M = 7.52) and the advanced group (M = 9.49) on the reading comprehension test. The advanced group outperformed the elementary students on the reading comprehension test.

C: There is a significant difference between the intermediate (M = 8.04) and the advanced group (M = 9.49) on the reading comprehension test. The advanced group outperformed the intermediate students on the reading comprehension test.

Table 6.6   Post-Hoc Scheffe's Tests Reading Comprehension by Proficiency Levels

(I) PROFICIENCYLEVEL	(J) PROFICIENCYLEVEL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ELEMNTARY	INTERMEDIATE	-.525	.545	1.000	-1.846	.796
	ADVANCED	-1.970[*]	.533	.001	-3.260	-.680
INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED	-1.446[*]	.577	.040	-2.843	-.048

(I) PROFICIENCYLEVEL	(J) PROFICIENCYLEVEL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ELEMNTARY	INTERMEDIATE	-.525	.545	1.000	-1.846	.796
	ADVANCED	-1.970[*]	.533	.001	-3.260	-.680
INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED	-1.446[*]	.577	.040	-2.843	-.048

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
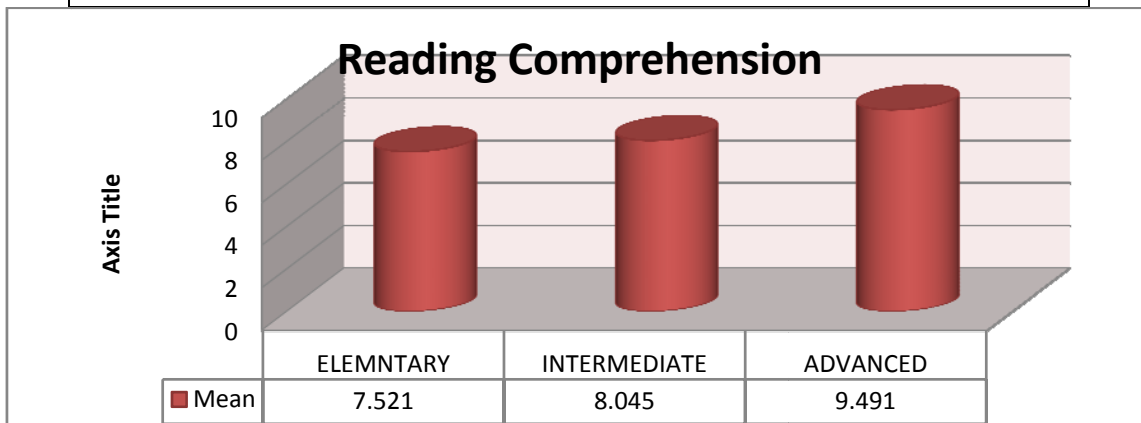
Graph 6.2: Reading Comprehension by Proficiency Levels

The F-observed value for the interaction between the type of item preview and language proficiency is not significant. The F-value of .23 (Table 6.4) is lower than the critical F-value of 3.05 at 2 and 147 degrees of freedom.

As displayed through Graph 6.3 at all three proficiency levels, the stem preview group performed better than the stem-option group, so lack of interaction between type of item preview and language proficiency is approved.
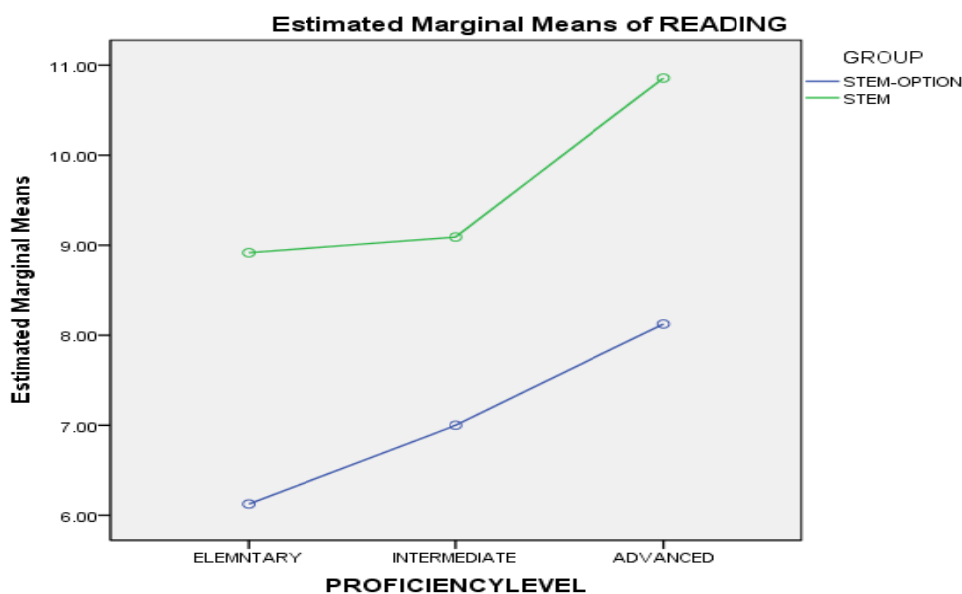
Graph 6.3: Lack of Interaction between Language Proficiency and Types of Item Preview

7. Conclusion

The findings of this study reveal that type of item preview, stem and stem-option, influences the testees' performance significantly. In other words, all the participants who took the test under stem preview performed better than to whom the test was administered with stem-option preview. But there was a lack of interaction between type of item preview, proficiency level and reading comprehension performance. All the participants in stem group out-performed the subjects participated in stem-option group. The findings in this study are not in concert with the following research. According to Kozo Yanagawa and Anthony Green (2008), in multiple-choice listening items changing of the order of the representation of the elements in an item can influence the nature of the task. They concluded that manipulating item format leads to lower performance if the students were provided with just options, but there were not any significant differences between the performances in the tests with stem and stem-option preview. But they quoted that stem preview can lead testees to apply strategies effectively (Littlewood, 1981; Ur, 1984; Mendelsohn, 1995; Buck, 1995; Thompson, 1995; Vandergrift, 1999). The result of the present study can be justified by the mentioned finding. In other words, better performance of the stem preview group can be because of effective application of test-taking strategies.

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Title

Investigating the role of Language Learning Strategies, the role of Language Learning Styles, and their relationship among EFL students of Azad University of Kerman

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to identify the learning styles and strategies of Iranian EFL learners, the relationship between their style and strategy preferences and their level of achievement and to investigate whether there is a relationship between students' learning style and strategy preferences. The researcher has chosen to test Oxford's taxonomy (1990) model of strategies for the goal of applying the Oxford's taxonomy model to the Iranian context. Data collected through three questionnaires, and think aloud protocl.64 students of Azad University of Kerman were asked to complete two questionnaires. The results of the perceptual language learning styles questionnaire revealed that students' major

learning style preferences were visual learning. Furthermore, there was no relationship between the students learning styles and their level of achievement. The results of the strategies inventory language learning (SILL) questionnaire revealed that cognitive strategies were favored the most. Additionally, learners' cognitive, compensation and social strategies had significant relationship with their level of achievement. The analysis with respect to the relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies revealed that auditory learning styles had a significant relationship with cognitive strategies and tactile learning styles had a significant relationship with cognitive, compensation, and metacognitive strategies. The think aloud protocols revealed that students used various cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The results of this study contribute to the theoretical foundation and methodology of the SILL and PLSPQ construct.

Keyword: Language learning strategies, Learning style, Auditory learners, Visual learners, Cognitive strategies, Metacognitive strategies, Affective strategies

1. Introduction

Language learning is one of the most important needs and it has become an essential component in people's lives. Because of numerous reasons such as studying at an English medium university or living in a foreign country, people all over the world are trying to learn a second language, even a third language(William Grabe, 2009).

Unlike the primeval teaching methodologies, today's methodologies have shifted their stress from the language and teachers to learners and their learning. Language learning strategies play a crucial role in a second or foreign language acquisition. Learning strategies also help learner to gather new information and then assimilate those acquired information into their existing knowledge. Appropriate learning strategies help the performance of good language learner; similarly, inappropriate language strategies would add the misunderstanding for the poor language learning. Some other variables that affect them such as gender, achievement, motivation, culture, aptitude, learning style, etc. have also been taken to it (Wenden &Rubbin, 1987; Stern, 1975).

Oxford (1989) offers a synthesis of the studies carried out regarding the LLS and the variables that affect strategy choice. She presents the results of studies carried out with respects to LLS choice and language being learned, duration, degree of awareness, age, and

sex, affective variables such as attitudes, motivational level, personality characteristics, and general personality type. Learning styles is another variable but Oxford asserts, "Little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style" (p. 241).

 Some Iranians like other Asian EFL learners try to use different strategies and replace one by another when language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how –and how well –our students learn a second or foreign language .Sometimes Iranian EFL learners like other Asian EFL learners don't know about strategies, they use these strategies in a wrong way and they learn language wrong. They continue their learning in this way. This problem causes they are not good learners. Iranian EFL learners like other Asian learners do not know what their style is. When they know about their style, they relate it while using their strategies In Iran as if other Asian countries teachers do not have information about teaching styles and learner's learning styles and their strategies. Teachers do not know about integrating appropriate materials and activities that match the learners' learning styles and their opportunities to assess and guide the learners with respect to learning strategies manipulated in various situations.

This study will be useful to both language teachers and learners because it might raise teachers' awareness concerning their own learning and teaching styles. This study will be also useful to the curriculum developers and material producers. This study can also be useful to English language institutes, the Ministry of Education, and the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology in Iran. This study has time limitation and the time is important factor. The persons in the control group in this study are limited and it may be not true for all persons in this level in the world. To this end, the current study addressed the following questions:

1. To what extent can the language learning strategy preferences of the learners at a higher level of achievement be the same as those at the lower level of achievement?

2. To what extent can the learning style preferences of the learners at a higher level of achievement be the same as those at the lower level of achievement?

3. What is the relationship between learning style and language learning strategy preferences of Iranian EFL learners?

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Learning Style

Dunn and Dunn (1979 as cited in Reid 1987) define learning styles as "a term that describes variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience"(Dunn and Dunn,1979, page .89).

Reid (1995) asserts that learning styles have some fundamental characteristics, on which they are based. These are:

- every person, student and teacher alike, has a learning style and learning strengths and weaknesses;

- learning styles exist on wide continuums; although they are described as opposites;

- learning styles are value-neutral; that is, no one style is better than others (although clearly some students with some learning styles function better in a US school system that values some learning styles over others);

- students must be encouraged to "stretch" their learning styles so that they will be more empowered in a variety of learning situations; often, students' strategies are linked to their learning styles;

- Teachers should allow their students to become aware of their learning strengths and weaknesses.

The Fleming (2001) VAK/VARK model (one of the most common and widely used categorizations of the various types of learning styles) categorized learning styles as follows:

➢ Physical domain – visual, auditory and motor styles

➢ Cognitive domain – concrete, abstract, sequential, random styles

➢ Affective domain – internal and external psychological and physiological factors that affect how we feel

➢ Culture and learning

Most of people have a preferred learning domain and within that domain, a preferred learning style.

- **Visual Style**

Learners with a visual style prefer to use their eyes to learn; that is, see something in writing, watch a demonstration or video, and so on. In order to learn most effectively, these learners need to "see" the information or material in one form or another, thus the use of visual aids such will enhance learning. For example, when learning to read, these learners are likely to prefer a whole word versus phonetic approach.

- **Auditory Style**

Learners with an auditory style will prefer to use their hearing to learn; that is, listen to a lecture about a certain topic rather than read about it, talk about the material with others

or through "self-talk" (talking to themselves "in their heads"). For example, contrary to visual learners these students are likely to learn to read best when a phonetic approach is used.

- **Motor Style**

This style is also referred to as a kinesthetic or physical style. Learners who prefer this style can be thought of as "hands on" learners. That is, they need to do an activity, practice a skill or manipulate material physically in order to learn most effectively. For example, when learning to spell these learners is likely to prefer writing out words since muscle movement assists in their learning process.

Cheng and Banya (1998) also provide further information revealed as a result of the statistical analysis of the perceptual learning style questionnaire. Their findings include the following:

o Students who preferred kinesthetic learning have more confidence as well as more attitudes that are positive and beliefs about foreign language learning than students with other perceptual learning style preferences.

o Students with the Individual preference style use more language learning strategies, and they are less tolerant of ambiguity.

o Students who identified themselves as tactile learners seemed to be more anxious about learning English.

o Students with an auditory preference like to make friends with and speak with foreign language speakers (in this case, English speakers). (Cheng and Banya, 1998, p. 82)

2.2. Language Learning Strategies

learning strategies are specified actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation"(oxford, 1990,p.8).

Oxford (1990) summarizes her view of LLS by listing twelve key features below as they:

o Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.

o Allow learners to become more self-directed.

o Expand the role of teachers.

o Problems are oriented.

o Specific actions are taken by the learner.

o Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.

o Support learning both directly and indirectly.

o Are not always observable.

o Are often conscious.

o Can be taught.

o Are flexible.

o Are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford, 1990, p. 9)

Oxford's taxonomy consists of two major LLS categories, the Direct and Indirect Strategies. Direct strategies are those behaviors that directly involve the use of the target language, which directly facilitates language learning. Oxford (1990) resembles the direct strategies to the performers in a stage play, whereas she takes after the indirect strategies to the director of the same play.

Compensation Strategies

A. Guessing Intelligently
   1. Using linguistic clues
   2. Using other clues

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
   1. Switching to the mother tongue
   2. Getting help
   3. Using mime or gesture
   4. Avoid communication partially or totally
   5. Selecting the topic
   6. Adjusting or approximating the message
   7. Coining words
   8. Using a circumlocution or synonym

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Figure II (Continued)
Indirect Strategies

Metacognitive Strategies

A. Centering your Learning
   1. Overviewing and linking with already known material
   2. Paying attention
   3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening

B. Arranging and planning your learning
   1. Finding out about language learning
   2. organizing
   3. Setting goals and objectives
   4. Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful listening /reading/speaking/writing)
   5. Planning for a language task
   6. Seeking practice opportunities

C. Evaluating your learning
   1. Self-monitoring
   2. Self-evaluating

Affective Strategies

A. Lowering your anxiety
   1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation
   2. Using music
   3. Using laughter

B. Encouraging yourself
   1. Making positive statements
   2. Taking risks wisely
   3. Rewarding yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature
   1. Listening to your body
   2. Using a checklist
   3. Writing a language learning diary
   4. Discussing your feelings with someone else

Figure 2.1. Diagram of Oxford's Strategy Classification System (Oxford, 1990, pp. 18-20)

These two groups work hand in hand with each other and they are inseparable. Direct strategies are divided into three subcategories: Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies.

- **Memory Strategies**

Oxford and Crookall (1989) define them as "techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later" (p. 404). They are particularly said to be useful in vocabulary learning which is "the most sizable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language" (Oxford, 1990, p. 39).

- **Cognitive Strategies**

The second groups of direct strategies are the cognitive strategies, which are defined as:

> Skills that involve manipulation and transformation of the language in some direct way, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note taking, functional practices in naturalistic settings, formal practice with structures and sounds, etc. (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404).

- **Compensation Strategies**

Compensation strategies help learners to use the target language for either comprehension or production in spite of the limitations in knowledge. They aim to make up for a limited repertoire of grammar and, particularly vocabulary. Compensation strategies are not only manipulated in the comprehension of the target language, but they are used in producing it. They enable earners to produce spoken or written expressions in the target language without complete knowledge of it.

The second group of strategies, that is, indirect strategies, consists of three subcategories as well: Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies.

- **Metacognitive Strategies**

Metacognitive strategies are defined as "behaviors used for centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning. These 'beyond the cognitive' strategies are used to provide 'executive control over the learning process' (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404).

- **Affective Strategies**

Oxford and Crookall (1989) define affective strategies as "techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to the language learning (p. 404).

- **Social Strategies**

Since language is a form of social behavior, it involves communication between and among people. They enable language learners to learn with others by making use of strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.

2.3. Learning Strategies and Styles Differences

Oxford (1990) who states that some learner characteristics such as "learning styles and personality traits are difficult to change" (p. 12). The learning strategies, on the other hand, are said to be 'external skills', which indicates they are more problem oriented and conscious. This also implies that they are more liable to change over time and depending on the task and materials used in the learning environment. Oxford (1990) claims that "learning strategies are easier to teach and modify" (p. 12) through strategy training.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The population of this research included English Foreign Language Learners at Azad University of Kerman. 64 samples of EFL undergraduate learners in five classes were chosen for this study. Not all of students took part in the study. A simple random sampling technique was used to choose 64 participants for this study. Their ages were ranged between 21 and 27. Of all the 64 participants, 43 of them were female, 19 of them were male.

3.2. Instrumentation

In this research, a proficiency test and two questionnaires were the main instruments used with the purpose of collecting the necessary data. Qualitative data was obtained through the think aloud protocols, which were designed to find out what strategies students actually made use of while reading. Three instruments were used with the purpose of collecting quantitative data. The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire was used to identify the major, minor, and the negligible learning style preferences of the students. The Strategy Inventory

for Language Learning was also used to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the participants.

3.3 Data Collection Procedures

The questionnaires were given to the learners during class time. The researcher spent about 15 minutes at the beginning of the class time to explain learning style and language learning strategies for learners. The learners were also asked to give an immediate response and that they should not hesitate and change their answers.

All three instruments were given to the learners together because the researcher did not want them to put their names on them. Researcher refers and supports that this would put the reliability of their answers at risk. When students are not asked to put their names on the instrument, they are likely to be more relaxed and sincere.

The first phase of the data collection process involved the administration of the language proficiency test consisting of the Michigan test of language proficiency. The learners were asked to answer the questions in 35 minutes.

The second phase of data collection involved the learning style preferences questionnaire; learners had 35 minutes to answer the 30 statements of this questionnaire. All of them took the test at the same time within a 20-minute period.

During the third phase of data collection procedure, the strategy inventory of language learning (SILL) was administered to determine the relationship between learning style preferences and the learning strategies selected. All the subjects completed the questionnaire in 40 minutes.

Concerning the actual think, aloud protocols, the first session was held together with the four participants and some general information and guidelines were offered to the students. They were explained what they were supposed to do and how to do it. They were also informed that there were no right and wrong of what they said and that the important thing was effectively reporting what was going on in their minds. What is more, the participants were told that the protocols would be tape-recorded.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedures

Data with respect to students' learning styles were collected through the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire. Another questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was administrated with the purpose of identifying students' language learning strategies.

Regarding the analysis of the results obtained from the PLSPQ, descriptive statistics was used to group the students according to their major, minor, and negligible learning style

preference categories. Pearson correlation was conducted to identify whether there was a significant relationship between the learning style preferences of the participants and their level of achievement. The statistical analyses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Similar statistical procedures were used to analyze the data obtained from the SILL. Descriptive statistics were used to rank order the strategy categories from the most preferred to the least preferred category. Pearson correlation was also conducted to find whether there was relationship between the language learning strategies that students prefer to use and their level of achievement. A t-test was conducted to identify whether there was significant difference in the learning style preference between learners.

In order to reveal whether there was a significant relationship between the learning styles and the language learning strategies the Pearson correlation was used. The data obtained from the think aloud protocols were analyzed by making use of a content analysis. The strategies the students actually made use of while involved in a reading task were identified by using a coding scheme.

4. Results and Discussions

The Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies (SILL) was used as a data collection instrument of this research to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the students who participated in this research.

Table 4.1. Descriptive statistics concerning Language Learning Strategy preferences (N=64)

Language Learning Strategies	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive	64	2.16	6.40	3.322	0.702
Metacognitive	64	2.04	4.76	3.208	0.674
Affective	64	1.05	4.14	2.723	0.683
Social	64	0.52	4.52	2.873	0.844
Memory	64	1.84	4.31	3.053	0.601
Compensation	64	1.64	5.02	3.105	0.743

In order to determine whether was a statistically meaningful relationship between the strategy preferences and the level of students, the Pearson Correlation was computed.

Table 4.2.Pearson Correlation Matrix

Strategy	Score		
Cognitive	12-30	Pearson Correlation	.312(*)
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.012
		N	64
Metacognitive	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-.031
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.807
		N	64
Affective	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-012
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.931
		N	64
Social	12-30	Pearson Correlation	.352(**)
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.003
		N	64
Memory	12-30	Pearson Correlation	.27
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.815
		N	64
Compensation	12-30	Pearson Correlation	.381(**)
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.002
		N	64

To answer research question one some results showed. These results indicated cognitive, social, compensation strategies had positive effects on students' achievement and metacognitive, affective, and memory had negative effects on students' achievement. Researcher showed that the higher the student's level of achievement, the more they preferred to use the cognitive, social, compensation strategies. This implies the students at a higher level of achievement made use of these strategies more than the lower achievers. Another implication of these results might be that the language learning strategy preferences of the students had been one of the factors that have influenced their achievement.

The Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire was used to assess the learners' style preferences.

Table4.3. Descriptive statistics concerning style preferences

Styles	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Visual	64	23.00	50.00	38.88	6.27502
Auditory	64	3.00	49.00	35.72	8.23311
Kinesthetic	64	22.00	50.00	35.93	7.81221
Tactile	64	21.00	50.00	34.93	6.25282
Individual	64	12.00	49.00	32.53	8.52291
Group	64	17.00	50.00	33.85	8.17301

Pearson Correlation was conducted in order to examine the existence of a statistically meaningful relationship between the students' learning style preferences and their level of achievement. The results will be discussed in this part while the six part concerning this relationship.

Table 4.4 Pearson Correlation Matrix

Style	Score		
Visual	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-.052
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.685
		N	64
Kinesthetic	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-.082
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.504
		N	64
Auditory	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-.125
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.323
		N	64
Tactile	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-.041
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.752
		N	64
Individual	12-30	Pearson Correlation	-.045
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.714
		N	64
Group	12-30	Pearson Correlation	.145
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.242
		N	64

To answer research question two the results indicated. These results showed that there was no relationship between the Learners' perceptual learning preferences and their achievement's level. It revealed the lack of relationship. This implies that the learning styles preferences of the students with a higher level of achievement and those of the lower achievers are the same. It can also be inferred from these results that the students' learning style preferences had no effect on their achievement.

The third group of the hypotheses focuses on the relationship between the Language Learning style and Language Learning strategy preferences of the students. Pearson Correlation was computed to find out whether there was statistically meaningful relationship between these two variables.

Table 4.5 Pearson Correlation Matrix

		Cognitive	Meta-cognitive	Affective	social	Memory	compensation
Visual	Pearson Correlation	-.053	.181	.078	.137	.146	.177
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.686	.344	.536	.755	.235	.154
	N	64	64	64	64	64	64
Auditory	Pearson Correlation	.257(*)	.115	.102	.192	-.035	.136
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.033	.392	.974	.473	.786	.272
	N	64	64	64	64	64	64
Kinesthetic	Pearson Correlation	.042	.164	.176	.102	.182	.234
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.721	.195	.156	.995	.146	.063

	N	64	64	64	64	64	64
Tactile	Pearson Correlation	.304(*)	.415(**)	.164	.091	.183	.374(**)
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.015	.002	.183	.471	.146	.003
	N	64	64	64	64	64	64
Individual	Pearson Correlation	.104	-.066	.205	.235	.166	.126
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.404	.591	.094	.058	.181	.306
	N	64	64	64	64	64	64
Group	Pearson Correlation	.033	.144	-.006	.117	.043	.215
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.787	.245	.355	.338	.738	.82
	N	64	64	64	64	64	64

To answer research question three some results presented. These finding showed that none of the language learning strategies had a statistically significant relationship with the students' visual, kinesthetic, individual, and group learning styles. Results showed the auditory learning styles of the students significantly correlated with the students' cognitive strategies and the tactile learning styles of the participants had significantly correlated with their compensation and metacognitive strategies.

Regarding the results obtained from the think aloud protocols; it was found that students made use of many cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to understand the text and to cope with the problems they encountered while reading it. The result of the perceptual learning style questionnaire that the auditory learning was the major learning style preference was confirmed as well since students either whispered while reading the texts or they read it loudly. Students were also found to be consistent largely with what they claimed to do and what they did during the protocols.

5. Conclusion

The data obtained from strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were also analyzed in order to answer the first question. Researcher showed that the higher the student's level of achievement, the more they preferred to use the cognitive, social, compensation strategies. Next, the results revealed that there was no statistically significant relationship between the students' learning style preferences and their level of achievement.

This implies that the learning styles preferences of the students with a higher level of achievement and those of the lower achievers are the same.

The fact that the students were mainly audio learners was surprising because the participants' language instructors stated that they were visual learners and they employed teaching techniques that catered for the needs of the visual learners mostly, which indicated a

mismatch between the teaching styles of the instructors and the learning styles of the participants.

The results also indicated that the visual, kinesthetic, individual, and group learning style preferences of the students had no statistically significant relationship with their language learning strategy preferences. Compensation strategies are said to equip students with the necessary techniques to understand and produce the language despite the limitations in their knowledge of the language. These finding showed that none of the language learning strategies had a statistically significant relationship with the students' visual, kinesthetic, individual, and group   learning styles. The results also indicated that none of the learning styles had a statistically significant relationship with the metacognitive strategies.

5.1. Implications of Study

Iranians English language teachers should make their students familiar with the notions learning style and language learning strategy, make them aware of their own learning styles, and help them choose the suitable strategies (strategies used by the higher achievers with the same learning styles) based on their learning styles. Besides being a teacher in the classroom, they should take the responsibility of a researcher as well as to identify their students' individual differences. They should also know how to satisfy their students need.

Additionally, teachers should support their students with a lot of strategies to help them with different academic tasks. They should also design activities that will require their students to make of a variety of strategies and after the completion of the task they should hold a discussion session with students talking about the strategies they use, and whether these strategies proved to be useful or not. However, teachers can not accomplish these responsibilities without the help of the curriculum developers and material producers.

Curriculum developers and material producers should work in cooperation with both teachers and students. It should be the curriculum developers' responsibility to design a complete curriculum in which all the matters related to identification of the students' learning styles, the instruments needed to do this identification, enough time needed by teachers to conduct styles and strategies research in their classes, and other necessary things are decided in coordination with the teachers. In this way, they can design better curriculum, and appropriate materials and tasks that will promote a more efficient and effective language learning atmosphere.

A further research on the relationship between learning styles and strategies might focus on factors such as career orientation, performance, and the length of exposure to the language, which might influence the perceptual learning styles, and the language learning

strategy use of the language learners. Few attempts have been made to investigate the perceptual learning style preferences and language learning strategies of Iranian language learners. Different aspects and various dimensions of these two factors, and also their relationship with other individual-difference variables including learning aptitude, age, gender, culture, and the affective domain (i.e. motivation, anxiety, self-efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity, etc.), in different Iranian context can focus on future research in Iran.

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Title

A Metacritical Approach to the Translation of *The Great Gatsby*

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Abstract

Recent developments in translation studies (Munday, 2001), have made the theorists believe that translation should not be restricted to source text (ST) or target text (TT). Such a belief has provided us with new views especially concerning literary translation. Almost all translation studies emphasize on the necessity of different changes in literary texts through translation, like changes of the cultural and social aspects of ST in TT because while ST finds meaning in its own context , the translator should do some changes in different layers of TT, so that the rereading of TT's values would be possible. But it seems that in the case of some literary translators in Iran, the transference of discoursal indexes from ST into TT, without any attention to TT's discoursal indexes, has unfortunately led to the readers' misunderstanding of ST's discourse which has made their works somehow inadequate. Thus, the translation of *The Great Gatsby* (1972) the second best novel of the 20th Century, by Karim Emami (2000) and its criticism by the renowned literary critic, Abdul Hussein Azarang (2000), were analyzed and criticized in this research, using Nord 's textual analysis and following a metacritical approach. As he (2000) stated, the translator whom he called 'the translator of the situation', was among those few literary translators who using a ST-oriented technique, produced such a plain, fluent and natural Persian translation that his addresses could suitably understand the text 's message in a meaningful way. However, the findings of the study finally revealed that in order for a literary translator to produce a comprehensible and adequate TT, he

should try to create a balance between exactness of translation and its naturalness, not to follow necessarily a ST-oriented or a TT-oriented technique.

1. Introduction

Regarding translation which is considered a two side activity, i.e. understanding ST and transferring its meaning in a comprehensible way for the target readers, it seems that one main problem especially regarding the translation of literary works with a somehow laconic and ingenious prose, lies in the lasting clash between exactness and naturalness in translation, so that a literary translator can both remain faithful to the original and at the same time use a natural and comprehensible prose in his work.

Some literary critics among whom the most notable one can be Abdul Hussein Azarang (2000), have discussed that Emami 's (2000) technique as a translator of literary works including novels, which is mostly ST- oriented, has finally produced a suitable and plain TT for his audience. According to him (2000), the translator has been among those few literary translators who has been able to translate in accordance with the ST atmosphere, recognize how to translate based on the specific situation in the novel, know his audience well and can even switch his tone, i.e. formally or informally , suitably during the process of translating. These features that according to Azarang (2000) have characterized ' Emami 's (2000) school' which he consciously followed, have produced a plain, natural and comprehensible text for the most readers. In this way, it seems quite appropriate to firstly bring about few relevant comments on some significant aspects in the translation of a literary work.

According to most translation theorists (Munday, 2001) ,translation critics' followers, like several translation critics before them, tended to look at one-to-one relationships and functional notions of equivalence; they believed in the subjective ability of the translator to derive an equivalent text, that in turn influenced the literary and cultural conventions in a particular society. However, little by little the critics presumed the opposite: that the social norms and literary conventions in the receiving culture, governed the aesthetic presuppositions of the translator and thus, influenced following translation decisions. Also, based on translation studies (Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990), literary translations should both regard significant literary elements of ST such as theme , characterization , setting, and try to transfer them in a suitable way for the target readers. But unfortunately most Iranian

literary translators have focused their attention more on the linguistic features and just a few literary elements of the ST.

2.Methodology

In this study, textual analysis of Nord (1991), with its focus on the text 's macrostructure , as a significant factor in analyzing any literary text as well as its translation, has been used as the procedure to collect the concerned necessary data.

It seems that one of the crucial aspects in the analysis of macrostructure, is the question of whether there are any sub-texts or in-texts embedded in the ST. This is particularly important in translation, because each level of communication may require a situational analysis of its own. Also, as Nord (1991) states, most writers on translation theory now agree that before doing any translation, the translator should analyze the text comprehensively, since this appears to be the only way of ensuring that the ST has been wholly and correctly understood. Besides, considering a text as a communicative action, she states that the function of the TT is not arrived at automatically from an analysis of the ST, but is pragmatically defined by the purpose of the intercultural communication. The model Nord (1991) is striving to produce, then, is largely concerned with the universals of culture_including language, i.e. communication_ and translation.

3.Results

In the following parts, first the cultural data in the ST which have seemed to be the most relevant ones to the subject of the study as well as their equivalents in the TT, are presented. Next, the literary and then the social features are put forward in the same way. Then, there are some parts of the ST which although could not be categorized as the respective data, have seemed suitable instances to be mentioned because of their unusual translations. Finally, it should be pointed out that although the researcher has tried to classify the concerned findings, there may exist some overlapping among them.

3.1. The Cultural Data

1. He found the house, a weather – beaten cardboard **bungalow**. (p.4)

خانه را گرفتیم – **بنگله** مقوایی باد و باران خورده ای بود. (ص 20)

2.It was a few days before **the Fourth of July** , and a grey, scrawny Italian child was setting torpedoes in a row along the railroad track. (p.18)

چند روز قبل از **چهارم ژوئیه** بود و یک پسر بچه ایتالیایی لاغر و خاکستری مو داشت یک ردیف ترقه روی خط آهن می چید. (ص 47)

3.'Well, they say he is a nephew or a cousin of **Kaiser Wilhelm's** . That is where all his money comes from'. (p.22)

«می گن که برادرزاده یا پسرعموی **قیصر آلمانه.** پولاش ازونجا اومده.» (ص 55)

4.In the cold lower level of the Pennsylvania Station, staring at the morning **Tribune**, I waited for the four o'clock train. (p.26)

در طبقه ی پایین و سرد ایستگاه پن سیلوی نیا دراز کشیده بودم، به **تریبیون** صبح خیره می نگریستم و در انتظار قطار ساعت چهار بودم. (ص 60)

5.Glistening **hors d'œuvre** (p.26)   دیس های برّاق **اُردُور** (ص 62)

6.**Yellow cocktail** music (p.27)   آهنگ های **کوکتلی ملایم** (ص63)

7.A celebrated **tenor** had song in Italian and a notorious **contralto** had sung in jazz. (p.31)

تنور نامداری آوازی به ایتالیایی خوانده بود و **کنتر آلتوی** بدنامی آوازی به سبک جاز. (ص 70)

8.'Well, we're almost the last tonight,' said one of the men **sheepishly**.(p.34)

یکی از مردها **برّه وار** گفت:«ولی امشب ما تقریباً نفر آخریم.» (ص 77)

9.We passed **Port Roosevelt**, where there was a glimpse of red- belted ocean- going ships. (p.44)

از **پُرت روزولت** گذشتیم و یک لمحه کشتی های اقیانوس پیما را دیدیم بانوارقرمزی که دورتنه ی آنها کشیده بودند. (ص 94)

10.A succulent **hash** arrived, and forgetting the more sentimental atmosphere of **the old Metropole**, he began to eat with ferocious delicacy. (p.46)

خوراک هَش آبداری رسید و او محیط خاطره انگیز **متروپُل کهنه** را به فراموشی سپرد و با ظرافت سبعانه ای به تغذیه پرداخت. (ص 98)

11.A wild rout that had resolved itself into '**hide-and-seek**'or '**sardines- in- the-box**'(p.52)

بزم بی بند و باری که به «**قایم باشک**» و «**ساردین در قوطی**» رسیده باشد. (ص 110)

12. 'I'd be delighted to have you.' (p.66)   از زیارتتون خوشحال می شم.» (ص 136)

13.I remember being surprised by his graceful, conservative **fox- trot**. (p.68)

یادم می آید که **فوکس تُرت** قشنگ محافظه کارانه ی گتسبی برایم غیر منتظره بود. (ص 139)

14. *Three O'Clock in the Morning* , **a neat , sad little waltz** of that year, was drifting out the open door. (p.70)

د‍رِ ساختمان روشن و باز بود و از آن نغمه هاي«ساعت سه صبح»**والس كوچك تميزو وغم انگيزي** كه آن سال درآمده بود،بيرون ميريخت. (ص 143)

15. The National Biscuit Company (72) (149 ص)   كارخانه ي نشنل بيسكيت كامپني

16. ' You always look **so cool**, ' she repeated. She had told him that she loved him, and Tom Buchanan saw . (p.75)

دي زي گفت: «شما همیشه **خنک** به نظر ميآين.» او به گتسبي گفته بود كه او رادوست داردو اين را حالا تام بيوكنن به چشم خود ديد. (ص 154)

17. I carried you down from **the Punch Bowl** to keep your shoes dry. (p.84)

از **مسابقه ي فوتبال** بغلت كردم بُردمت تا كفشات خيس نشه . (ص 170)

18. Someone had begun to whistle '**The Rosary**', tunelessly inside. (p.108)

كسي در داخل شروع به سوت زدن ناموزون «رُزاري» كرده بود. (ص 213)

3.2. The Literary Data

1. Then they **drifted** here and there unrestfully wherever people played polo and were **rich together**. (p.6)

پس از آن با يك نوع بي قراري، چندي اينجا و چندي آنجا، هر كجا كه مردم چوگان بازي مي كنند و **درهم پولي** يكديگر شادا ند، **در جريان آب شناور شده بودند.** (ص 23)

2. The lawn **ran** towards the front door for a quarter of a mile, **jumping** over sun-dials and brick walks and burning gardens .(p.6)

چمن ششصد متري تا جلوي خانه **مي دويد** و در راه خود از روي ساعت هاي آفتابي و خرندهاي آجري و باغچه هاي آتشين **مي پريد.** (ص 24)

3. Sometimes she and Miss Baker talked at once with a bantering inconsequence that was **as cool as their white dresses and their impersonal eyes** in the absence of all desire. (p.10)

بعضي وقت ها، دي زي و ميس بيكر با هم حرف مي زدند، بدون پيوندي منطقي كه **به خنكي لباس سفيدشان** بود و **به خنكي چشم هايشان** كه در غياب هوس بي طرف و بي تفاوت بودند. (ص 31)

4. We drove over to Fifth Avenue , **warm and soft , almost pastoral**, on the summer Sunday afternoon. (p.19)

تاكسي توي خيابان پنجم پيچيد ، كه در آن بعدازظهر يكشنبه **گرم و نرم و بلكه روستايي** به نظر مي رسيد. (ص 49)

5.Her brown hand waved **a jaunty salute** as she **melted** into her party at the door. (p.35)

دست برنزه اش **سلامي چابک** فرستاد و در جمع همراهانش**ذوب گرديد.** (ص 77)

6.The next day was broiling. As my train emerged from the tunnel into sunlight, only the hot whistles of the company broke the simmering hush at noon. (p.72)

روزبعد آتش مي باريد. هنگامي که قطاراز تونل به پهنه ي آفتاب خريد فقط سوت کارخانه سکوت جوشان نيمروزرا مي شکست. (ص 149)

7.The words seemed to bite physically into Gatsby. (p.85)

هرکلمه مثل خنجري در تن گتسبي مي نشست. (ص 170)

8.There was a **ripe** mystery about the house. (p.94)

خانه ي دي زي حالت پُر اسرار **رسيده** اي داشت. (ص 188)

9.His eyes **leaked** continuously with excitement. (p.106)

چشمانش پيوسته از فرط هيجان **چکّه مي کرد.** (ص 209)

10.So we beat on, boats against the current, borne back ceaselessly into the past. (p.115)

و بدين سان در قايق نشسته پارو بر خلافِ جريان بر آب مي کوبيم و بي امان به طرف گذشته رانده مي شويم. (ص 226)

3.3. The Social Data

1. 'You **live** in West Egg,' she remarked contemptuously. 'I know somebody there .' (p.9)

با تحقير رو به من گفت: «شما وست اِگ **مي مونين؟** من يه کسي رو اونجا مي شناسم.» (ص 30)

2. 'Well, it' s a fine book. It's all scientific stuff; it's been proved''Tom's getting very **profound**,'said Daisy, with an expression of unthoughtful sadness. 'He reads **deep books** with long words in them' .(p.10)

«هيچي ديگه، کتاب خيلي خوبي يه. همه مطالبش علمي يه. **يارو** حرفش رو ثابت کرده.»

دي زي که يک غم آني چهره اش را گرفته بود گفت: «تام داره خيلي پُر **عمق** مي شه. **کتاباي عميقي** مي خونه که پر از لغتاي گنده س.» (ص 32)

3.Her laughter, her gestures, her assertions became more violently affected moment by moment, and as she **expanded** the room grew smaller around her. (p.21)

خنده اش، حرکاتش و اظهاراتش لحظه به لحظه، به شدت بيشتري تصنعي (ص 52). مي شد و هر چه او **منبسط تر مي گشت** اتاق کوچک ترمي شد

4…. All well dressed, all looking a little hungary, and all talking in low, earnest voices to **solid** and prosperous Americans (p.28)

... همه خوش پوش، همه به ظاهراندكی گرسنه و همه با صداهای ملايم و متين با آمريكايی های **جا سنگين** و پولدار در گفتگو (ص 64)

5. I was looking at an elegant young **roughneck** whose elaborate formality of speech just missed being absurd. (p.32)

من به جوان به ظاهربزن **بهادر** شيكپوشی می نگريستم كه سخن گفتنِ لفظ قلم او فقط يک پرده تا مرز كارهای مضحک بی معنی فاصله داشت. (ص 72)

6. 'I was brought up in America but educated at Oxford, because all my ancestors have been educated there for many years. It is a family tradition.' (p.42)

«تربيت من درآمريكا انجام شد وتحصيلاتم در آكسفورد، چون همه اجداد من او نجادرس خونده ن. سنّت خانوادگی يه ». (ص91)

7.'He's quite **a character** around New York- a **denizen** of Broadway.' (p.47)

«برای خودش تونيويورک **قيافه ای يه** – تو برادوی **مجاور شده**.» (ص101)

8.Americans, while willing , even eager, to be **serfs,** have always been obstinate about being peasantry. (p.57)

آمريكايی ها كه گاه حاضر اند **نوكربی جيره و مواجب** ديگری شوند، هميشه با سرسختی از پذيرفتن رعيتی ابا كرده اند. (ص 119)

9. The transactions in Montana copper that made him many times a millionaire, found him physically robust but **on the verge of soft – mindedness** .(p.63)

در پايان معامله های مس مونتانا كه او راچند باره ميليونر كرد، كودی آدمی بودبا جسم تندرست كه **مغزش به سوی نرمی ميگراييد.** (ص 132)

10. 'I know I'm not very popular. I don't give big parties. I suppose you've got to make your house into a pigsty in order to have any friends- in the modern world.'

…The transition from **libertine** to **prig** was so complete. (p.83)

«من می دونم كه مورد توجه نيستم. مهمونی های بزرگ نمی دم. مث اين كه آدم اگه بخواد تو اين دنيای تجدّد يه چن تا دوس داشته باشد، اول بايد خونه ش رو تبديل به طويله بكنه.»
تبديل **عياش بی بند و بار به آقا معلم اخلاق** از هر لحاظ كامل بود . (ص167)

3.4.The Other Data

1.Some **heightened** sensitivity (p.3)   يک جورحساسيت **تيزشده** (ص18)

2.The actual **founder of my line** was my grandfather's brother .(p.5)

بنيان گذارشاخه ي مندر واقع برادرپدربزرگم،عموي بزرگ ماست. (ص 19)

3.The house on my right was **a colossal affair** by any standard. (p.5)

خانه ي طرف راست به هر حساب و معيار **چيز غول پيكري بود.** (ص 22)

4.The house was on that **slender riotous island** which **extends itself** due east of New York. (p.5)

اين خانه در آن **جزيره ي باريک اندام پُر غوغايي** قرار داشت، که در مشرق نيويورک **قد راست کرده است.** (ص 21)

5.I doubt if even Miss Baker was able to put this fifth guest's shrill **metallic urgency** out of mind. (p.12)

شک دارم از اين که حتّي ميس بيکر مي توانست **جيغ جيغ فلزي** و مصرّانه مهمان پنجم را به فراموشي بسپارد. (ص 36)

6.I asked what I thought would be some **sedative** questions about her little girl. (p.13)

چند سوال به خيال خود **مُسکّن** درباره ي دخترش کردم. (ص 36)

7.She was a slender, **wordly** girl of about thirty. (p.20)

او زني باريک اندام، **دنيايي** و سي ساله بود. (ص 51)

8.Mr Mckee **awoke from his doze** and started in a daze towards the door. (p.25)

آقاي مکي **چرتش پاره شد** و گيج به طرف در راه افتاد. (ص 59)

9.But I can still read the **grey names**. (p.39)

اما هنوز **نام هاي رنگ پريده** را مي توانم بخوانم. (ص 86)

10.He dropped my hand and covered Gatsby with his **expressive nose** .(p.45)

دست مرا انداخت و **دماغ گوياي** خود را متوجّه گتسبي ساخت (ص 97).

11.My taxi **groaned away**. (p.52)

تاکسي من **ناله کنان دور شد.** (ص 110)

12. '…old sport,' he added **hollowly**. (p.54)

يک جور تو خالي افزود : «... جوانمرد» (ص 114)

13.The **raw material** for his servants' dinner(p.57)

مصالح شام خدمتکاران (ص119)

14.Dan cody's yacht dropped anchor over **the most insidious** flat on Lake Superior. (p.62)

کشتي تفريحي دان کودي در **ناقلاترين** پهنه ي کم عمق درياچه سوپريورلنگر انداخت. (ص 130)

15.I take advantage of this short halt **to clear** this set of misconceptions away. (p.65)

از اين توقف کوتاه استفاده مي کنم تا آن تصورات نادرست را **جاروب کنم** . (ص134)

16.A **freshly laundred nurse** leading a little girl came into the room .(p.74)

ي كوچكي را گرفته بود **پرستار شسته و اتو شده اي** كه دست دختر بچه
داخل اتاق شد . (ص 151)

17.Small tight hats of **metallic cloth** (p.76)

كلاه هاي كوچك چسبان از **پارچه ي فلزي** (ص 156)

18.Tom was staring around the garage with **glazed eyes**. (p.89)

(ص 178) .تام با **چشمان شيشه اي** نگاهي به اطراف گاراژ انداخت

19.The **grey** tea hour (p.96) ساعت **خاكستري** چاي عصر (ص119)

4.Discussion

Studying the concerned results, the researcher has found out that most of the cultural equivalents that the translator has provided for the ST 's items , do not come up to some expressive concepts in the TT. The TT readers have not been offered the possibility of understanding the cultural notions thoroughly which have not been specified , defined or presented in a meaningful way to them. Apart from just a few number of his equivalents, sometimes the translator has transferred the cultural items in the ST, into some wrong equals. As an example, numbers 8, 14, 16 and 17 belong to this category.

However, based on Azarang (2000) 's discussion of Emami 's (2000) work whose translation technique is generally ST-oriented , his translation as a whole have been quite natural and comprehensible which have made the target readers fully and suitably understand the message embedded in the text. He (2000) has called Emami (2000) 'the translator of situation' who has well known how to create a different translation based on his addresees for whose better understanding he could even switch the tone in order to take them out of the somehow strict and formal atmosphere of the novel. Finally, he has followed his criticism of the translator 's work suggesting that apart from some of his equivalents which could be the result of his ST-oriented technique and tendency to keep the ST author 's individual style, his translation has come up to such a plain, vivid and natural prose leaving no misunderstanding or ambiguity for his readers.   .

Of course, it should be noted that regarding the romantic, ingenious and laconic prose of *The Great Gatsby* (1972) which can not be translated easily into any TT, Emami (2000) has provided some fair and vivid descriptions of the variable scenes through his creative dynamic prose and powerful imagery. Also, his ideal transference of the conversations between any members of the two groups of characters namely "*the old money*" and "*the new money*", that have been represented by the two characters Tom and Gatsby , has been among the other

points that have increased the potency of his equivalents concerning the social data of the ST. However, the translation of a classic novel with its full historical features demands something more than this. He has not believed in the translators' freedom to enrich the TT, while sometimes it seems vital in order to better transfer the sense to the readers and thus helps them much in a thorough understanding of the different ST 's concepts or expressions.

5.Conclusion

This research has aimed to criticize the renowned literary critic, Azarang 's (2000) evaluation of the translation of *the Great Gatsby* (1972) by Emami (2000), using a metacritical approach. In this way, the required data of the study have been organized through the textual and comparative analysis of the ST and TT in macro level. Here, the conclusion which such investigation leaps to, is discussed.

According to translation studies (Munday, 2001), any translation or act of translating involves two aspects: a ST with its particular stylistic, discoursal and addresses' characteristics as well as a TT with its specific textual, discoursal and readership features. Considering the main data in the novel *the Great Gatsby* (1972) as well as its translation , it was revealed that the translator following more a ST-oriented technique, and attempting to keep the ST author 's style has either contented himself to the mere exact words of the ST without any clarification for the target readers, or misunderstood such concepts and thus has transferred them consciously or unconsciously into some unfamiliar, vague and sometimes wrong equivalents whose comprehension have become problematic for the Persian readers who have no access to the ST and so rely only on the TT for understanding.

But as it was discussed before, in criticizing Emami 's (2000) translation, some literary critics including Azarang (2000) believe that apart from some parts of his translation which have followed the ST author 's style closely, he has translated using such a suitable technique for his Persian addresses that they generally have little if any difficulty understanding the message. He (2000) has even called Emami 'the translator of situation ' who is flexible enough to even shift his style for the sake of his addresses.

Concerning the cultural facts, for example, one deficiency of the translator's work has been the point that some of his TT's equivalents have been totally wrong, like *the Punch Bowl*, the name of a mountain which he has mistakenly translated as a race. The second point has regarded the vagueness of his equals in some cases. He has just contented himself to the proper names of the places, newspapers, etc, whereas he has had to specify them briefly for

the TT's addressees. Also, he has given just few footnotes for the names of some celebrated people mentioned in the novel. While such names have been quite familiar to the readers of the ST, they have not seemed so, to those of the TT and have thus had to be introduced and clarified in order for them to better understand the TT. Another point in his translation of the cultural facts has been his use of the same foreign ST's words in his work through transcription instead of their appropriate existing equivalents in the TL. The names of some ports, buildings or companies are among such cases.

Although his attention to the literary and the social systems of the TT into which he has transferred those of the TT and has thus produced an enriched text, has been quite noticeable in his translation, regarding the cultural aspects of the ST especially the prominent symbols and key words which have formed most of the text's significance , he has not produced sufficiently meaningful equivalents. The existing norms of the TT, apparently have sometimes no place within his work, and such point can be easily recognized in his equals for the other data of the ST. Besides, it seems that he has more preferred to keep the unknown cultural concepts of the ST intact in the TT, rather than to try to transfer them in a suitable way in the form of the target culture. Again, such cases are against what Azarang (2000) has commented on Emami 's (2000) work mostly suggesting his ability to translate according to the needs of his addresses so that he can well clarify the ST 's different concepts for them.

Therefore, based on the findings of the study, it can generally be said that the translator has preferred more a ST-oriented technique in his work, rather than a TT-oriented one which seeks to transfer the ST's different cultural, social and literary concepts into the appropriate and expressive notions in the TT where the readers can get the specific points out of a fluent prose. As it was also argued before, especially the significance of most of the cultural items of the novel which he has mostly translated literally, has remained vague. However, it seems that such translation has been unavoidable only for a particular past period through the history of translation in Iran. While then the translators have had to borrow and so depend on the ST's words or expressions, today the tendency has naturally shifted towards the use of nourished Persian words in the TT. According to his own statements, Emami (2000) has felt himself bound to keep the ST's façade originating naturally from its speakers' ordinary usage. He has called such a technique *standard equivalent*.

Thus, Azarang (2000), as a literary critic who has mainly emphasized on the adequacy and acceptability of Emami 's (2000) translation, has had to take it into account that the literary work a translator has decided to translate, has been written in a specific time and place with its particular addressees whose cultural and social systems on the one hand, and beliefs and

knowledge of the world on the other hand, are wholly different from those of the TT's readers. He has to convey the same ST's concepts to his own addressees in the best way that takes the TT's cultural, literary and social systems into consideration. But it seems that the translator has tended to keep the ST 's expressions and notions in the TT, in such a way that in many cases their implications have been left unclear, although in some parts of the TT, just a few words would have seemed enough to elucidate the point.

Such conclusions have naturally some implications. Firstly, the literary critics have to consider the literary translation thoroughly themselves, including the significance of its different cultural, literary and social aspects, which is mostly in line with the essence of the novel 's prominent elements including its symbols, tones, settings and characterization. To this end, they have to read the translation several times and increase their knowledge in the respective issues through searching. Secondly, they have to know that addressees will understand a TT better, if it is enriched with the Persian cultural, social and literary notions. Therefore, the literary translators in turn, should try to more use the TT's words and expressions in their translations, not those of the ST which are vague to most of the TT's readers.

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Title

The Role of Form-Focused Instruction in the Acquisition of the Relative Clauses by Iranian EFL learners

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Biodata

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Abstract

Today one of the most frequently asked questions in the psycholinguistics of second language acquisition is about the efficacy of form-focused instruction; furthermore, the existing literature provides us with the evidence concerning the failure of cognitive linguists and SLA researchers in showing any significant learning of abstract patterns without awareness (Dekeyser, 2005). Therefore, the present study sought to investigate the role of explicit instruction, which is based on the weak interface hypothesis (R. Ellis, 1993), in the acquisition of English relative clauses. To this end, a total number of 90 intermediate EFL learners, both male and female, participated in this study. They were assigned randomly into three groups of 30 students each. The random group received exposure to numerous examples of adjective clauses in random order. The grammar group received explicit explanation of the rules in question, followed by the same randomized examples. The structured group received explicit rule explanation, followed by two examples after each rule, and then the same random presentation of examples as the other two groups. A multiple choice test containing 30 items on adjective clauses was administered to the participants. It was found that the

structured group outperformed the other two groups. The results of this study revealed an advantage for explicit learning besides implicit learning; moreover, the most likely implication of this research is that focus on form is necessary to make learners consciously notice the abstract patterns that are not easily learned implicitly.

1. Introduction

Today in the field of SLA (Second Language Acquisition), the idea of applying a FFI (Form-focused instruction) in language teaching is at the beginning of its curve of growth. The concept was proposed by Long (1991) due to the deficiencies in the wildly used communicative approaches which advocate the exclusive use of meaning-focused activities in language classrooms. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) communicative language teaching (CLT), developed in 1980s, is an approach to second language teaching which devotes a scant attention to the formal grammar pedagogy. Also, Mitchell (2000, P. 285) mentions "explicit grammar was seen as pedantic, lacking in intrinsic value and insufficient as a means of developing practical communication skills, especially oral skills".

Although the shift of attention from the traditional grammar-based approaches to the communicative language teaching may influence the oral abilities of the learners positively, there is still an important concern among the teachers and researchers concerning the grammatical competence of the second/foreign language learners. Owing to this fact, Ellis (2007) mentions that L1 acquisition is a different matter from adult acquisition of an L2 in that whatever adults can acquire implicitly from communicative context is quite limited in comparison to native speaker norms and therefore he considers a positive role for some kind of attention to form.

Anderson (2000a, as cited in Dörnyei, 2009) elaborates on the three-stage model of skill-learning process. These stages are cognitive or declarative stage, associative or procedural stage and autonomous or automatic stage. In the declarative stage knowledge is formulated in a series of rules which can be described by the learners. In the procedural stage the knowledge develops as the result of the recurrent use of declarative knowledge and therefore it becomes routinized. This knowledge is different from the declarative knowledge in that it is unconscious (tacit) and it cannot be described or declared by the learners. Finally, in the third

stage which is the autonomous stage the conscious declarative knowledge may be lost and the learners can respond to the linguistic stimuli effortlessly.

Based on the mentioned ideas, the relationship between implicit and explicit learning and knowledge known as the interface, gains significant importance in the field of second language acquisition.

According to Ellis (2007), there are three different positions of the interface hypothesis: The non-interface position, the strong interface position and the weak interface position. The non-interface position which is commonly associated with the Krashen's acquisition/learning hypothesis states that there is an absolute dichotomy between implicit acquisition and explicit learning of L2 and as a result it holds that learning cannot be converted into acquisition. The strong interface position states that in language learning, the declarative knowledge and attention to form are the prerequisites for developing a procedural knowledge. Also, due to the existing reactions against these two positions, applied linguistics was left somewhere in the continuum between the non-interface position and the strong interface position, that is, it falls within some form of weak interface position.

Ellis (2007, p. 20) moves on saying that within the weak interface position explicit knowledge plays various roles "(1) in the perception of, and selective attending to, L2 form by facilitating the processes of 'noticing', (2) by noticing the gap and (3) in output with explicit knowledge coaching practice, particularly in initial stages, with this controlled use of declarative knowledge guiding the proceduralization and eventual automatization of language processing, as it does in the acquisition of other cognitive skills". Also, he mentions that the weak interface hypothesis sparked an interest in some form of explicit instruction which was different from the one used in the traditional grammar translation instruction. Long (1991, as cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2007, p. 12) distinguishes between focus on form (FoF) and focus on forms (FoFs). In focus on forms instruction which was commonly used in the traditional grammar translation method (Ellis, 2007), the linguistic items are presented to the learners in isolation; however, in focus on form instruction, which is advantageous over FoFs instruction, the learners' attention is drawn to the linguistic forms as they arise in activities whose primarily focus is on meaning.

According to the existing literature, there is a positive role for some kind of attention to form by noticing, noticing the gap, and output practice (Ellis, 2007). In addition, Skehan (1996) points out that focus on form helps the learners activate their previous knowledge and subsequently link between declarative knowledge and communicative use of the form structure.

Dekeyser (2005) reports on a number of laboratory studies conducted in order to compare the implicit/explicit learning of the new L2 items. According to him one of these studies was performed by Ellis (1993) on the "soft mutation" of initial consonants in Welsh. Three groups of learners namely a random group, a grammar group and a structured group participated in his study. The first group was exposed to numerous examples of consonant alternations in random order, the second group received explanation of the explicit rules and then the same randomized examples and finally the third group received instruction on the same rules followed by two examples after each rule, and then they were exposed to the same random examples of consonant alternations. He found that although the random group was the fastest one among the other groups, the learners of this group had difficulty generalizing their knowledge to judge new sentences. Similarly, the grammar group had difficulty applying their explicit knowledge of the rules to the well-formedness judgments. Only the third group, which received exposure to the most explicit treatment, outperformed the other two groups.

Dekeyser (2005) also reports on a number of other studies such as the ones conducted by Michas and Berry (1994), Alanen (1995), Dekeyser (1995), Doughty (1991) and Robinson (1996, 1997) which focus on the dichotomy between implicit/explicit instruction. He notes that in all of the mentioned studies the explicit groups outperformed the implicit groups.

According to Nassaji (2000), there is consensus among researchers considering the fact that instruction is effective if it includes attention to form besides meaning-focused activities. He continues saying that much less work has been conducted, however, on how this aim can be achieved pedagogically. In addition to what he says, there is less agreement as to what extent of form-focused instruction is sufficient to draw the learners' attention to form in communicative and content based instruction.

Reviewing the above-mentioned studies and the crucial importance of the form-focused instruction inspired an interest to do a research in order to understand as to what extent of form-focused instruction is beneficial to draw the learners' attention to form. It should be mentioned that the focus of the present study is on adjective clauses and relative pronouns.

An adjective clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun or pronoun. Adjective clauses are subordinate clauses; that is, they can't stay alone and they need to be connected to another independent clause. The purpose of an adjective clause is to identify or give background information on nouns and pronouns. Adjective clauses should appear immediately adjacent to the noun they modify; so, this fact can be considered as a big hint for identifying them. Adjective clauses would begin with a relative pronoun; something like who, whom, whose, that, which or a relative adverb such as when, where and why.

Adjective clauses and relative pronouns are the forms focused in this study since as Rahimpour and Salimi (2010) point out, they are considered as one of the problematic areas of English structure for EFL learners.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The subjects were 90 adult students studying English as a foreign language at an institute in Esfahan, Iran who were between 18-22 on average. The samples were chosen out of 120 students having registered for the course. The participants intended to learn English as quickly as possible considering the fact that they wanted to go abroad to continue their education and they had to participate in the TOEFL test. The chosen participants were homogeneous as far as the adjective clauses were concerned because all of them couldn't answer the questions (10 multiple-choice questions about the adjective clauses) in the pretest administered to them before the study.

2.2. Instrument

A multiple choice test containing 30 items used in this study. The items were selected from the exercises provided by 2 TOEFL preparation books namely the PETERSON's TOEFL Success (2005) written by Ziegler and the NTC's preparation for the TOEFL (1990) written by Broukal and Nolan-Woods .The test was compatible both to the students' goal and their level of proficiency. Also, before administrating the test, the researchers ensured that the students didn't study the books in the past.

The rationale behind using 30 items in this test is that up to 30-35 items the reliability increases sharply. In addition, based on the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the present test which is 0.78, a suitable internal consistency for the test can be proved since according to DeVellis (2003, as cited in Pallant, 2007, P. 95), the ideal value for the Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be above 0.7.

2.3. Procedures

The required data for the present study was gathered during the fall semester, 2012. The participants were randomly divided into 3 groups of 30 students each. By toss of a coin, one group was considered as the random group, another group was considered as the grammar group and the third group was considered as the structured group. The random group received exposure to numerous examples of adjective clauses in random order. The grammar group received explicit explanation of the rules in question, followed by the same randomized

examples. The structured group received explicit rule explanation, followed by two examples after each rule, and then the same random presentation of examples as the other two groups. It should be mentioned that each group received instruction in one session and for 2 hours. Subsequently, on the same session they were administered a test containing 30 multiple-choice questions on adjective clauses. Then, the obtained results were subjected to the required statistical analysis.

3. Results

In order to investigate the effect of the form-focused instruction in the acquisition of the adjective clauses by the Iranian EFL learners, a multiple choice test containing 30 items was administered to the participants who were divided into three groups namely the random group, the grammar group and the structure group based on the type of the instruction they were exposed to. It should be mentioned that before comparing the mean scores of the groups, the obtained data were subjected to the test of normality.

Table 1: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Group	Random group	Grammar group	Structure group
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.53	0.60	0.66

In One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, a sig. value of more than .05 indicates normality. As Table 1 indicates, in this study there is no violation of the assumption of normality of the distribution of scores considering the fact that the sig. values of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for the scores obtained from all the groups of participants are more than .05. Furthermore, the results of the Leven's test revealed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is not violated considering the fact that the Sig. value is .071 which is greater than .05.

Table 2: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Leven's Statistics	df1	Df2	Sig.
2.725	2	87	.071

A one-way between groups Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used as the statistical means of analysis. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the test scores for the three groups: $F (2, 87) = 115.25$, $P < .0005$ (see table 3). *Table 3: ANOVA*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F.	Sig.
Between groups	1027.089	2	513.544	115.259	.000
Within groups	387.633	87	4.456		
Total	1414.722	89			

Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the structured group (M = 26.93, SD = 1.78) was significantly different from the random group (M = 18.70, SD = 2.50) and the grammar group (M = 23.53, SD = 1.97). Moreover, the mean score for the structure group was significantly different from random group (see table 4 & 5).

Table 4: Descriptives

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation
Structure group	26.93	1.78
Grammar group	23.53	1.97
Random group	18.70	2.50

Table 5: Post Hoc Test

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
					95% Confidence Interval	
Structure group	Grammar group	3.400*	.545	.000	2.10	4.70
	Random group	8.233*	.545	.000	6.93	9.53
Grammar group	Structure group	-3.400*	.545	.000	-4.70	-2.10
	Random group	4.833*	.545	.000	3.53	6.13
Random group	Structure group	-8.233*	.545	.000	-9.53	-6.93
	Grammar group	-4.833*	.545	.000	-6.13	-3.53

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study aimed to investigate the amount of the form-focused instruction which is necessary for learners to learn the adjective clauses which are considered as one of the problematic areas of English for second/foreign language learners. The existing literature on the laboratory studies revealed that the groups receiving the most explicit instruction (rules+examples) did the best (Dekeyser, 2005, Michas and Berry 1994, Alanen 1995, Dekeyser 1995, Doughty 1991 and Robinson 1996 & 1997).

The results of the present study showed that the structured group outperformed the other two groups of participants. Also, it was found that the grammar group performed better than the random group.

The findings of the present study are congruent with the findings of the above mentioned studies. Therefore, it can be argued that the significant poor performance of the random group in comparison to other participated groups can be due to their inability to generalize their knowledge to the new sentences. Therefore, the results of the present study show the necessity of form-focused instruction. Moreover, we can imply the fact that there are some abstract patterns in the language that cannot be learned implicitly by the learners.

The results of the present study revealed that the most explicit treatment is the best for enhancing the learners' accuracy in the EFL context. Furthermore, the most important pedagogical implication of the present study is that there is no need for the learners to receive focus on forms (FoFs) instruction, as it was the case in traditional approaches to second language teaching; rather, learners need to attend to the linguistic forms whose overriding focus is on meaning.

This study mainly focuses on the adjective clauses and the type of form-focused instruction which can yield better results. This study has its own limitations as well as other studies. The most important drawback of this study is that it only focuses on the instruction of the adjective clauses, that is, other grammatical points are not taken into consideration by the researchers. Owing to this fact, an enthusiastic reader may conduct a research to examine whether the suggested type of form-focused instruction (rules+examples) yields the similar results as far as other grammatical points are the matter of concern.

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Appendix A

Choose one word or phrase, (A), (B), (C), or (D) to complete the sentence:

1- Alexander Fleming, ………………..received the Nobel Prize in 1945.
(A) who discovered penicillin
(B) which discovered penicillin
(C) he discovered penicillin
(D) that discovered penicillin

2- Hawaii, which is part of a group of islands,………………..active volcanoes.
(A) that has
(B) which has
(C) has
(D) who has

3- Immigrants………………….. after 1880 settled mainly in large cities.
(A) which came to America
(B) they came to America
(C) came to America
(D) who came to America

4- John James Audubon, who was a naturalist and an artist, wrote a great work……………….*called Birds of America.*
(A) which it is
(B) which is
(C) whom is
(D) is

5- Ernest Hemingway, a novelist and short-story writer, developed a prose style………………..
(A) who influenced an entire generation of authors
(B) influenced an entire generation of authors
(C) that influenced an entire generation of authors
(D) has influenced an entire generation of authors

6- In the ear, just above the cochlea, there are three small semi-circular canals………………… as an organ of balance.
    (A) That function together
    (B) Function together
    (C) Are functioning together
    (D) They function together

7- The Egyptians constructed walls and embankments…………………marvels even today.
    (A) they are considered
    (B) which are considered
    (C) are considered
    (D) who are considered

8- Amsterdam, Holland, which is sometimes called the Venice of Northern Europe…………………….
    (A) which has many canals
    (B) it has many canals
    (C) with many canals
    (D) has many canals

9- ……………….., which was purchased from Russia in 1867, is the largest state in the U.S.
    (A) Alaska
    (B) When Alaska
    (C) It is Alaska
    (D) Alaska is that

10- Pearl Buck, who is the only American woman to win a Nobel prize for literature,…………………..for her Novel *The Good Earth.*
    (A) who is best known
    (B) which is best known
    (C) is best known
    (D) best known

11- Fish have nostrils………………..are used for smelling, not for breathing.
    (A) they
    (B) what
    (C) whom
    (D) that

12- Marco polo, …………………….traveled to the Orient with his father and uncle, wrote a book about his travels.
    (A) Which
    (B) Who
    (C) That
    (D) Whom

13- Seafoods………………..higher in sodium than fish from fresh water.
    (A) are
    (B) which are
    (C) that are
    (D) they are

14- In 1850, Yale University established Sheffield scientific school,………………..
    (A) Engineers were educated there
    (B) Where engineers were educated
    (C) In which were engineers educated
    (D) Where were engineers educated

15- In geometry, a tangent is a straight line………………….a curve at only one point.
    (A) It touches
    (B) Whose touching
    (C) Its touching
    (D) That touches

16- Most beans ………………..are a form of kidney bean.

(A) that are cultivated in the United States
(B) their cultivation in the United States
(C) are cultivated in the United States they
(D) they are cultivated in the United States

17- Cable cars are moved by cables…………………underground and are powered by a stationary engine.
(A) they run
(B) that they run
(C) run
(D) that run

18- A keystone species is a species of plants or animals………………absence has a major effect on an ecological system.
(A) that its
(B) its
(C) whose
(D) with its

19- Diamonds are often found in rock formations called pipes, ………………..the throats of extinct volcanoes.
(A) in which they resemble
(B) which resemble
(C) there is a resemblance to
(D) they resemble

20- Earthworms breathe through their skin ………………must be kept moist.
(A) and which
(B) they
(C) which
(D) who

21- Most folk songs are ballads………………have simple words and tell simple stories.
(A) what
(B) although
(C) when
(D) that

22- ……………….., which had been brought to Europe from China in the 15th century, helped seamen to navigate.
(A) The compass
(B) It is the compass
(C) With the compass
(D) That the compass

23- The size and shape of a nail depends primarily on the function………………..intended.
(A) which it is
(B) for which it is
(C) which it is for
(D) for which is

24- Dolphins lack vocal cords but they have a large, oil-filled organ called the "melon",…………………
(A) Which with they can produce a variety of sounds
(B) With which they can produce a variety of sounds
(C) Which they can produce a variety of sounds
(D) That with they can produce a variety of sounds

25- In 1846 Dr William Morton introduced the use of ether as an anesthetic………………..became a great boon to surgery.
(A) so
(B) and
(C) which
(D) who

26- The commercial bottle cork is obtained from the cork oak,………………in the Mediterranean region.
   (A) who grows
   (B) which grows
   (C) Is growing
   (D) Growing
27- The Dark Age in Europe…………………a period which lasted for more than 500 years.
   (A) Was
   (B) That was
   (C) It was
   (D) Which was
28- In addition to being a naturalist, Stewart E. White was a writer………………..the struggle for survival on the American frontier.
   (A) he describes in his novels
   (B) his novels describe
   (C) who, describing in his novels
   (D) whose novels describe
29- There are six types of flamingos, all………………… have long legs, long necks, and beaks that curve sharply downward.
   (A) of them
   (B) that
   (C) of which
   (D) they
30- The instrument panel of a light airplane has at least a dozen instruments……………….
   (A) The pilot must watch
   (B) What the pilot must watch
   (C) That the pilot must watch them
   (D) Such that the pilot must watch them

Appendix B
Answer key

1- A	11- D	21-D
2- C	12-B	22-A
3- D	13-A	23-B
4- B	14-B	24-B
5- C	15-D	25-C
6- A	16-A	26-B
7- B	17-D	27-A
8- D	18-C	28-D
9- A	19-B	29-C
10- C	20-C	30-A

Title

A Glocalized Post-Method Language Curriculum

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Abstract

Parallel to the innovations and advances associated with the third millennium, language curriculum has witnessed certain developments attributable to a number of factors. This paper is an attempt to investigate one of these factors under the title of 'glocalization'. In so doing, the paper initially sheds light on the emergence of the term and continues with a delineation of the premises a glocalized curriculum is supposed to take into account. The paper suggests that implementing a glocalized curriculum requires adopting more active decision-making roles by the language teachers in all the processes of curriculum design, their professional development (through employing action research and incorporating SLA research findings) and a fresh look at the definition of the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus'. In the meantime, it is discussed that the premises of postmodernism and its derivative in TESL, i.e. postmethodism can be traced in what a glocalized curriculum encompasses. The article ends with the implications of such language curriculum for an Iranian context.

1. Introduction

The third millennium is largely associated with substantial advances in almost all aspects of human life: scientific, political, economic, cultural and social. No doubt, educational fashion has been no exception and has followed the same trend in an even higher pace. Education in the third millennium is coupled with notions of globalization, worldwide literacy investments, technological innovations, research-based curriculums and professional growth of the involving staff (Moje, et al., 2000). By the same token, and in a more particular scale, language learning curriculum has been strengthened and, in cases, changed to draw itself alongside the global advances and innovations. While these changes can be attributed to a number of different factors, this article attempts to present a picture of the language curriculum under the influence of one of them, namely, glocalization. In so doing, the article begins by shedding light on the emergence of the notion of glocalization, followed by a delineation of the premises a glocalized curriculum is supposed to take into account. In the meantime, it is discussed how a glocalized curriculum can largely be associated with the parameters of a postmethod pedagogy. The article ends with the implications of such language curriculum for an Iranian context.

2. The Global, the Local and the Hybrid: Glocalization

Every discussion of modern life, with no doubt, incorporates the controversial term of globalization. Globalization, according to Giddens (1990, cited in Block, 2004), is defined as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (p. 75). In language teaching, this has manifested itself in the way English is widely used as the international language or "the shared linguistic code" (Block & Cameron, 2002, p. 1) in international communication to the extent that as Richards (2008) points out "English is no longer viewed as the property of the English-speaking world but is an international commodity sometimes referred to as world Englishes, a deterritorialized English detached from its geographical and cultural origins" (p. 2). Although there is no doubt that we are living in a globalized world, thanks to technological innovations that are in fact "evaporating borders and distances" (Daly, 2009, p. 7), there is little agreement on the various aspects of

the issue. In fact, as Sifakis and Sougari (2003) maintain, "there seem to be different interpretations, or versions, or realizations of it, depending on the observer" (p. 60). According to Block (2004), while some see globalization phenomenon as "a done deal" others view it as "a work in progress" while some see it "as both progress and progressive, benign and good", others see it as "the steamroller of late modernity taking away all that is authentic and meaningful in our lives" and finally while some see it as "hegemonically Western" or "an extension of American imperialism", others see the process as more "egalitarian" (p. 75). While the advantages of globalization were primarily acknowledged by many, the so-called problems it could cause have given rise to lively debates over its legitimacy.

Perhaps the view that has gained much attention and debate over the last decades is the one which considers globalization synonymous with "westernization", "McDonalidization" or "Europeanisation" (Sifakis & Sougari, 2003) and which is accused of practicing a western hidden curriculum imposing "sets of social and cultural values which are inherent in their make-up" (Hurst, 2007). Rogers (1982) maintains that one of the ethical issues of the ELT industry is the cultural imposition of non-neutral values by ELT professionals in host countries. By the same token, Vongalis-Macrow (2005) believes that "this phenomena is particularly important to education because it impacts on how a national system, such as education, can be governed by supranational bodies rather than remaining a national concern" (p. 2).

While debate over the merits and demerits of globalization and the extent it should be regarded as a homogenizing process continue to the third millennium, the advent of more individualistic and learner-centered approaches to learning, and the post-method rejection of the belief in one-size-fits-all method, has given rise to the need to localize the teaching materials in order to better suit the particular language needs and wants of each specific context. Localizing, as is conceptualized by McDonough and Shaw (2003), takes into account the international geography of English language teaching and recognition that what may work in one particular setting may not necessarily do so in another context. Perhaps, it has been due to the same clash between globalization and localization in modern life that the reconciling neologism of "glocalization" has been introduced to the literature to advocate the slogan "think globally, act locally". According to Weber (2009, cited in Gurko, 2011), glocalization is "a mix of global frameworks and local practices, and which greatly increases the potential for independent learning by merging worldwide knowledge and local knowledge" (p. 132). Yet, Moss (2008) believes that glocalization does not represent the

intermediate or transitional idea or period between the local and the global level but rather as the use of global standards to describe the goals and consequently make local plans to achieve the global standards. Khondker (2004, p. 3) refers to the following points as the main premises of glocalization:

1. Diversity is the essence of social life;

2. Globalization does not erase all differences;

3. Autonomy of history and culture give a sense of uniqueness to the experiences of groups of people whether we define them as cultures, societies or nations;

4. Glocalization is the notion that removes the fear from many that globalization is like a tidal wave erasing all the differences.

5. Glocalization does not promise a world free from conflicts and tensions but a more historically grounded understanding of the complicated – yet, pragmatic view of the world.

As far as language curriculum development is concerned, Daly (2009) believes that:

In this post-methods age, non-native speaker teachers are in the best position to act as mediators in the EFL profession to combine local knowledge and teaching strategies with CLT or other principles from SLA or Applied Linguistics. In this way, a more systematic (and hopefully less teacher-responsible) approach to FL teaching for exam-oriented contexts can be devised to better prepare EFL students for the needs of a globalized world. (p. 14).

Further, Daly (2009) refers to this glocalizing activity as "a post-methods principled pragmatics", which is currently "cautious, tentative and hazy" and which "places a terrific burden on teachers" (p. 15). Hence, glocalizing is not an easy straightforward path to take and some requirements must be met to pave the way toward achieving it. Moreover, as it can be inferred from the discussions on glocalization movement, this phenomenon is greatly affected by the basic tenets of postmodernism and postmethodism or can be well suited in the framework they have offered to the language teaching practice. As it is widely known, postmethod pedagogy (introduced by Kumaravadivelu, 1994), which has borrowed its fundamentals from the postmodern movement in the 1990s, advocates parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility and as it will be discussed further these three parameters can be easily traced in what the authors think some of the necessities and requirements for a glocalized language curriculum are.

2.1. Teachers Adopting New Roles

In a glocalized language curriculum, as it has already been pointed out, teachers play a crucial role in fulfilling the curriculum goals and objectives. Thus, the first step in glocalizing the curriculum would be assigning the role of 'active decision maker' to the teachers and this best reflects itself when teachers adopt roles other than mere consumer of the materials (Nunan, 1988) or simple providers of the materials (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Rather, they attempt the role of the developers of the materials who move away from what Graves (2008) calls 'the traditional center-to-periphery model' and Johnson (1989) calls 'the specialist approach' in which teachers had no role in the planning stages and the specialists determined the process, planned the syllabus and developed the materials that the teachers were then supposed to use in their classrooms. Glocalizing teachers in this new role, "only need a little training [better to say 'education'], experience and support to become material writers who can produce imaginative materials of relevance and appeal to their learners" (Tomlinson, 2003c, p. 4). Perhaps, we can say that teachers are the best choice for achieving the goal of glocalizing because ultimately "it is the language teacher who must validate or refute the materials which are developed for the language classroom" (Tomlinson, 2003d, p. x) and s/he can act as the best informant who is in close touch with the needs, wants and lacks of his/her students and the particularities of his/her context. This fact is in close relationship with the parameter of particularity in post-methods condition and the hermeneutic perspective of 'situational understanding' which claims that "a meaningful pedagogy cannot be constructed without a holistic interpretation of particular situations and that it cannot be improved without a general improvement of those particular situations" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 171).

Various frameworks and techniques have been proposed to encourage the teachers to develop their own materials and adopt more influential roles in designing and implementing curricula, some of which include a text-driven approach suggested by Tomlinson (2003b) and a systems approach to course design proposed by Graves (2000).

2.2. Professional Development

As it was mentioned before, glocalization includes the use of global standards to describe the goals and consequently making local plans to achieve the global standards. But before developing the ability to get involved in all stages of curriculum design can serve the teachers as a way to achieve their local plans, they need to familiarize themselves with the global standards in order to set their goals; yet, this cannot be summarized in training courses and needs to be in the form of an ongoing process which needs to be constantly updated and fortified. Perhaps the term 'professional development' can best encompass these goals.

According to Richards and Farrel (2005), teacher development "serves a longer-term goal [than teacher training] and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers" (p. 4). They also refer to some examples of goals from a development perspective, which are as follows (ibid):

- Understanding how the process of second language development occurs
- Understanding how our roles change according to the kind of learners we are teaching
- Understanding the kinds of decision making that occur during lessons
- Reviewing our own theories and principles of language teaching
- Developing an understanding of different styles of teaching
- Determining learners' perceptions of classroom activities

Yet, as Richards and Farrell (2005) declare not all this can be achieved through self-observation and critical reflection and learning about subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise, and understanding of curriculum and materials requires an attempt beyond personal reflection and includes "exploration of new trends and theories in language teaching; familiarization with developments in subject-matter knowledge such as pedagogical grammar, composition theory, or genre theory; and critical examination of the way schools and language programs are organized and managed" (p. 4). Perhaps part of this knowledge can be effectively acquired in two ways which are described in what follows.

2.2.1 Incorporating SLA Research Findings

Although researchers such as Lightbown (1985, 2000) were cautious about what SLA could offer language teachers for their practice in the classroom, some scholars such as Cook (1997, 1998), Ellis (2010) and Tomlinson (1998) refer to a number of ways SLA research can inform language teaching and materials development. For instance, Ellis (2010) refers to how research findings about the design of tasks can help teachers choose the best types of task as the teaching material. So the glocalizer teacher can make use of this kind of knowledge and the knowledge s/he has of his/her local context to arrive at the most appropriate task type to be used in the context where s/he is teaching. In this regard, Richards (2006) asserts:

> Second language learning theory has been a ripe field for speculation in the last 20 or so years, and consequently the [materials] writer has a rich source of theories to draw from in deciding on a learning model to adopt. The changing state of theory and understanding in relation to language and language use is responsible for paradigm shifts in language teaching and for the ongoing need to review what our assumptions are and sometimes to rethink how we go about developing materials. (p. 8)

Thus, if we accept that teacher professional development is a required asset for glocalizers, just as Richards (2006) maintains, we need to make the connection between the activities involved in developing instructional materials and those working in second language research and the more theoretical areas of applied linguistics.

2.2.2. Action Research

Another effective and empowering tool to reach professional development is conducting action research (AR) (Nunan, 2001). Burns (1999) argues that professional development activities such as action research that are "integrated into school or organizational change become a powerful way of facilitating school curriculum renewal and ensuring that language teachers retain greater ownership of curriculum implementation" (p. 11). Among the benefits of educational AR identified by Kemmis and McTaggart (1982, cited in Burns, 2005) are that teachers develop skills in:

- thinking systematically about what happens in the school or classroom
- implementing action where improvements are thought to be possible
- monitoring and evaluating the effects of the action with a view to continuing the improvement
- monitoring complex situations critically and practically
- implementing a flexible approach to school or classroom
- making improvements through action and reflection
- researching the real, complex and often confusing circumstances and constraints of the modern school
- recognizing and translating evolving ideas into action

Thus, if we wish to have critical glocalizing language teachers, who are capable of identifying and resolving the problems they face in their local contexts in order to move toward their global goals, action research is a road worth taking.

Considering the above-mentioned discussion, it is not hard to find the traces of the second parameter of postmethod ideology, namely, practicality. The idea that knowledge is derived from practice, and practice informed by knowledge shifts the postmethod pedagogy to a paradigm of praxis in which teachers are no longer consumers of knowledge produced by theorists, but they need to act upon the conditions they face in order to change them. A *theory of practice* is conceived when there is a union of action and thought, or more precisely, when there is action in thought and thought in action. The parameter of practicality, then, focuses

on teachers' reflection and action, which are also based on their insights and intuition (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2003b).

2.3. A Fresh Look at the Definition of Curriculum: Curriculum Enactment

A glocalized curriculum does not really go with the traditional, though apparently dominant, view of curriculum known as the 'specialist approach'. In this hierarchical approach, according to Johnson (1989), a curriculum is a plan for *what* is to be taught and teachers, through instruction, implement the plan. This curriculum, in fact, encompasses four main domains: curriculum planning, specification of ends and means, program implementation and classroom implementation. In the first three domains there are specialists responsible for decision-making and for producing curriculum products. In the last domain, i.e., classroom implementation, teachers and learners, through their actions, implement the received curriculum. These four domains can also be viewed as stages that follow each other in a linear fashion. In this approach, as Graves (2008) maintains, "policy gives direction to a curriculum, but also sets parameters that limit it; a syllabus and materials may organize and facilitate a curriculum, but they also constrain classroom practice." (p. 149). Yet, certain problems have been identified with this type of curriculum two of which are described by Johnson (1998) and Graves (2008) as follows:

a. The potential for lack of alignment between each stage and a resulting lack of coherence in the curriculum because each different group of people performs different curricular functions, uses different discourses, and produces different curricular products.

b. By putting the classroom at the end of the chain of decisions, the specialist approach positions teachers – and learners – as recipients and implementers of received wisdom, rather than decision-makers in their own right. The curriculum as it is implemented appears to have little relation to the one planned.

As a result, Graves (2008) proposes a new definition of curriculum under the term 'curriculum enactment'. In this view, the three core processes of curriculum, i.e., planning, implementing and evaluating are retained, the only difference is that the implementation phase is replaced with enactment. In this view of curriculum:

> …enactment – the teaching and learning processes that happen in the classroom – is at the heart of education. Planning and evaluating are both directed at the classroom and are closely allied with it. The three processes that make up curriculum are

embedded in social and educational contexts that determine their purpose and scope. (p. 152)

Graves (2008) is of the idea that without enactment, there is no curriculum. In other words, no curriculum can exist *before* enactment. In this approach, all the stages are interconnected and dynamic rather than sequential. That is, they move back and forth to inform and influence each other. Moreover, these processes are "embedded in specific social and educational contexts and are carried out by people in those contexts. The enacted curriculum is always LOCAL. Finally, and centrally, teachers, as the orchestrators of enactment, are crucial to a successful curriculum" (pp 152-153).

In short, in curriculum enactment, as Graves (2008) presents it, context plays a major role and enactment happens in relation to it; yet, the context is not limited to the classroom, as an isolated environment. Rather, it is embedded in specific, complex and overlapping cultural, social, educational and political contexts, generally known as socioeducational contexts. In a glocalized curriculum, contexts are scrutinized for their particularities and localities in order to respect and embrace the teachers' and learners' differences and to prepare them to be welcomed in an international setting. No doubt, these particularities are to a great extent concerned with the learners' experiences. As a result, this idea can be associated with the third parameter in postmethod pedagogy, i.e., possibility. According to Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2006), the experiences participants bring to the pedagogical setting are shaped, not just by what they experience in the classroom, but also by a broader social, economic, and political environment in which they grow up. These experiences have the potential to alter classroom aims and activities in ways unintended and unexpected by policy planners or curriculum designers or textbook producers. The parameter of possibility is also involves discussions of language ideology and learner identity (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

2.4. A Fresh Look at the Notion of Syllabus: Post-syllabus

In general and according to Graves (2008), "just as syllabus types at one time replaced methods as a way of framing language teaching and learning, we are in what might be called a post-syllabus phase" (p. 161). Although planners and/or practitioners make use of different types of syllabi, "the complexity of learning languages in classrooms is such that no one approach can be fully responsive to learners' needs. The challenge is how to identify an organizational structure as a basis for making principled decisions about what and how to teach" (ibid, p. 163). Yet, as Snow and Kamhi-Stein (2006, cited in Graves, 2008, p. 163) maintain:

This is not a simple or a clean task because it requires synthesizing the massive amounts of information gathered through needs assessments, meetings with program administrators and colleagues, review of policy documents and other activities. At the same time, in identifying the organizational structure of the course, course developers have to take into account logistical constraints, the expectations of the educational system in which the course will be offered, explicit and implicit teaching policies, the course developers' own beliefs about teaching and learning, and their degree of professional experience.

Thus, it can be inferred that in a glocalized curriculum, given the complexities and intricacies that layers of context carry with them, there can be no notion of 'the best syllabus type, just the way there can be no 'best method'. Rather, depending on the idiosyncrasies of each specific context and considering the teachers and learners' agency as active decision-makers and facilitators in the language enactment, a selective and eclectic approach may prove appropriate, though this is by no means an easy undertaking.

3. Final Remarks: Implications for the Iranian Context

In this paper, glocalization was assumed as one of the features of language curriculum in the new millennium and it was discussed how the features of a glocalized curriculum can be related to the tenets of the postmethod pedagogy. In a glocalized curriculum, parallel to what the postmethod pedagogy advocates, the particularities of the context are largely highlighted and the roles of the language teachers as the mediator or facilitator are accentuated in the glocalizing activity. This can have beneficial implications for an Iranian context where an amalgamation of global standards and local considerations does not seem to be fully taken into account. While the Iranian language curriculum setting can be considered as a *target language-removed context* (Graves, 2008), where language is a subject in itself and purposes for learning a language can be as varied as passing the entrance exam to taking an International language test, or mastering the ability to communicate in the global community, a glocalized view of the curriculum is more likely to be constructive and beneficial.

Yet, curriculum reform is unlikely to happen unless we start to implement the required changes at the very basic levels. In the researchers' context, this can be applicable to junior high school courses where most of the Iranian students challenge English language learning for the first time. Given the exam-oriented educational system in our society, students rarely feel the necessity to develop their language knowledge beyond English vocabulary and

grammar. And when these students participate in higher levels of education, their lack of communicative competence, be it written or oral, reflects itself in the students' alienation from the global educational community and in some cases their inability to adjust themselves with requirements of post-graduate education. Hence, as it is argued in this paper, a glocalized view of language curriculum can help to reconcile the local requirements with the more global perspectives. Yet, this cannot be achieved unless we take role of the English language teachers and their professional development more seriously with making investments to better prepare these highly-contributing agents for the challenging journey they are to embark on.

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Title

Mobile vs Teacher Assisted Language Learning

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Abstract

The incorporation of technology, as an important instructional instrument, is believed to enhance and speed up Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL).Although some studies confirm the effectiveness of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) throughout the world, few experimental studies have been carried out in the Iranian EFL context in this regard. In fact, mobile phones are banned in the classroom. This study was an attempt to substantiate the effectiveness of MALL by assessing its impact on learners' vocabulary retention. Quasi-experimental design was used to study 32 female and 22 male Iranian undergraduate students at the University of Bojnord (UB). Two classes of non-English major students were assigned different tasks from a collection of 30 episodes of The Flatmates from the BBC's learning English website. Scores of the test were collected before and after the treatment. The reliability of the test was estimated at 0.75 through KR-21 formula. An independent samples t-test was used to compare the possible differences between the means of the two groups. The findings of the study confirmed the effectiveness of MALL vs Teacher Assisted Language Learning (TALL).

Keywords: Mobile Assisted Language Learning, EFL/ESL Teaching, Instructional Technology

1. Introduction

Technology has always been an integral part of language learning and teaching (Warschaur and Meskill, 2000). For example, blackboard was the earliest type of technology which was used in the grammar translation method era. Later on, overhead projectors and computer programs were used for provision of mechanical drilling in the audio lingual method era during the 1970s. The adoption of this method led to a large focus on language laboratories (Salaberry 2001).The drill-based computer assisted language laboratories which were fashionable in the 1960s, were replaced by Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the 1990s. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, cognitive and sociolinguistic approaches emerged due to the incapability of the audio lingual method in addressing communicative aspects of language use. These approaches which focused on student engagement with authentic, meaningful, and contextualized discourse led to a complete shift in the use of technology in the classrooms. The use of technology in education has recently received considerable attention. Similarly, the use of cell phones to increase effectiveness of instruction has been acknowledged by some studies (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010).

Mobile devices are now commonplace and ubiquitous tools carried by people from all walks of life in a wide array of settings including EFL teaching and learning. Since inception, their dimensions have waned while their abilities have waxed. Their common features including Internet access, voice-messaging, SMS text-messaging, cameras, and video-recording enable communicative language practice, access to authentic content, and task completion (Chinnery, 2006). Their ubiquitous availability has changed EFL teaching methods and learning strategies (Abdous, Camarena, & Facer, 2009).

Nowadays it is quite common to observe students on campus texting, watching or listening via cell phones. Since these handy devices as a fundamental part of daily lives are becoming cheaper and more convenient, this study is going to investigate their pedagogical function in EFL instruction. According to Geddes (2004), they provide EFL learners and teachers with an opportunity to practice the language wherever and whenever they like. Vavoula (2005, p. 11) defines mobile learning as "any sort of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed predetermined location, or learning that happens when the learner takes advantage of the learning opportunity offered by mobile technologies." In this study, MALL refers to the learning opportunity offered by students' mobile phones in the classroom.

MALL is a burgeoning area in the field of e-learning which has recently received considerable attention (Stockwell & Sotillo, 2011) and significantly transformed language education (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009).Based on Stockwell (2008)'s prediction, mobile learning will prevail in the next generation. According to Cook, Holley, and Andrew (2007), students are attracted to innovative technology regardless of its effectiveness because they feel their teachers are attempting something novel.

There is growing evidence that mobile devices are affecting the way people learn by dint of their ubiquity (Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme, 2007), and that they can be very effective in the classroom if the focus is on small group collaborative learning (Valdivia & Nussbaum, 2007; Zurita & Nussbaum, 2004).According to Benson (2001), learner autonomy is also a significant part of learning a foreign language in which learners take charge of their own learning independently and a technology-based approach is a way of fostering it. There is growing evidence that learners use mobile devices to support some aspects of their learning irrespective of their teachers' direction or guidance (Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme, 2007).

Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) point out that MALL is different from computer-assisted language learning (CALL) where MALL belongs more to learners while CALL belongs more to teachers. According to Kukulska-Hulme (2009), many of the published studies within MALL so far are based on teacher-led approaches but this trend is beginning to change. Song and Fox (2008), for example, studied advanced EFL learners to see how they built their vocabulary knowledge in learner-led and self-directed ways. The result showed that the cellphone helped them share and exchange information about word meanings with each other and their teachers. Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam (2010) used mobile phones to boost the grammatical accuracy of Iranian EFL students. The subjects in the experimental group were required to elicit the given grammatical items and record their voice on their mobile phones in the classroom. And as their homework assignments, they analyzed their spoken mistakes and commented on them in the subsequent session. The results confirmed the effectiveness of using mobile phones in increasing grammatical ability of students.

According to Brown (2001), the Stanford Learning Lab developed the first program using cellphones in language learning and explored that they were effective for small chunk quiz delivery. Thornton and Houser (2005; 2003; 2002) also utilized cellphones to instruct English vocabulary by SMS at a Japanese university. The results showed that the SMS students' scores almost doubled in comparison to the students who had received their lessons on paper. The measurement of the SMS students' attitudes indicated that most of them regarded the SMS instruction as a valuable teaching method and wanted to continue such

lessons. Furthermore, Kiernan and Aizawa (2004) studied and explored the effectiveness of cellphones in task-based language learning. They contended that tasks requiring learners to bridge some sort of gap and focus their attention on meaning improve language learning.

In spite of their benefits in language learning, cellphones have also some potential drawbacks which have posed challenges including their reduced screen sizes, limited power and message length, poor audiovisual quality, and limited availability for some students due to cost of call and ownership. Salaberry (2001) argues that technology-driven pedagogy has hardly offered the same benefits as traditional language teaching. Beatty (2003) also warns that "teachers need to be concerned about investing time and money in unproven technology" (p. 72).

The MALL research focus has been on evaluating students' attitudes (Stockwell, 2010, 2007), improving grammatical accuracy (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010), speech fluency (Kessler, 2010), and learning vocabulary (Thornton & Houser, 2005) in recent years. However, this study was an attempt to assess a new dimension of the utility of mobile phones in improving Iranian non-English major students' vocabulary achievement through helping them foster their autonomy. The main purpose of carrying out this study was to hypothesize the impact of MALL on EFL vocabulary learning.

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

Since random assignment was not possible, the nonequivalent group, pretest-posttest design was employed in this study. That is, the subjects were tested in existing groups. The following diagram summarizes the quasi-experimental design in which the dotted line represents non-equivalent groups. Both groups are measured before and after the treatment. Only one group receives the treatment. In this diagram GA and GB stand for experimental and control groups respectively. T1 and T3 stand for the tests before applying the treatment. T2 and T4 stand for the tests after the treatment and X stands for treatment.

GA   T1   X   T2

GB   T3   T4
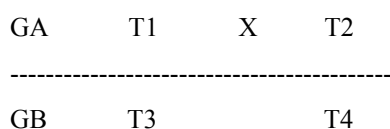
The research question and the corresponding hypothesis in this study are as follows:

Does the MALL approach have a positive effect on promoting EFL vocabulary learning?

Ho: The MALL approach has no positive effect on promoting EFL vocabulary learning.

2.2. Subjects

Originally 54Iranian undergraduate EFL students participated in this study. One of them dropped the experiment. Of the 53remaining subjects, 31were female and 22 were male. All of them were non-English major students at the UB. They all spoke Persian as their first language. They all had studied English for 7 years at secondary school. Two intact classes of first-semester students from different fields of study, who had taken the general English course, were used for the experiment. There were 24 students in GA and29 in GB. GA was randomly chosen and considered as the experimental group and GB as control group. A pre-test was administered to capture the initial differences between the two groups before starting the treatment. Since the general English course is compulsory, there was no attrition of the 53subjects during the treatment and for the post-test. However, nine students were absent for one or two sessions from both groups during the experiment. The small number of students in each created a positive, collaborative, and supportive classroom climate. It was easy for the researcher to find the time to actively involve all the subjects.

2.3. Instruments

A collection of 30 episodes of The Flatmates from the BBC's learning English website dealing with daily events in the lives of the same group of characters was used for the treatment. The subjects followed the adventures of the main characters in different real life situations to improve their English. The Flatmates is a conversational listening and speaking series for learners of English at the intermediate and advanced levels. Audio support materials provided the students with the tools needed to improve their real-life English. Its step-by-step approach allowed the learners to develop both speaking and listening skills by focusing on common communication situations. Organized around a variety of themes, the series built confidence through conversations based on everyday situations.

A 30-item achievement pre-test was developed by the researcher. The subjects were provided with 20 words to answer the first 20 items by filling in the blanks. They were required to fill in the blanks of 10 additional items in the second part using their own knowledge. The pre-test was administered to capture the initial differences between the two groups before commencing the main study. Since the time interval between the pre-test and post-test was long enough (about five weeks), the same pre-test, with some changes in its arrangement, was administered to the subjects as the post-test. As to the pilot test, a class similar to those in this study responded to the items and helped the researcher establish the reliability of the test, which was estimated 0.75 through KR-21 formula.

2.4.Procedure

This experiment was conducted at the UB, in Iran. It was implemented in three phases: pre-test, treatment, and post-test. The independent variable was the impact of MALL and the dependent variable was undergraduate students' EFL vocabulary learning. After administering the pre-test to capture the initial differences between the two groups in the first session, the experiment was carried out in eight sessions. Each group attended the class for a period of one and a half hours. The subjects were not informed of the experiment because the prior knowledge could influence the results. The subjects in the experimental group (EG) were told that mobile phones would be allowed in the classroom only for the dictionary use. They had already been told to install the monolingual Advance Learner's Dictionary (ALD) and bilingual Persian Mobile Dictionary (PMD) on their phones. During the study, a few students used their tablets instead of mobile phones which attracted the attention of other students. The teacher (researcher) would just help the students how to use the dictionaries correctly during the group work period in the classroom. Since less proficient students required more support, the researcher made them aware of the fact that over-reliance on the teacher's assistance would be a hindrance to their learning.

The subjects in the control group (CG) were not allowed to use mobile phones in the classroom. They were allowed to use any pocket dictionaries they liked or to ask for the teacher's help. The teacher helped them by providing plenty of demonstrations, explanations, examples, and Persian meanings as a last resort. They were expected to deduce the meaning from the context by the teacher's help. The subjects in both groups had to do pair or group work so that they could have a chance to discuss, test and compare their ideas. Thirty episodes were taught to the two groups. The TALL policy was used with the CG and the MALL policy with the EG. One week after the last session, the participants sat for the post-test. The treatment is described below.

After the pretest was administered to each group on the first day, the training session was held from April6to May13, 2013. Each of the one and a half hour classes met one day a week. Since it was a three-unit course, one extra session was held every other week except for holidays. The researcher began each session by reading each episode aloud. He tried to create a comfortable and inviting atmosphere by keeping eye contact with the subjects and asking them questions. Then, the students listened to the audio clip version of the episode, without any discussion, which allowed them to become completely absorbed in it. They listened far more intently when it was read by the researcher himself. The subjects worked collaboratively to complete their tasks (reading and understanding the episodes).

Six elements of cooperative learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1999; 1995; 1989) were taken into account in this study. Positive interdependence is the first element. Here a score for one learner is associated with scores for the other learners. Equal participation, the second element, means that no learner is allowed to socially or academically dominate a group. Individual accountability is the third element. This means the member is held accountable by the group for his or her contribution, participation, and learning. Simultaneous interaction is the fourth element; group members meet face to face to complete their assignments and improve each other's success. Interpersonal skill is the fifth element in which learners have to engage in teamwork to achieve mutual goals. Group processing is the last element. This explains what actions need to be continued or changed.

After listening to the audio clip version of each episode, the subjects had a few minutes to get prepared. They were expected to remember all the details. After discussing the episodes in their group, they had the opportunity to act them out in front of the class while their classmates were just listening. The researcher used hints to help the subjects act out each episode. Their group members were allowed to help them if needed, but they had already been asked to give them enough time to think on their own before helping. They received feedback in the form of appreciations and suggestions. The only difference between the two groups was whether to use the TALL or MALL initiative. In the EG class, mobile phones were allowed and encouraged while in the CG class they were completely banned at any cost. The teacher urged students to use mobile phone dictionaries to help them understand things when they were not clear in the EG class. The Mall approach was enforced in the EG class and the TALL approach in the CG class as strictly as possible. Although it was difficult to rigidly enforce the rule, the students were encouraged to observe it. They were told that it was in their best interest.

To see the statistical effect of the treatment, the same 30-item test was administered to both groups as the post-test one week after the last session. The pre-test and post-test were identical, but the arrangement of the items was different in the post-test. Since there was an interval of almost five weeks between the two tests, the post-test was unlikely to be influenced by the subjects' memory.

3. Statistical Analysis and Results

To answer the research question(Does the MALL approach have a positive effect on promoting EFL vocabulary learning?), the raw scores taken from the pre-test and post-test

were submitted to the computer software Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS version 18), using a t-test. Independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the possible differences between the means of the two groups based on the gain scores from the post-test. The calculation indicated that the MALL approach had a significant effect on promoting EFL vocabulary learning.

The following tables indicate the summary of the t-tests.

Table 1. The Independent Samples t-test for the experimental and control groups (pre-test)

Group	N	Mean	StdDevdftSig.
Experimental	248.702.19 51		0.280.77
Control298.551.80			

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the two groups before the treatment. First, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was checked. If the Levene's Test is significant (p. < .05), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant (p. > .05), the two variances are approximately equal. In this case, since the Levene's test was not significant (p. = 0.33>0.05), it was assumed that the variances were approximately equal. Next, the results of the t-test were checked. If the variances are approximately equal, the top line is read. If the variances are not equal, the bottom line is read. Based on the results of the Levene's test, it was known that the two groups had approximately equal variances on the dependent variable, so the top line was read.

As indicated in Table 1, there was no significant difference between the EG*(M =8.70, SD = 2.19)* and the CG*[M = 8.55, SD = 1.80; t (0.28) = 0.77, p. > .05]* before the treatment.

Table 2. The Independent Samples t-test for the experimental and control groups (post-test)

Group	N	Mean StdDevdftSig.	
Experimental	2423.413.85	37.84	6.050.000*
Control	2917.892.48		

*Sig. p < .05

The second independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the two groups after the treatment (post-test). First, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was checked. Since the Levene's test was significant (p. = 0.015< .05), it was assumed that the variances were not equal. Next, the results of the t-test were checked. Based on the results of the Levene's test, it was known that the two groups did not have equal variances on the dependent variable, so the bottom line was read.

As indicated in Table 2, there is a significant difference between the gain scores for the EG (*M* = 23.41, *SD* = 3.85) and the gain scores for the CG [*M* = 17.89, *SD* = 2.48; *t* (6.05) =

0.000, *p< .05*].This final result shows that the mean score of the EG after the treatment is more than the CG.Since there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups, the null hypothesis (the MALL approach has a positive effect on promoting EFL vocabulary learning)is rejected. Therefore, the effectiveness ofusing mobile phonesis supported.

4. Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to explore the potential application of MALL for undergraduate non-English major students in the Iranian EFL context. The subjects used mobile phone monolingual and bilingual dictionaries to learn English in a collaborative environment. In the study two second-semester university classes were compared. The Mall approach was used in one class and the TALL approach in the other. The two classes were similar in many respects. The students showed a significantly higher improvement in the EG class where the Mall approach was utilized. Due to the small number of students in each class, it was easy to find the time to actively involve the subjects and create a positive, collaborative, and supportive classroom climate. The main limitation was comparing the improvement of classes based on the reliance on test scores which are not always the best indicators of learning. However, primary data were collected by conducting a pre-test, treatment, and a post-test. The result of the independent samples t-test analysis from the post-test administration indicated that the EG had a better performance (a higher test score) than the CG. That is, the participants who had benefited from the MALL approach had a significantly better performance on a fill-in the blanks vocabulary posttest than the participants in the control group. The findings of this study confirm the effectiveness of using mobile phones in the EFL classroom which are in line with the previous studies (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010; Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme, 2007; Valdivia & Nussbaum, 2007; Zurita & Nussbaum, 2004; Kiernan and Aizawa, 2004). Since this seems to have facilitated the process of EFL vocabulary learning, it is suggested that this approach be used to reinforce EFL students' performance. This finding entails an important implication for those (Beatty 2003; Salaberry, 2001) who warn that the use of mobile technology may be detrimental to the students' learning. That is, its judicious use will encourage students to be self-reliant learners. During the study, a few students used their tablets instead of mobile phones which attracted the attention of other students. As tablet computers as the latest

mobile inventions are gaining more attention from language learners and educators, more research on their use as a language learning tool is in order.

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Title

Investigating the Relation between Topic-hood with Definiteness, Subject-hood, and Prosodic Prominence

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Abstract

Topic as one of the main concepts of theory of information structure is represented by rather different linguistic tools in different languages. In present approach, topic is defined based on the pragmatic relation which it plays in a proposition. Accordingly, topic is an entity in a proposition which we talking about (Lambrecht, 1994, 118). In the present study, two goals are to be followed as far as topic is concerned: first, the linguistic representation of topic is to be investigated in English and Persian. Second, the relationship between topic-hood with definiteness, subject-hood and prosodic prominence is also investigated. To fulfill these goals, a corpus of data including more than 1000 noun phrases and 500 sentences were analyzed contrastively in English and Persian. The results revealed that English and Persian

have their own different preferred topic expressions (first goal). As for the second goal, the employed X^2 showed there is a meaningful relation between topic-hood with the three investigated variables. Furthermore, Z-test showed that this factor (topic-hood) has almost the same effect in both contrasted languages as far as subject-hood (syntax) and prosody (stress) is concerned. However, this effect has been reported to result in the use of rather different morphological forms (definiteness) in the two languages.

Key terms: Information structure, topic, referent, linguistic representation, definiteness, subject-hood, prosody

1. Introduction

What is meant by topic, here, is sentence topic not discourse topic. The concept of topic to be dealt with is based on Lambrecht (1994) which is different from Prague concept of topic. In Prague school, topic is taken to be the initial element of a sentence. In this approach, topic may or may not be the initial element in a sentence. According to Lambercht (1994) the initial element can be both topical or non-topical according to information distribution and discourse function of the mental referents. According to present approach, topic is what we are talking about in a sentence (Lambrecht, 1994, 118). This definition is based on "about-ness" relationship. There is an entity in a proposition which is the main concern of the sentence. This entity is topic. Another point worth mentioning is the difference between topic and sentence subject. Although, there is a high correlation between topic and subject, they are not equal. Topics are not necessarily subject (Example 3-b) and subjects are not necessarily topic (example 2-b). In the present study, topic is a pragmatic relation between the mental referents in a proposition. The proposition is usually about one (or more than one) of these referents. The "about-ness" relation between a referent and the proposition in which it has been used is determined in the discourse context (text). A sentence such as "the students went to the school" contains a proposition which can be both interpreted as having or not having "about-ness" relation. To understand the meaning of this sentence, we must be able to understand whether there is or there is not "about-ness" relation in this sentence. To understand this relation two examples are provided.

1) a: where are the students?

b: the students went to the school.

In b "the students" is the topic, simply because the expressed proposition in b is about "the students". Based on Halliday (2004), *the students* in b is theme. Lambrecht (1994, 223)

names this sentence as predicate focus structure. The thematic structure (Halliday) and the information structure (Lambrecht) of this sentence is presented in the following.

Figure (1) thematic structure and information structure of 1-b (unmarked case)

Sentence	Students	went to the school
Thematic structure	Theme	Rheme
Information structure	Topic (given information)	Focus (new information)

This is the unmarked situation in which the thematic structure and information structure are matched. However, topic may not be theme, in the following mini- discourse,

(2) a: Who went to the school?

   b: the students went to the school.

In b, although *the students* is theme, it's not topic. The expressed proposition of this sentence is not about *the students*. *The students* is non-topical (focal) which contains new information. Lambrecht (1994, 236) calls such a proposition as argument focus structure. The thematic and information structure of this sentence is presented in figure (2).

Figure (2) thematic structure and information structure of 2-b (marked case)

Sentence	Students	went to the school
Thematic structure	Theme	Rheme
Information structure	Focus (new information	Predicate (given information)

In the above examples, topics are represented by NPs which are technically called as arguments in the argument structure of a sentence. Dick (1998, 115 as quoted in Lambrecht, 1994) believes that topics must be argument, not adjunct. He calls those topics which are not a part of argument structure as a theme. In the present study both (arguments and adjuncts) can be topic, provided that the "about-ness" relation is present. As stated earlier, subjects are not necessarily topic and the other way round. The following example clears the issue:

(3) a. Pat said she was called twice.

   b. Pat said they called *her* twice.

These two sentences an almost synonymous. Both contain propositions about *Pat*. The object pronoun *her* and the subject pronoun *she* are both topic, although *her* is not matched with subject position. In a sentence, in addition to the primary topic, there may be another topic which is called secondary topic. In the following mini- discourse is taken from Lambrecht (1994, p. 148),

(4) a. Whatever become of John?

   b. *He* married Rosa, but he didn't really love *her*.

In b, *he* is topic expression, because the expressed proposition is about it. Now, we know more about John (he). Meanwhile, *her* can also be a topic expression. Although (b) is mainly about John (primary topic), it is also about Rosa (secondary topic). Our knowledge of Rosa is

also increased after hearing (b). In this study, both primary and secondary topic and the way they are represented in English and Persian are dealt with. According to Lambercht (1994, 223) the grammatical devices used to represent topical versus non-topical elements in various languages are different. In all languages, phonological, morphological and syntactic tools are used in such a way that languages users be able to identify these pragmatic relations as focus and topic. However, different languages do not use these tools in the same way. In Japanese in addition to prosody, "wa" and "ga" as two morphological particles are used to distinguish topical and focal concepts, that is, morphology plays a more significant role, whereas in French and Italian, in addition to prosody, syntactic constructions such as cleft structures are used to distinguish topical and focal elements (Lambrecht, 1994). In Persian both tools are used simultaneously or alone to express these pragmatic relations. Syntactic operations such as inversion and morphological particles such as *ra* (among others) are used to express topic and focus in Persian (Rassekh 1385, Dabir Moghadam 1984, Mahootian and Birner 1996, and Shokuhi and Kipka 2003). Accordingly, the aims to be followed in this paper are twofold: first, an attempt has been made to investigate the grammatical and linguistic mode of expression of topical elements in English and Persian. Second, topic-hood as an influential factor has an effect on linguistic coding in different languages. This effect is investigated in English and Persian. In so doing, some data from English together with its Persian translation has been analyzed to answer the following two research questions:

(1) What is the relationship between 'topic-hood of the referents' with 'definiteness, subject-hood, and prosodic prominence'?

(2) How are 'the preferred topic expressions' to be used in English and Persian?

2. Method

2.1. data

In this study, a corpus of English data together with its Persian translation was analyzed in order to investigate the effect of topic-hood on definiteness, subject-hood, and prosodic prominence. Another goal to be followed here is to investigate whether topic-hood has the same or different effect in English and Persian. To achieve these goals, the first chapter of George Orwell's Animal Farm together with its Persian translation by Amir Amirshahi was analyzed contrastively. This corpus includes more than 500 clauses and 1000 noun phrases in English and Persian. The analysis of the data is based on Lambrecht's theory of information structure (1994).

2.2. procedures

The following steps were taken to analyze the data:

1- The source text (English) and target text (Persian) were juxtaposed and contrasted sentence by sentence and phrase by phrase.

2- Based on the functional considerations introduced by Lambrecht (1994), primary and secondary topics were determined and then analyzed by using SSPS software

3- In this study, a formal mode of morphological expression (definiteness) is identified. Accordingly, the following types of morphological expression were identified: definite NP, pronoun, zero pronoun, indefinite NP, and wh-words. Definite and indefinite NPs may be used with or without formal markers such as *the*, *this*, *his*, etc. So, totally seven mode of morphological forms were identified. It was, then, tried to see how the topics are expressed.

4- In This step, it was tried to find a relationship between syntactic positions with topic-hood. Accordingly, a distinction was made between subject and non-subject position. Then, we tried to find a how the topics are matched with these positions.

5- To find whether there is a relation between topic-hood and prosodic prominence, a distinction was made between stressed and unstressed expressions. Accordingly, topics were categorized

6- Finally, X^2 test is employed either to show the significance of the relations and to investigate the effect of topic-hood on definiteness, subject-hood and prosodic prominence, Z-test was also used to see whether the effect is the same or different in the two contrasted languages.

3. The analysis of the data, results and discussion

As stated earlier (in introduction), two questions are investigated: first, what is the relationship between 'topic-hood of the referents' with 'definiteness, subject-hood, and prosodic prominence'? second, what are the preferred topic expressions to be used in the languages contrasted? The first question which has three parts is dealt with here. We start with investigating the relationship between topic-hood and definiteness.

3.1. Topic-hood and definiteness

A careful analysis of the topical referents in terms of morphological forms used to represent them reveals interesting findings which are represented in the following table.

Table (1) The frequency of the topical referents based on the morphological mode of expression (definiteness)

Langu age	Expressi ons and referents	Morphological mode of expression							Tot al
		Def NP/ mar ker	Def NP/ no marker	Def NP/ pronou n	Def NP/ Zero pronou n	Indef NP/ mark er	Indef NP/ No Marke r	Indef NP/ WH- word s	
Englis h	Topical	**48**	**25**	**114**	**53**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**240**
		20.0 %	10.4%	47.5%	22.1%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100. 0%
Persia n	Topical	**25**	**51**	**41**	**120**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**238**
		10.5 %	21.4%	17.2%	50.4%	.4%	.0%	.0%	100. 0%

Table (3) shows that out of the total number of 240 topics, %100 are represented by various forms of definite expressions in English (pronoun, zero pronoun, NP with or without definiteness marker). In Persian, %99/6 of topics are represented by definite expressions (example 7). The employed X^2- test shows no significant difference, because P= 0/000 which is lower than 0/05. The same table shows that in English %47/5 of the all the topics are represented by pronoun. This amount is % 17/2 in Persian. The employed Z-test tells us that this difference is meaningful, because the calculated Z=7/1 is higher than 1/96 which is our criterion. In other words, there is a meaningful difference between English and Persian as far as the use of pronoun is concerned to represent topical referents.

In spite of this difference in the use of pronoun between English and Persian, there is however a similarity between the two languages. As it was stated above, almost all the topics are represented by definite forms. A point worth-mentioning in this connection is provided here. As it was said in the introduction, topic is defined based on "about-ness" relation. This important assumption lends support to the pattern emerged in this table. If topic is not definite we are not able to identify its referent and accordingly, we are not able to interpret it. That is why in both languages topic-hood is correlated with definiteness. In other words, definiteness is the necessary condition for topics (Lambercht, 1994). As it was emphasized, for a referent to be topical, the proposition needs to be about it (sufficient condition). Accordingly, it can be claimed that morphological forms of language displays iconically the relationship between definiteness and topic-hood. The present researcher suggests the following principle to capture this correlation which is named PRTD.

The Principle of the Relationship between Topic-hood and Definiteness

 "The referents which are assigned topical status are morphologically represented by definite forms".

3.2. Topic-hood and subject-hood

In this section, the second part of the first question is dealt with. So, we are going to see the relation between topic-hood and subject-hood. The following table shows the degree of correlation between topics and subject position.

Table (2) Frequency of topical expressions based on the degree of matching with subject position

Langu age	Expressio ns and referents	Matched with subject position		Total
		Yes	No	
Englis h	Topical	219	21	240
		91.2%	8.8%	100.0 %
Persia n	Topical	216	22	238
		90.8%	9.2%	100.0 %

This table reveals that out of the total number of 240 investigated topics, %91/2 are matched with subject position in English (examples 5, 7). In Persian, %90/8 of all the topics are matched with subject position (example 9). As it was stated earlier, usually topics are matched with subject position. this is the unmarked case. Table (2) supports this claim, but we should note that topics are not necessarily matched with subject position. They may be matched with non-subject (obj) position (examples 3, 4). Table (2) shows that %8/8 of the all topics in English and %9/2 in Persian are matched with non-subject position. The employed X^2-test shows that there is a statistically meaningful relation between topic-hood and subject position (P= 0/000), that is to say that in both languages topics tend to be matched with subject position. On the other hand, the employed Z-test shows that this meaningful relationship between these two variables has resulted in the same syntactic coding in both languages. It seems that generally in all languages topics tend to be matched with subject position. The above table supports this claim. Further studies in other languages can lend more support to the universal aspects of this claim. To sum up, as it was emphasized there is a meaningful relationship between topic-hood and syntactic coding. Another argument to support this claim is presented in the following.

Careful analysis of marked syntactic structure such as inversion, topicalization, left and right dislocating, etc shows that the main reason for the use of such structures is topic-hood. Usually, the proposed constituents of such constructions are topic. Table (3) shows that out of the total number of 556 investigated sentences in English and Persian, 90 sentences are syntactically marked.

Table (3) Frequency of (un)marked investigated syntactic structures

Language	Active	passive	inverte d	Topicaliz ed	scrambbled	cleft	Pseudo-cleft	Left-dislocate d	Right-dislocate d	total
English	234	19	4	6	-	5	6	5	4	283
Persian	224	18	4	4	6	2	7	5	4	274

Detailed investigation of textual clues shows that in almost all of these constructions, the proposed constituent is topic. To clarify this issue some examples are presented in the following.

5)

1- *Old Major* was so highly regarded on the farm …

میجر پیر آنچنان در مزرعه مورد احترام بود ...

2- After *the horses* came Muriel, the white goat, and Benjamin, the donkey.

بعد از *اسب‌ها*، موریل بز سفید و بنجامین الاغ آمدند.

3- *The hens* perched themselves on the windowsills.

مرغ‌ها روی لبۀ پنجره نشستند.

4- Last of *all* came the cat.

بعد از *همه*، گربه آمد.

5- As for *the dogs*, when they grow old and toothless, Jones ties a brick round their necks and drowns them in the nearest pond.

و اما *سگها*، به محض اینکه آنها پیر و فرتوت شدند، جونز با بستن آجری دور گردنشان آنها را در نزدیکترین برکه خفه می‌کند

A more closer look at the context and co-text of these sentences shows that in these examples the expressed proposition of these sentences (1-5) are about old Major, the horses, the hens, all, and the dogs respectively. In other words, in these examples the expressions matched with subject position are topics. Therefore, topic-hood plays an important role in syntactic representation. Sometime, topic-hood results in the use of unmarked syntactic structures (sentence 3), and sometimes it results in the use of marked syntactic structures (sentences 1, 2, 4, 5). Another point worth-mentioning is that topic-hood has almost the same effect in both languages as far as syntax is concerned. Tables (2 and 3) support this claim. In both languages, there have been used almost the same number of sentences. Up to now, the relationship between topic-hood with definiteness (morphology) and subject-hood (syntax) has been investigated. Now the third part of the first question which is the relationship between topic-hood and prosodic prominence (stress status) is dealt with.

3.3. Topic-hood and prosodic prominence[2] (stress status)

As it was explained, topics are represented by special morphological forms. In addition it was concluded that topics have a special syntactic representation. In this part the prosodic aspects

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[2] To determine the prosodic prominence, the author had two native speakers to consult with. Furthermore, it was tried to determine the prosodic prominence based on what Lambrecht (1994) calls functional accentuation. That is, to determine the stress patterns based on information distribution and pragmatic considerations.

of topics are discussed. Table (4) shows the relevant statistics of the topical referents based on their prosodic prominence.

Table (4) Frequency of topical expressions based on "the degree of prosodic prominence"

Langu age	Expressio ns and referents	Stress status (Prosodic prominence)		Total
		Yes	No	
Englis h	Topical	189	51	240
		78.8%	21.2%	100.0 %
Persia n	Topical	187	51	238
		78.6%	21.4%	100.0 %

This table shows that out of the total number of 240 expressions identified as being topic in English, %78/8 are unstressed and without prosodic prominence (In example 7 below) topic are unstressed). Investigating the Persian data shows the same pattern. Out of the total number of 238 topics in Persian; %78/6 are unstressed. X2-test shows that there is a statistically meaningful relationship between topic-hood and stress status in both languages (P= 0/000). In other words, topics tend to be expressed without prosodic prominence (unstressed). Now, a question which can be raised is "why are some of the topics stressed (%21/2 in English and %21/4 in Persian)?" The present author has an idea in this connection; pragmatic considerations such as showing contrast or avoiding ambiguity are two possible reasons (among others) for the use of stressed topics. The following example may illuminate the point.

6)

1- Mary and John came into the room, <u>she</u> was very angry.

2- مری و جان وارد اتاق شدند، <u>مری</u>[3] / (#اِو)بسیار عصبانی بود.

In this sentence, Mary and John are in contrast and although in the second part of this sentence *she* is topic, but it is stressed to show the contrast. Accordingly, all the topics tend to be expressed without prosodic prominence (stress), however pragmatic considerations, sometimes, may result in the use of stressed topics[4]. The relation between topic-hood and stress status can be expressed by the following principle (PRTP):

The Principle of the Relation between Topic-hood and Prosody:

"Topical referents tend to be prosodically expressed without stress, unless there are some pragmatic and processing reasons".

Up to now, it was concluded that there was a meaningful relationship between the pragmatic concept of topic-hood with definiteness, subject-hood and prosodic prominence. Now, let's

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[3] Contrastive accents are underlined

[4] The detailed analysis of stressed topics is beyond this study. Refer to Gowhary 2011 (PhD dissertation) for more information.

turn to the second question which is concerned with preferred forms used in English and Persian to represent topical referents.

3. 4. Linguistic representation of topical elements (referents) in English and Persian

So far, the effect of topic-hood as an influential factor on different aspects of language was investigated. As for the second question, we are going to see in this part how the topical referents are expressed in English and Persian. Specifically, we want to know which forms are preferred in English and Persian to express topics.

Table (5) displays the frequency and percentage of topical elements in connection with preferred morphological forms.

Table (5) The Frequency of topical elements based on the preferred topic expressions in English and Persian

Language	Topic type	Preferred topic expression				Total
		Yes (pronoun)	Yes (zero pronoun)	No (full NP)	Not translated	
English	primary	150	58	58	1	267
		*56.2%	21.7%	21.7%	.4%	100.0%
	secondary	36	1	24	0	61
		59.0%	1.6%	39.3%	.0%	100.0%
	Total	186	59	82	1	328
		57.0%	17.9%	24.8%	.3%	100.0%
Persian	primary	61	131	67	8	267
		22.8%	*49.1%	25.1%	3.0%	100.0%
	Secondary	30	3	24	4	61
		49.2%	4.9%	39.3%	6.6%	100.0%
	Total	91	134	91	12	328
		27.9%	40.9%	27.6%	3.6%	100.0%

Table (5) shows that in English, out of the total number of 328 expressions which are identified as being topical , % 56/2 are represented by personal pronouns (sentences (1), and (3) in the following sample), and % 21/7 are represented by zero pronoun (sentence 2). The topical referents are represented by italic expressions. Once, old Major (one of the main characters of Animal Farm) was introduced in the preceding sentences, in this sample a number of proposition about this character are provided:

7)

(1) [$_{TOP}$ *He*][$_{FOC}$ was **twelve years** old] and

(2) [$_{TOP}$ *ø*][$_{FOC}$ had lately grown rather **stout**] , but

(3) [$_{TOP}$ *he*][$_{FOC}$ was still **a majestic-looking** pig, with a wise and benevolent appearance] (4) in spite of the fact that [$_{TOP}$ *his*] tushes[$_{FOC}$ had **never** been cut].

TOP= topic   FOC= focus

As it is revealed in the table, %21/7 of these topical referents are not represented by using preferred topic expressions. Avoiding ambiguity can be a possible reason for this pattern. Following example can clarify the point:

8)

(1) The two cart-horses, *Boxer and Clover*, came in together, walking very slowly and setting down their vast hairy hoofs with great care lest there should be some small animal concealed in the straw. (2) *Clover* was a stout motherly mare approaching middle life, who had never quite got her figure back after her fourth foal.

The italic- typed expression is topic which has active referent[5]. Such a referent must be naturally expressed by preferred topic expression (pronoun), which is not the case here. It has been expressed by full NP both in English and Persian (Clover). This use of non-preferred topic expression (NP) has been attempt on the part of language speakers to avoid ambiguity and processing problems for the addresses. Suppose that the writer used pronoun. What happens? The answer is clear. As readers, we were not able to identify whether this pronoun refers to Boxer or Clover.

The same table shows that from all the referents which have been identified as being topic, %80/9 are primary topic and % 18/5 are secondary. If in a proposition our knowledge of more than one referent is increased, we have secondary topic as well (example 3-b and 4-b).

The same table tells us that in Persian the most preferred from of topic expression is zero pronoun. Out of the total number 328 topic expressions, %49/1 are represented by zero pronoun (example 9) which is the Persian translation of (7) by Amir Amirshahi. As we can see, zero pronoun has been used to replace English overt pronouns.

9)

(1) [ϕ] دوازده سال از عمرش می‌رفت و (2) [ϕ]در این اواخر کمی تنومند شده بود، با این همه (3) [ϕ] خوک باعظمتی بود ...

[ϕ]= zero pronoun

All of these sentences are about Clover which is a topic referent. %22/6 of all the topics are represented by personal Pronouns (rather than zero pronouns) in Persian. Showing contrast can be a possible reason for this pattern, because emphatic and contrastive pronouns can not be replaced by zero pronouns in Persian (Example 6).

In contrast with English, in Persian a higher number of topics are represented by full NPs. In Persian % 27/6 and in English % 24/8 of the topics are represented by full NPs or

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[5] Based on Lambrecht (1994), mental referents are divided into four groups: active, semi- active, inactive, and new referents (see Lambrecht 1994, Gowhary 2012)

non- preferred topic expressions. As it was said, avoiding ambiguity is a possible reason for this pattern in general (Example 6). However, another issue to be dealt with is the difference between English and Persian in this connection. In Persian a rather higher number of full NPs are used to represent topical referents in contrast to English. Why? To answer this question, example 6 is repeated here:

10)

1- Mary and John came into the room, <u>she</u> was very angry.

2- مری و جان وارد اتاق شدند، <u>مری</u> (او #) بسیار عصبانی بود.

As it can be seen, it's not possible to replace English 'she' with a pronoun in Persian. This is related to the nature of the two languages. In English pronominal system, there is a distinction made in third person singular between feminine and masculine which is not made in Persian. Sometimes, the literal translation of English pronoun to Persian causes ambiguity in identifying the referent of that pronoun in Persian, so it is replaced by full NP.

Up to now, two differences and one similarity have been observed between English and Persian as far as topic is concerned. The first difference is English use of personal pronouns versus Persian use of zero pronouns to represent topical referents. The second difference is the relatively higher use of full NPs in Persian in contrast with English to represent topic. There is, however, a similarity between the two languages: in general in both languages (zero) pronoun which are preferred topic expressions have been used to represent topical referents. In English, %74/9 and in Persian % 68/8 of all the topics are represented by (zero) pronouns. However, it seems that in English a relatively higher number of pronouns are used in contrast to Persian. This minor difference between English and Persian has been already accounted for by Persian higher use of full NPs in contrast with English. As it was emphasized above, this is due to the nature of pronominal system of the two languages involved.

The same table shows that there is another similarity between English and Persian. In contrast with primary topics, in both languages a higher number of full NPs (non-preferred topic expression) are used to represent secondary topics. Out of total number of 61 topics which are identified as being secondary; %39/3 are represented by full NPs, whereas to represent primary topics, % 21/7 and % 25/1 are represented by full NPs in English and Persian respectively (example 7). Z-test shows that this difference between English and Persian is not significant (Z= 0/000). That is, English and Persian use the same forms (unlike primary topics) to represent secondary topics.

4. Conclusion

Topic-hood as an important factor was found to play a significant role in linguistic coding. In 3.1, it was found that there is a meaningful relation between topic-hood and definiteness. Topical referents were represented morphologically by different definite forms. In 3.2, it was found that topic-hood results in matching of topical referents with subject position. It also accounts for the use of different syntactic marked structures. In 3.3, it was proved to be a meaningful relation between topic-hood and prosodic prominence. Specifically, it was found that topical referents are expressed without prosodic prominence, unless there is a pragmatic consideration. Finally, in 3.4, English and Persian were found to have different preferred forms to express primary topics, although the differences were not significant as far as secondary topics are concerned.

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Title

Implementing Performance Based Assessment in the EFL Curriculum

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Biodata

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Abstract

Performance assessment and performance-based assessment describe assessment methods that require students to demonstrate what they know and can do by applying specific skills and competencies to a learning task. These tasks are often referred to as authentic assessments because they are typically designed to involve students in responding to a real-life task or problem. Performance-based assessment, such as portfolios, presentations, and participation, is currently being used in many second language programs. In order to study the effect of EFL students' performance in writing, 120 undergraduate EFL students were randomly chosen from two different levels—sophomores and juniors. They were divided into experimental and control groups. An independent t-test was employed to test their performance on the two different test formats presented to them. The results of this study indicated that students' performance can be affected by test format/task type.

Keywords: Authentic assessment, Classroom assessment, Performance assessment

1. Introduction

The current popularity of performance testing as opposed to multiple-choice and other discrete-point item types has resulted in a growing interest in tasks as a vehicle for assessing learner ability. As Fallon et al. (2003) say "Educational reform has provided an impetus for

teachers to use more authentic assessment in the classroom, by having students demonstrate understanding or knowledge through the performance of tasks or skills" (p. 40). Task-based assessment requires the test-taker to engage in the performance of tasks which simulate the language demands of the real world situation with the aim of eliciting an "authentic" sample of language from the candidate. The properties of such tasks and the influence of these properties on learner performance are now being widely researched, with some scholars focusing on strengthening the links between test tasks and their real world counterparts (Bachman &Palmer, 1996; Elder et al., 2002).

Performance assessment that has attracted considerable attention in the last decade can be defined as the direct, systemic observation of an actual learner performance and the rating of that performance according to previously established performance criteria (Bachman, 2002; McNamara, 1996). Performance-based assessment in language testing is the process of using student activities, rather than tests or surveys, to assess skills and knowledge.

According to Gipps (1994,) "Performance assessments aim to model the *real* learning activities that we wish students to engage with, oral and written communication skills, problem solving activities etc, rather than to fragment them, as do multiple-choice tests; the aim is that the assessments do not distort teaching"(p. 98). As opposed to traditional methods of fix-response (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) testing student achievement, performance assessment requires students to demonstrate knowledge and skills, including the process by which they solve problems. These types of assessment measure skills such as the ability to integrate knowledge across disciplines, contribute to the work of a group, and develop a plan of action when confronted with a new situation. Performance assessments are also appropriate for determining if students are achieving the higher standards set by states for all students.

There are very few studies that concern the manner in which teachers assess their students' foreign language skills whilst in the process of teaching and learning. General assessment studies on teacher behavior in language classrooms have shown that teachers spend a relatively small amount of time assessing individual student performance. Formal testing in general is assumed to be the only type of assessment a teacher uses. The mental 'steps' a teacher takes when assessing a student's progress remain largely unexplored. (Edelenbos & Kubanek-German, 2004, p. 261).

Performance-based elements in large-scale testing are usually restricted to a small number of controlled task types, usually involving writing and speaking. According to

Fulcher and Davidson (2007) the reason for this is simply that they demand significant resources to implement, and are expensive. Fulcher and Davidson further argue that in the classroom the activities and assessment are almost entirely performance-based, and completely integrated. They believe that this is not surprising, because it is a social learning environment that encourages interaction, communication, achieving shared goals and providing feedback from learner to learner as well as teacher to learner. A particular feature of the classroom context is collaboration between learners (p.29). The constructivist approach to learning is founded on this idea that the learners create new meaning by connecting what they have already learned and experienced with what they are currently learning. And McNamara (1996) asserts that in the second language context a defining characteristic is that actual performances of relevant tasks are required of candidates, rather than more abstract demonstration of knowledge, often by means of pencil-and-paper tests.

In many of the courses held at Iranian universities at the undergraduate level, instructors and lecturers find it very easy to construct multiple-choice items. For example, for Prose, Literature, Advanced writing, Letter writing and Research to name a few we normally come across multiple-choice items. No doubt students do find answering theses items much easier than writing comprehension questions. The results of an English test may indicate that a student for example knows that each story has a beginning, middle and an end. However, these results do not guarantee that the student is capable of writing a story with a clear beginning, middle and end. It is because of this, educators have advocated the use of performance-based assessments.

Probably in order to administer any good assessment, we need to have a clearly defined purpose. There are several important questions to be asked regarding our students, their skill, and knowledge that they possess. What should our students know or need to know? The level students should be performing and the type of knowledge that is being assessed: reasoning, memory or process. This study explores the issue of test-taker perceptions of task difficulty and the extent to which these perceptions correspond to the assumptions of task complexity underlying the Skehan (1998) framework, on one hand, and to the quality of task performance, on the other.

Since the key element of any definition of performance-based assessment is on demonstration of ability the main aim of this study was to investigate students' performance on written tests. In addition, the aim was to analyze students' attitudes toward performance based assessment in general and also to see if the benefits gained from the study of learners'

beliefs and attitudes can help the EFL teacher to plan and implement alternative behaviors and activities in their classes.

The following questions prompted the present study:

- Can performance based assessment as compared to multiple-choice items (traditional method of assessment) significantly characterize the successful classroom practices/processes of engaging students in activities aimed at fostering their ability to engage in the reading/writing and composition of English texts?

2. Review of literature

Ten, twenty and even thirty years ago, large scale studies of student achievement relied almost exclusively on the use of multiple choice or short answer questions. This is not to say that many nations did not make use of other forms of questions, notably essay questions, but their use was largely confined to examination systems that had a long history of use. Research studies relied primarily on the use of multiple choice questions because they could more efficiently cover subject matter domains and could be scored quickly and easily. Today, the situation is rather different. Much more extensive use is made of performance assessments (Wolf, 1995, p. 276). Shepard (1991) says that the student is given the opportunity to think and show what mental representations he/she holds of important ideas and what facility have in bringing these understandings to solve their problems (p. 9).

2.1. Performance assessment vs. authentic assessment.

Performance assessment, also known as alternative or authentic assessment, is a form of testing that requires students to perform a task rather than select an answer from a ready-made list. Authentic assessment is performance assessment carried out in an authentic context, i.e., it is produced in the classroom as part of normal work rather than as a specific task for assessment.

The notion of employing 'authentic' assessment tasks that correspond to tasks outside the test itself and that engage test-takers in authentic language use has informed many discussions of language assessment over the years, whether these are explicitly called 'task based' or not (e.g., Clark, 1975; Alderson, 1983; Shohamy & Reves, 1985; Spolsky, 1985; Brindley, 1994; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; McNamara, 1997; Skehan, 1998 as cited in Bachman, 2002, p. 455).

Authentic assessment refers to assessment tasks that resemble reading and writing in the real world and in school. Its aim is to assess many different kinds of literacy abilities in

contexts that closely resemble actual situations in which those abilities are used. For example, authentic assessments ask students to read real texts, to write for authentic purposes about meaningful topics, and to participate in authentic literacy tasks such as discussing books, keeping journals, writing letters, and revising a piece of writing until it works for the reader. Both the material and the assessment tasks look as natural as possible. Furthermore, authentic assessment values the thinking behind the work, the process, as much as the finished product.

Performance assessments require students to actively demonstrate what they know, and may be a more valid indicator of students' knowledge and abilities. And as it is widely known EFL students cannot focus on the skills needed for L2 writing and on culturally related issues in the process of writing at the same time. The portfolio as an example of authentic assessment contains examples of *actual* student performance: 'best' performance elicited under normal classroom conditions in the classroom context (Gipps, 1994, p. 98). Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000) argue that "portfolios provide a broader measure of what students can do, and because they replace the timed writing context, which has long been claimed to be particularly discriminatory against non-native writers" (p. 61). Nunan (1995) rightly calls this a learner-centered curriculum in which the key decisions about what will be taught, how it will be taught, when it will be taught, and how it will be assessed will be made with reference to the learner. Information about learners, and, where feasible, from learners, will be used to answer the key questions of what, how, when, and how well (p. 134).

Meyer (1992) clarifies the meaning of performance-based assessment and authentic assessment in this way. She says, "To determine whether a given performance assessment is authentic, we must ask, "Authentic to what?" It is a seemingly simple question, but one whose answer may be complex. She suggests that in using the term 'authentic assessment' assessors should specify in which respects the assessment is authentic: the stimulus; task complexity; locus of control; motivation; spontaneity; resources; conditions; criteria; standards; and consequences" (p. 40).

According to Meyer (1992) in performance assessment, the student completes or demonstrates the same behavior that the assessor desires to measure. There is a minimal inference involved. For example, if the behavior to be measured is writing, the student writes. The student does not complete multiple-choice questions about sentences and paragraphs, which "instead measure the student's ability to proofread other people's writing and require a high degree of inference about the student's ability to write." Meyer further continues that the significant criterion for the "authenticity of a writing assessment might be that the locus of

control rests with the student; that is, the student determines the topic, the time allocated, the pacing, and the conditions under which the writing sample is generated" (p. 40).

> Stiggins and Bridgeford (1982, as cited in Gipps, 1994, p. 90) say that:
> Performance assessment is defined as a systematic attempt to measure a learner's ability to use previously acquired knowledge in solving novel problems or completing specific tasks. In performance assessment, real life or simulated assessment exercises are used to elicit original responses which are directly observed and rated by a qualified judge, (*ibid,* p. 1).

According to Kenyon (1998) " In language testing, examples of performance include a written response to an essay or an oral response to an interviewer's questions or instructions to a role-play, or a physical response to instructions given in the target language" (cited in Kunnan, 1998, p. 21).

2.2. Alternative assessments and authentic assessments

The term performance-based assessment is often used when referring to a broad spectrum of assessment types. Among those are alternative assessments and authentic assessments. However, some important distinctions in terminology between these terms should be noted. Authentic assessment can be defined as a special kind of performance assessment conducted in an authentic context as part of regular classroom learning rather than as contrived, intrusive assessment tasks (Gipps, 1994). Alternative assessment, as characterized by Aschbacher (1991, cited in Brooks, 1991) requires problem solving and higher level thinking, involves tasks that are worthwhile as instructional activities, uses real-world contexts or simulations, focuses on processes as well as products, and encourages disclosure of standards and criteria.

Edelenbos and Kubanek-German (2004) provide an argument for language teachers to be equipped with a new concept, "diagnostic competence." Diagnostic competence is "the ability to interpret students' foreign language growth, to skillfully deal with the assessment material and to provide students with appropriate help in response to this competence. This competence concerns all foreign language teachers" (2004, p. 260). Bachman (1990) says that performance is observed as a result of the test-takers language knowledge interacting with the characteristics of the test task and other non-linguistic characteristics of the test-takers, such as his or her strategic competence, knowledge of the topic, and personal attributes. While not all performance assessments are authentic, it is difficult to imagine an authentic assessment that would not also be a performance assessment that is, authentic assessment is a special case of performance assessment.

Assessment can be either formal or informal assessment. Informal assessment may be assessing student in-class participation and interaction with other students. A student who is being formally assessed knows that he/she is being evaluated. When a students' performance is formally assessed, you may either have the student perform a task or complete a project. You either observe the student as he/she performs a specific task or evaluate the quality of finished products (Brualdi, 1998).

In academic situations, teaching and testing are interrelated with each other. According to

Heaton (1988), the goal of language testing is as a device to not only motivate and reinforce students' learning, but also to evaluate their performance and progress (p.5). For language teachers themselves, classroom tests can effectively help them to identify students' learning difficulties and weaknesses in order to make adjustment and improvement in their teaching (p.6). With the advent of learner-centered (Nunan, 1988; O'Neill, 1991) and outcomes-based (Musker & Nomvete, 1996; South African Applied Linguistics Association, Language and Learning Across the Curriculum Special Interest Group, 1997) teaching approaches, a greater emphasis has been laid on learners' perceptions of classroom aims and events (cited in Barkhuizen, 1998, p. 87). There is also a large body of research on language learners' attitudes, especially within the field of second language acquisition.

Brooks (1999) in her thesis on "Performance based assessment" outlines that "The main distinction between performance-based assessment and tests is that in the former the process is key whereas in the latter the product or result is more the focus although performance-based assessment can involve both products and processes" (p. 4). Although the emphasis of performance-based assessment is on *demonstration,* the final product tends to be but one of the outcomes as there are multiple opportunities for interaction and learning in the process of the assessment (Swain, 1984, cited in Brooks, 1999).

3. Method

3. 1. Participants

140 university undergraduates (sophomore, junior and senior) served as subjects for this study. All the participants in this study were enrolled in English Translation. An Oxford Test of English Language in the form of a pretest was administered to establish linguistic homogeneity among them. Based on the scoring standards of the OPT, those students whose scores fell between the mean and a standard deviation above the mean were selected for this

study. 120 students were found eligible for the study. Based on their scores they were divided to experimental (Group A) and control groups (Group B). The students were all Persian speaking males and females from fourth to the seventh semesters. Sixty students studying Letter writing and the other sixty students studying Advanced Writing were found eligible for this study. The majority of the students had taken at least one previous composition class at the university, so they were well acquainted with the techniques of writing.

3.2. Instrumentation

The sophomore and junior undergraduates ranging from the fourth to the seventh semesters had a course on Letter Writing, and were weekly participants in Advanced writing respectively. The classes were conducted every week for 120 minutes. The texts/material chosen for letter writing was based on both the instructors' notes and also additional material was taken from "Essay and letter writing" by L. G. Alexander, and "Business English" by B. A. Geffner and for Advanced writing and Research "Essentials of writing" by W.E. Messenger and P. A. Taylor and some units of the second edition of "The practical writer with readings" by E. P. Bailey and P. A. Powell.

3.3. Procedure

In order to evaluate class participation and instructions, students' in both groups were controlled by weekly assignments and it was decided that portfolios would be an effective evaluation tool for reviewing the status of their progress and development. The grading rubrics used in these classes make it clear that content and organization is given greater priority than grammatical concerns. For the control groups no special treatment was given and they had no portfolios to follow-up their progress.

Since the instructor wanted to base the course on the students' situation and understanding of the course, students in all semesters (Group A) were invited to pose questions about their readings which could help them to critically analyze aspects of the texts. Classroom assignments feature not only activities involving the introduction and practice of usage rules, but also tasks which encourage the use of the target language in problem-solving and decision making situations. The intention of this study was to develop an inventory of observed teacher behavior that focused on eliciting, registering, or interpreting students' language production. There is evidence, in fact, that interest and motivation are enhanced when the purpose and rationale of instruction is made explicit to the learners (Brindley, 1984 cited in Nunan, 1995).

The whole winter semester was devoted to teaching the lessons whereby the students were given instructions and directions to comprehend the texts they were studying. Here

students (Group A) had to make very explicit connections to real world situations and gaps that may exist in the text. In order to raise learner awareness of the strategies underlying the particular task in question each student was encouraged to choose one of the topics covered that week which proved to be more interesting to him/her, approach it in any way s/he preferred, and write a reflection on it. Teaching writing as a process of discovery aims to raise student awareness of the recursive nature of the composing process while allowing teacher and peer collaboration and intervention during the process as they negotiate meaning (Susser, 1994; Reid, 1994). Brainstorming, journal writing, multiple drafting, feedback practices, revision, and final editing, are all steps in this process during which the teacher and students can read and respond to the writing as it develops into the final product (cited in Paulus, 1999).

Students participating in letter writing were taught the appropriate techniques to write legible letter—friendly, social and business letters. No doubt, the main focus was on content and organization but also attention was paid to the use of appropriate punctuation marks and other rules pertaining to letter writing. Students in both groups were given regular weekly assignments for homework. For Advanced writing, there were both junior and senior students. They were initially asked to write short paragraphs (few sessions) as a form of "brush up" on the course and then with the help of the text the course proceeded. As already mentioned different topics based on different genres were selected and before each session started a briefing was given regarding the different techniques that are normally used in writing. Five general categories were developed: general instructions; homework; repetition and discussion of previous lesson content; presentation and discussion of new content; and exercises. Every student in each class (Group A) had a portfolio in which the weekly assessments of the students were kept. Focusing on writing as a process and using portfolio as a method of assessment of writing give the students the confidence to continue to write and continue to develop their skills and overcome their problems in writing. In order to appraise its usefulness for this purpose in this study student's performance throughout the whole semester was documented, analyzed, compared and contrasted.

The portfolio as a self-reflection assessment has appeal because it changes the way writing has been graded traditionally and institutes a grading system whereby the teacher shares control and works collaboratively with students. The components of the portfolio are decided by the teachers, the students, or through an agreement between teachers and students. Students were asked to assess their performance in their writings and timely feedback from the instructor was provided mainly to motivate the students to voice their personal opinions

and analyze writers' ideas in a critical manner. Since each student has his/her own individual traits and personality, the type of feedback given will either positively or negatively affect that student and his/her state of mind. In the writing classroom how and when teacher's grade, can make an enormous difference in the students' development. In general, students benefit the most when they receive feedback while they are still working on a paper rather than after the paper have been graded. Perfect writing can be possible only when students with feedbacks which are gained from teacher and/or peers have control of writing system, mechanics of writing (punctuation, capitalization, abbreviation, numbering, and spelling) and grammar to solve the problem in writing effective compositions (Johnson, 1996)..

As is common in a writing class with a traditional (non-portfolio) method of evaluation in place, the control group turned in each essay as it was due, and the instructor marked and commented on each essay and then assigned it a grade. Students in the experimental group turned in their essays and writings on the due date, but no grade was recorded at that time. Their assignments were carefully reviewed and students were credited for any revisions made afterwards. At certain points during the term, the instructor directed revision by focusing students' attention on certain strategies, such as sentence combining, strengthening weak verbs, writing effective introductions, titles, and some comments on the mechanics of writing (punctuation, capitalization, abbreviation, spelling, grammar, and use of numbers). Students could continue to work on previously written papers until the end of the term. At the end of the term, students presented a portfolio of their work to the instructor for evaluation and the term grade. Students were encouraged to extensively revise these papers in the meantime. All prewriting, drafts, and evidences of revision for each paper were included in the portfolio.

After nearly 14 weeks of instruction, an exam was held for both the groups. Regarding the courses covered during the semester for both the groups, students were given questions and they had to write out their answers. Students in the experimental group (Group A) at all two levels were given essay type questions. Sophomores had to write three friendly letters, three social letters, and two business letters. In addition, junior participants were given five topics —they had to write a short paragraph of at least 100-150 words on three topics of their choice. And then five topics were given for composition and they had to choose three based on their own interests.

The test format administered to the control groups (Group B) for all the units covered was given as multiple choice items. The control group was given 40 multiple choice items for 'Letter writing' and the same was number was given in 'Advanced writing.' For the multiple

choice items 90 minutes was allotted and for the written exam two hours and thirty minutes. Two other instructors other than the researcher cooperated in the study for rating the students' performance.

4. Results and discussion

For data analysis, independent samples T-tests were employed to compare the performance of the two groups in the two types of test formats. Hence, the role of years of academic experience was examined prior to any other analysis. To do so, an independent samples T-test was conducted to explore the impact of this variable on the learners' performance

Table 1 *Descriptive Statistics for the Students' Performances across the Experimental and Control Groups*

group	level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	Junior	30	16.2100	2.15940	.39425
	Sophomore	30	14.8833	2.44749	.44685
Control	Junior	30	12.8917	2.49368	.45528
	Sophomore	30	13.2333	2.13845	.39043

Table 1 shows the obtained mean scores and standard deviations over the groups. The results show the difference in the mean scores in the experimental groups of the two junior and sophomore groups was higher in comparison to the control group. Besides, in the experimental group the juniors outperformed the sophomores while in relation to the control group, the sophomores did better. The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned.

To statistically explain the observed differences across the groups, the following table 2 suggests the results of the independent samples t-tests.

Table 2 *The effect of experience level on performances across control and experimental groups*

Group		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
Experimental	Equal variances assumed	.437	.511	2.226	58	.030	1.32667	.59591

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean	Std. Error
	Equal variances not assumed			2.226	57.114	.030	1.32667	.59591
Control	Equal variances assumed	.671	.416	-.570	58	.571	-.34167	.59976
	Equal variances not assumed			-.570	56.682	.571	-.34167	.59976

In table 2 we see that in the experimental and control groups, there were two groups of sophomore and junior students. Based on the results, there was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the sophomores (M=14.88, SD=2.44) and juniors [M=16.21, SD=2.15; t (58) =2.22, p=.03] in the experimental group. The magnitude of the difference in the means was almost moderate (eta squared=0.07). Yet, as for the control group, there was not a significant difference in the mean scores for the sophomores (M=13.23, SD=2.13) and the juniors [M=12.89, SD=2.49; t (58) =-0.57, p=0.57].

Following this primary assessment of level effect, independent samples T-test were employed in this stage of analysis to examine the cross mean differences across the two levels. Concerning the sophomores, the following graphs represent the results in relation to the difference investigations.

Table 3 *Descriptive Statistics for the sophomore group's performance*

Group Statistics

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SCORE	A	30	14.8833	2.44749	.44685
	B	30	13.2333	2.13845	.39043

The group statistics in table 3 reveals that students in the experimental group achieved higher mean records in comparison with the control group. Moreover, the dispersion of individual scores around the mean score was higher in the experimental group, hence their higher variety.

Table 4

Comparison of the means between the essay type and multiple choice items for the sophomores

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for quality 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	
SCORE Equal variance assumed	.532	.469	2.781	58	.007	1.6500	.59339	.46221	2.83779	
Equal variance not assumed			2.781	56.974	.007	1.6500	.59339	.46175	2.83825	

In relation to the mean score differences, the results showed that the scores for essay type questions—group A (M=16.2, SD= 2.15) outperformed multiple choice items—group B (M=12.8, SD=2.49). There was a significant difference in scores for the experimental and control groups [t (58) =2.781, p=0.007]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was almost large (eta squared= 0.11). The next part deals with the junior groups whose mean performances are presented below.

Table 5 *Descriptive Statistics for the junior group's performance*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
A	30	16.2100	2.15940	.39425
B	30	12.8917	2.49368	.45528

Table 6 *Comparison of the means between the essay type and multiple choice items for the juniors*

	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 of Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.565	.455	5.510	58	.000	3.31833	.60226	2.11278	4.52388
Equal Variances not assumed			5.510	56.839	.000	3.31833	.60226	2.11226	4.52441

Here the results of an independent samples t-test indicated that similarly, there was a significant difference in the scores for the experimental (M=16.2, SD= 2.15) and the control

group [M= 12.8, SD= 2.49; t (58) =5.51, p=0.000]. The magnitude of the differences in the mean scores was quite large (eta squared= 0.343).

The results of this study show that Performance assessments closely tied to this new way of teaching provide teachers with more information about the learning needs of their students and enable them to modify their methods to meet these needs. They also allow students to assess their own progress and, therefore, are more responsible for their education. It should be noted that writing proficiency is a major skill in learning a foreign language. The significant role of this skill has become more conspicuous by the advent of the Internet and the availability of communication through writing. The role of writing is being enhanced today in many of the international examinations that are being held worldwide to evaluate the writing skills of EFL learners (Rastgou, 2012).

While conducting this research, this study took the form of an action research simply because of the fact that the English department at the university and also other colleagues of the instructor cooperated in conducting this study. The general aim of the study was to make formative improvements in the study patterns of the EFL students. As already mentioned, one of the drawbacks in many of the courses being conducted at the universities, we see that many instructors and lecturers find it very easy to set multiple choice items. But the findings of this study showed that for students in (Group B) creativity and motivation was rather restrained. After the study there were many students who volunteered to be interviewed and they were quite satisfied in expressing their opinions and ideas regarding Performance based assessment being implemented in the university. The students were happy to know that they had a role in making decisions. As Nunan (1989a) assures, "No curriculum can claim to be truly learner-centered unless the learner's subjective needs and perceptions relating to the processes of learning are taken into account" (p. 177).

The results of this study well explain the fact that writing provides a well-organized response to the topic and maintains a central focus. The ideas are expressed in appropriate language. A sense of pattern of development is present from beginning to end. The writer supports assertions with explanation or illustration, and the vocabulary is well suited to the context. Sentences generally are correct grammatically, although some errors may be present when sentence structure is particularly complex.

The aim of this study was to motivate and enhance students' creativity and the findings showed that students in (Group A) had learned from their portfolios. During interviews the students added that when they received their graded compositions back from teachers, they were covered with red pen marks indicating grammar, punctuation, and

spelling errors. One reason could be that the many EFL classes pay too much attention to the mechanical aspects of language. However, a number of students indicated that they enjoyed writing compositions. One student even said that "they are interesting because you don't have to tell the truth," and another said that when teachers corrected their errors, "we learn from our mistakes." No doubt EFL students use writing as a form of language practice but this study showed that it is possible to encourage writing for all academic endeavors (Ferris, 1995).

Another focus of this study was on students' attitude and perceptions of this type of assessment. The instructor and her colleagues were interested in students' reaction to the types of activities they experienced in their classes. The students were asked to elaborate on some of the points raised in the questionnaire. Some of the questions were on the attention they paid to the teachers' comments in the form of feedback and what strategies they applied to improve their subsequent writing assignment. Did they have trouble understanding any teacher commentary, and if so, what did they do to resolve these problems? The students felt they received the most comments on grammar, followed (in this order) by organization, content, mechanics (defined for the students as spelling, punctuation and capitalization), and vocabulary. But some students also said that they felt that their teachers' comments helped them avoid future mistakes, improve their grammar, and clarify their ideas. Reid (1993 as cited in Ferris, 1995) notes that the ESL writing teacher "plays several different roles, among them coach, judge, facilitator, evaluator, interested reader, and copy editor" (p. 217).

Classroom participation is no doubt important because it involves the in-class performance of students over an extended period of time, and gives students many opportunities to perform, whether it is through class discussions, or asking questions in class. This study showed that EFL students are rather overwhelmed and puzzled with items that are set in a multiple-choice format especially for courses like "Paragraph development, Advanced writing, Letter writing and Research." On the other hand, comprehension questions for the same courses allow the students to express their ideas more easily with more creativity.

Today instruction in most subject areas is being altered to include more practical application of skills and to incorporate a greater focus on the understanding and combining of content and skills. These methods, like all types of performance assessments, require that students actively develop their approaches to the task under defined conditions, knowing that their work will be evaluated according to agreed-upon standards. This requirement distinguishes performance assessment from other forms of testing. As Kumaravadevilu (1991

cited in Barkhuizen, 1998) says that "the more we know about the learner's personal approaches and personal concepts, the better and more productive our intervention will be" (p. 107). By this he means that if we, as teachers, are aware of where our learners are coming from (how they approach language learning, what they feel about their language learning experiences, and how they act upon these feelings), we will be able to facilitate desired learning outcomes in the classroom. It is important to remember that all learners already critically evaluate what they do (Breen, 1989).

Once teachers are aware of their students' perceptions, they can, if necessary, plan and implement alternative behaviors and activities in their classes (Breen, 1989).

5. Pedagogical implications

English as a Second Language program associated with colleges or universities increasingly act as points of entry for international students into the post-secondary institutions. As these programs gain more recognition and are viewed not as ancillary but rather as integral to the internationalization of an institution, the onus is on these programs to provide transparent methods of assessment that have validity according to their host institution (Brooks, 1999). Furthermore as Brooks (1999) continues, the active process-oriented assessment practices possible at the classroom level can provide a much richer picture of students' language proficiency than can standardize tests administered en *masse*. These assessment methods reflect a balance of approaches that teachers have generally always used to assess their students in a formative way. Nunan (1995) explicates on this issue that "By sensitizing learners to the nature of the learning process, by helping them develop skills in cognitive operations such as classifying, brainstorming, inductive and deductive reasoning, by getting them to cooperate with each other, by giving them opportunities to make choices and to develop independent learning skills, we are fostering the cognitive, affective, interpersonal and intercultural knowledge, skills, and sensitivities which provide a rationale for a great many educational systems around the world"(p. 148). Moreover, as Elder et al. (2002) contend "if test-takers can predict what makes a task difficult, it may be wise for us to access their views during the test design stage to determine whether they correspond to the hunches of test-developers and with existing theories about what makes a task more or less complex" (p. 350).

Hamp-Lyons (1996, cited in Brooks, 1999) outlines the positive aspects of portfolio assessment for ESL students. Among the reasons for using portfolio assessment in an ESL

context, she cites that the process approach to portfolios allows ESL writers time to notice and correct their grammar mistakes. Other benefits of this form of assessment are that learners can notice their own progress through their portfolios and also learners are able to be more involved in the assessment process through interaction with their teachers and classmates (p. 18).

While learner perceptions are accorded a central place in many SLA studies, this tends not be the case in the field of language testing. Test-taker reactions have traditionally been associated with face validity, or "appearance of validity" and are therefore not seen as central to the test validation process (Bachman, 199). And Elder et al. (2002) say that if test-takers have negative attitudes to the test then they are less likely to perform to their best of their abilities. This has obvious implications for test validity. If test attitudes interfere with test performance this may result in unwarranted inferences being drawn from test scores (p. 350).

Therefore, two aspects of validity are particularly pertinent, although not sufficient by themselves: face validity and consequential validity. It is important for an English Language Program's assessment procedure to have face validity for both the students and the university at large. If students perceive that they are learning, as the results of this study suggest they do, then that provides some evidence of face validity. As outlined in Zeidner and Bensoussan (1988):

> In the course of assessing a test's face validity or in determining testing policy and procedure, measurement specialists would appear to agree that examinee's attitudes, perceptions and motivational dispositions concerning various types of tests administered at the university level should be given due consideration and weight by instructors and researchers. (p. 100).

Alderson and Clapham (1995) believe that the value of a test relates to what it is being used or misused for. Therefore, for course-related, short-term achievement tests, therefore, as with class exercises, teachers need to write items which correspond with their teaching methods, reflect their teaching objectives, and mirror in some way their teaching materials. They also need to make sure that such items are not ambiguous and that they produce the expected type of response (p. 185).

Brooks (1999) adds that when using performance-based assessment as a pedagogical tool, classroom teachers in adult ESL programs do not need to be overly concerned with issues of reliability, transparency of marking criteria and validity. However, if the assessment has high stakes consequences, then the distinction between pedagogical and assessment

purposes becomes more pronounced. Although subjectivity can never be eliminated from performance-based assessment, it is possible to introduce the rater variability through training, particularly if common rating schemes are adopted or through the use of multiple raters (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; McNamara, 1996).

DeVincenzi (1995) argues that "If standardized tests are to have a positive impact on learning, teachers need to evaluate these products as informed consumers. Teachers must be able to make accurate assumptions about test content in order to influence administrative decisions about test use and decide how to help students to perform at their best" (p. 181).

The findings of this study show that Performance assessment can provide valuable impetus for improving instruction, and increase students' understanding of what they need to know and be able to do. In preparing their students to work on a performance task, teachers describe what the task entails and the standards that will be used to evaluate performance. This requires a careful description of the elements of good performance, and allows students to judge their own work as they proceed. Moreover, knowledge of learner beliefs about language learning should 'increase teachers' understanding of how students approach the task(s) required in language classes.

6. Conclusion

This research shows clearly that test-takers have preferences for certain types of test and that some tasks are perceived to be easier, more interesting or more acceptable as measures of ability than others. The above discussion leads us to the conclusion that performance based assessment has both advantages and disadvantages. According to Kunnan and Jang (2009) classroom based assessment aims at providing teachers with information needed to evaluate students' level of achievement with reference to curricular goals and standards and students with diagnostic feedback regarding their performance. This type of assessment is generally referred to as formative assessment (p. 615).

Performance-based assessment builds on daily work (assignments, exams, projects) of students and faculty and enables teachers and instructors to determine student skills and abilities and for students to learn more about how to improve their own skills. Moreover, performance-based assessment can help faculty determine how to link their teaching to desired learning outcomes. Teachers can use this information as Kunnan and Jang (2009) assert to inform their instruction, evaluate their resources and provide feedback to their students to promote their learning. On the other hand students can use this type of

information to understand their strengths and weaknesses. One possible explanation, which would need to be explored empirically, is that learner factors – such as anxiety, confidence and motivation – produce different levels of stress and engagement during task performance.

One of the primary difficulties with multiple choice selections is the inability to test the volume of information a student has absorbed and the correlations the student is able to make between concepts taught throughout the class. With performance-based assessment, a student is enabled and more responsible for the demonstration of their learning because it forces the students to put their knowledge into context that can be understood and explained. On the other hand in a multiple choice test a student might do poorly and consequently blame the format of the questions or answers. Kunnan and Jang (2009) strongly believe that "while traditional multiple-choice response format tests are time efficient and objective in scoring, they are limited to measuring the knowledge state and comprehension abilities in a discrete manner" (p. 615). Performance based assessment can provide information not only about achievement in the cognitive domain, but also about non-cognitive outcomes or changes, such as students' motivation, attitudes, and personal and social development. Advocates of performance assessment believe these tests will prompt educators and school officials to identify the skills and knowledge they want their students to acquire and to focus on teaching students this information. It also provides educators with information about what students have learned, not just how well they can learn.

We cannot claim that performance-based assessment does not have any flaws. Performance-based measures are labor intensive because a significant amount of time and care must be set aside for planning and using performance assessment and this type of testing can be difficult to implement in a large class setting compared to utilizing a standard multiple question type format for assessment. Large student populations and limited teacher resources would make the timing and cost of performance-based testing more difficult, but conversely, the overall benefit to students can outweigh those concerns in many cases. Furthermore, it is not clear that performance-based measures can be generalized to the student population. This lowered level of generalization can affect the perceived validity of the measure. In addition, assessment activities that are separate from the daily teaching routine of the department can be perceived as intrusions by students and faculty.

If the assessment methods are viewed as a natural extension to the typical classroom activities in a communicative language classroom, then regardless of whether the stakes of the assessment are low or high for each individual student, the students are likely to find the performance-based methods relevant and engaging. As Fallon et al. (2003) say, teacher

education institutions need to be prepared to create courses about PBA knowledge and skills or school districts need to create in-depth workshops that do the same (p. 41).

As Brooks (1999) rightly comments knowing students' attitudes to what goes on in the classroom can possibly help to provide a better learning environment. Affective variables may influence performance, which may in turn lead to inaccurate assessment. If we as teachers, researchers, and test developers, know what student perceptions are, we are better able to provide the kinds of instructions, task types, and feedback that the students need in order to perform at their best.

This research was presented, not as an on-going project, but rather as a product of research, which, besides being a valuable tool for classroom use, has potential for researchers, by providing criteria for measuring many aspects of language learning.

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Title

A Contrastive Analysis on the Application of Definite and Indefinite Articles in the Story Texts in Persian and English Languages

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Abstract

Languages have different linguistic forms which can be contrasted to explore differences and similarities among them. The present study is a contrastive analysis comparing the application of definite and indefinite articles in English and Persian languages. In this regard 10 texts including historical and religious stories in Persian and their translations into English were chosen. Among these texts 113 cases of definite and indefinite articles were compared in two languages. The results of the study showed that 43 cases of definite article "the" and 29 cases of indefinite articles "a, an" were applied to show definiteness and indefiniteness respectively. Also the results of the study demonstrated that only 3 cases of definite article "the" were used for representing indefiniteness in Persian language.

Keywords: Contrastive analysis, Definite and indefinite articles, Application

1. Introduction and Background

1.1 What Contrastive Analysis Is

Contrastive analysis (CA), a method of linguistic analysis (Jaszczolt, 1995), is concerned with a pair of languages and its main assumption is founded on the comparison of different languages (James, 1980), CA also encompasses contrastive grammar which identifies and characterizes special domain in languages (Anderson, 1987). Marton (1973), investigating the pedagogical role of CA in the classroom environment, explains that CA is a "useful technique for presenting language materials to the learner" as well as a method of teaching (Marton, 1973, p. 15) and communication (Jaszczolt, 1995).

Contrasting two linguistic systems is a popular method in language acquisition (Wardhaugh, 1970), since its main goal is to provide a "cross-language comparison" model used to determine differences and similarities between languages (Fisiak, 1990, p. 5; Krzeszowski 1989, p.56). Jaszczolt (1995) believed that in contrasting languages micro-linguistic aspects such as phonology, grammar, and lexis, as well as macro-linguistic aspects such as semantics, pragmatics, sociological, and psychological studies have to be considered. Contrastive linguistics encompasses two areas: theoretical and applied (Fisiak et al, 1978), while the former is concerned with determining universal categories (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics) between two languages, the latter focuses on applying these theoretical disciplines to language teaching, translation and different researches on language acquisition (Jaszczolt , 1995). In this regard, although James (1980) believed that CA was more applied, Jaszczolt (1995) considerd it as both theoretical and applied; however, Jaszczolt (1995) mentioned that grammatical and socio-cultural competences are two justifiable reasons in both theoretical and applied researches.

What is important in CA is equating L1 and L2 forms semantically and pragmatically, since the best way of comparison in CA is semanto-pragmatic translation equivalence (Fisiak, Lipinska-Grzegorek, & Zabroski, 1978). To have an ideal contrastive analysis, it is significant to compare one text (A) in one language (L1) with its translation in another text (B) in the second language (L2) (Traugott, 2007), this is referred to as a bidirectional analysis (Altenberg & Aijmer, 2000).Contrastive grammar (CG) is a part of CA which focuses on the grammatical analysis of languages (Devos, 1995). Devos (1995) believes that CG is also concerned with phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics, and pragmatics, as in contrastive grammar, using definite and indefinite articles in English and their equivalences in Persian encompasses the area of grammar and translation together.

1.2 Definite and Indefinite Articles in English Language

Article acquisition in L1 begins in early stages of learning English, before the age of 4, therefore the number of errors in this area is drastically reduced (Butler, 2002). In English, determiners are classified into sub-classes, one of which is an article (Zahedi & Mehrazmay, 2011). An article is divided into two parts: definite and indefinite, while the definite article "the" is used before both singular and plural nouns, indefinite articles "a" and "an" are applied before singular nouns (Murphy, 1989).

For L2 learners of English, there is a complexity in the usage of these articles, so they face some challenges in their acquisition (Andersen, 1984). Therefore, it seems correct to say that the number one difficult section in the pedagogical literature is acquiring the closed system of articles for ESL learners, because this system encompasses "semantic notions of existence, reference and attribution; discourse notions of anaphora and context; as well as syntactic notions of countability and number" (Young, 1996, p. 135). Definite and indefinite articles, i.e. "the, a, an" are the most common words used in English (Butler, 2002). According to Sinclair (1991, cited in Dabaghi & Tavakoli, 2009) among 20 million English words, the most frequent word is definite article "the", while indefinite articles are in the fifth place.

Definite and indefinite articles (the, a, an) in English have different applications. While the former takes into account the previous knowledge and the familiarity of a word by the reader or hearer, the latter shows unfamiliarity of reader or hearer with a given word or topic (Power & Martello, 1986). For instance, Power and Martello (2008) explain that when a speaker or a writer talks about a referent such as "rabbit", he/she has to take into consideration whether to use definite or indefinite articles, therefore if the listeners or readers are confronted with this word for the first time, they use indefinite articles, and when the listeners or readers are familiar with this word, definite article "the" is used in the text.

Maratsos (1974) made a distinction between definite article "the" and indefinite article "a(n)" in English acquisition of children. In his study, he referred to some reasons of distinction through specificity and non-specificity, as the former is concerned with specific reference and using definite article "the", the latter doesn't show reference to any member of a class, and it is related to using indefinite articles "a(n)" (Maratsos, 1974).

Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman (1999, cited in Mobini & Tahririan, 2007) believes that one of the most controversial issues among ESL learners, who lack "articles" in their language, is with English articles. Through investigating learners with different L1 backgrounds, Master (1987-1988, cited in Butler, 2002) asserted that on the whole, for

learners who don't have articles in their language, such as Japanese, applying indefinite article "a" is more problematic than "the". In one study done by Snape (2005), the results demonstrate that languages which lack article system, such as Japanese, overuse "the" for all indefinite contexts. After analyzing the usage of definite and indefinite articles by L2 learners, Thomas (1989) claimed that L1 children use indefinite article "a" more accurately than L2 learners, in addition, both L1 children and L2 learners overuse definite article "the". Here, Butler (2002) believes that the problem is with L2 learners, as they lack sufficient English proficiency, they use the definite article "the" in a wide range.

Through investigating definite and indefinite articles in both English and Persian languages, contrasts in their application and translation become significant. Faghih (1997) investigated 105 Persian substantives with their English equivalents. As a result, he concluded that Persian language has no equivalence for English definite article "the", therefore, the acquisition of "the" causes some problems for Persian learners (Faghih, 1997).

1.3 Definite and Indefinite Articles in Persian Language

Definite and indefinite articles have had a place in Persian researches, especially due to being one of the contrastive controversial issues between Persian and English. Contrasts observed in different areas of grammar between L1 and L2 cause some problems in acquisition of second language (Dikilitas & Altay, 2011). As Geranpayeh (2000) believed, while the role of syntax is significant in using definite article in English, semantics represent this important role in Persian. For instance, in contrasting definite and indefinite articles between a pair of languages (e.g. Polish and English), sometimes there is no article system in one language such as Polish, or there is not any bound morpheme equivalent of the definite article "the" in English with other languages such as Turkish or Persian (Ekiert, 2007, cited in Dikilitas & Altay, 2011).

However, the main problem in distinguishing and applying definite and indefinite articles in Persian and English seems to be focused on the lack of appropriate equivalences for definite and indefinite articles in Persian (Ansarin, 2004). Recognition of definite article "the" is problematic for Iranian EFL learners (Mobini & Tahririan, 2007), although they may learn it before indefinite articles. Some researchers believe that learners' innate tendency is to learn and distinguish specificity before non-specificity (Dabaghi & Tavakoli, 2009).

Learners' errors regarding definite article "the" in Persian is because of its lack in this language, while indefinite articles "a" and "an" already exist in Persian (Faghih & Hosseini, 2012). As Jamshidian (2005) mentioned in her research on the achievement of Iranian EFL learners, in learning definite and indefinite articles both kinds of these articles show

definiteness and indefiniteness in Persian language. Sabzalipour (2012) investigated the errors related to a class of ten Iranian EFL students. Her study focused on the translations from Persian to English, and she concluded that about 14 percent of errors fall in the domain of definite and indefinite articles as learners omit indefinite ones or apply them incorrectly (Sabzalipour, 2012).

The purposes of the present study are to consider the application of definite and indefinite articles in EFL learning system, as well as in different EFL translated texts. In this regard this study aims to explore the application of definite article "the" and indefinite articles "a" and "an" in some stories, since this study has been structured on the basis of contrastive analysis to determine how these articles are used in Persian and English languages.

2. Method

2.1 Instrumentation

The data analyzed in this study are chosen from 10 Persian texts in which definite and indefinite articles exist extensively. The texts chosen are mostly historical or religious short stories. These texts are translated into English language. The original religious story book was published between 1980 and 1981, and its translation into English appeared in 2011. The translated book was published by Iranians' publishing houses, also all the translators and editors were Iranian native speakers.

2.2 Procedures

Among ten Persian texts, all definite and indefinite articles were selected and compared precisely with their equivalences in English to check the similarities and differences in their application between the two languages. In order to specify the data, tables were formed to include the frequency and percent of different application of definite and indefinite articles in Persian. Finally, the data obtained were used to compare how definite article "the" and indefinite articles "a, an" are applied in two languages.

3. Results and Discussion

After the close analysis of 10 Persian historical and religious texts, 135 cases of application of definite and indefinite articles were extracted. The results of this study show that familiar words which exist in Persian are translated into English through using the definite article "the". According to Murphy (1989) definite article "the" is used with those clear situations in which words are used for more than first time and because of this the reader or listener is

familiar with them, or it is used to point to specific referents (Serban, 2004). Therefore, although there is not a definite symbol in Persian language as in English (Boyle, 1966), Persian translators have considered this application in their translations into English. Table 1 shows the frequency and percent of the application of definite article "the" in different cases. According to the table, the frequency of familiar words is 43 and its percent is 72.

Table1. Use of "the" in English Translations

	Specific names	Familiar words	That(both the & a/an)	Indefinite in Persian
Frequency	5	43	9	3
Percent	8.3	71.6	15	5
Total cases				60
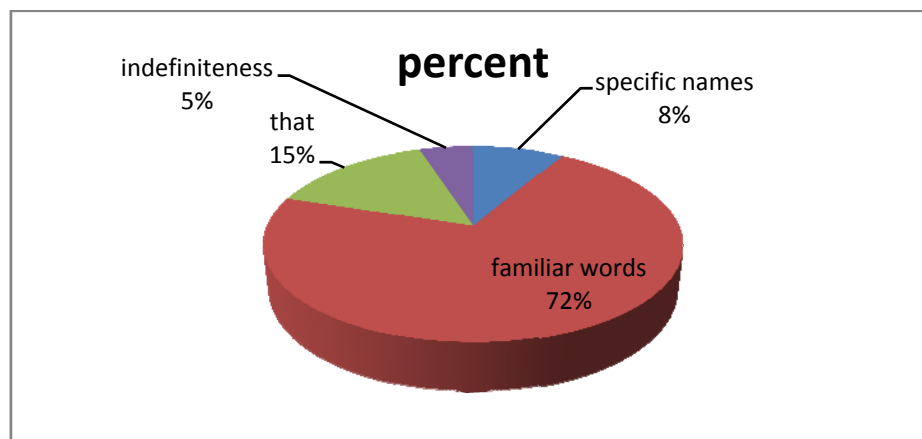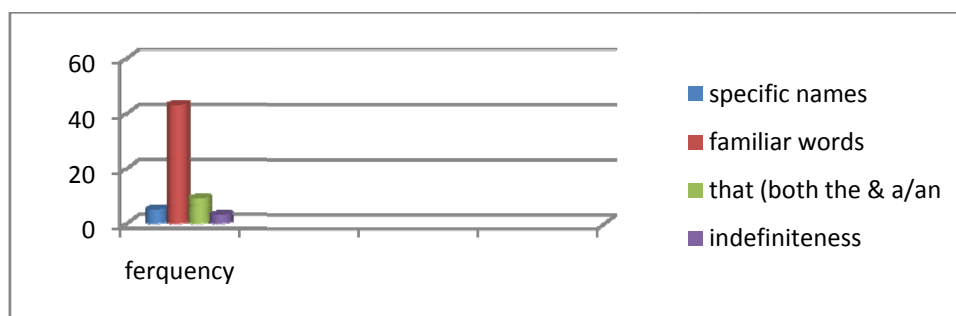
According to the results, 17 remained cases of the application of definite article "the" are observed in a position different from familiar words (43 cases), as 5 cases for specific names, 3 cases show indefiniteness, and interestingly 9 cases show using "that" for both "the" and "a, an". In translation from Persian to English, specific names, involving the names of specific places or popular figures, are followed by definite article "the". This issue would demonstrate the confusing usage of definite article "the" among Iranian translators. As Boyle (1966) asserted in his book, in Persian there is no place for the article "the".

In this way Boyle (1966, p. 16) tried to show that definiteness in Persian is different from English as it may be shown in the following cases:

1. Using a preposition in Persian sentence is as using definite article "the" in English, for instance, while the term "ra" in Persian is a definiteness marker (Ghomeshi, 1997), it is used to show definiteness in Persian sentences: "ab ra biavar" (Persian) is equal to the English sentence "bring the water".

2. Adding a relative suffix as "i" to some nouns in restrictive clauses in Persian put them in the definite situation, so this makes them be equivalent with "the" in English: "mard**i** ke" (Persian) and "the man who" (English).

3. Adding the suffix "e" to some nouns in colloquial language makes them definite: "pesar**e**" (Persian) is equal with "the son" in English.

Table 2 shows indefiniteness in two languages. According to Murphy (1989) indefinite articles are used in sentences to show unfamiliarity of readers or learners with some words or phrases since they are mentioned for the first time. Based on table 2, among 53 cases of application of indefinite articles in Persian, 29 cases are devoted to the correct usage of showing indefiniteness in English that can be 55 percent.

Table2. Using "a/an" in English Translation

	No indefinite articles	Number 1	Indefinite article
Frequency	14	10	29
Percent	26.4	18.8	54.7
Total cases			53
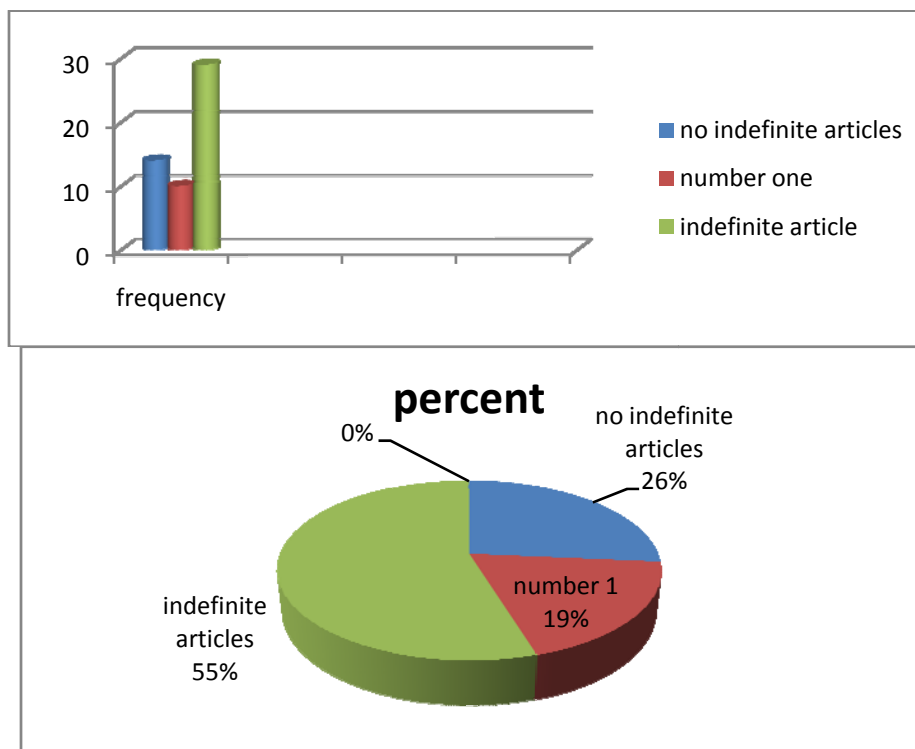
According to the obtained results, 24 remained cases have different applications. While 10 cases are used instead of number one in English translation, 14 cases of application of "a, an" are used in English texts without their existence in Persian texts. This shows that Iranian translators might have decided to omit indefinite articles "a, an" while translating in order to make more beautiful or understandable texts. In some models of text conversion, "a, an" in English are translated to "yek, meaning number one" in Persian (Feili & Ghassem-Sani, 2004). In this regard, Afzali (2012) believes that numeral "yek" in Farsi shows indefiniteness in English.

4. Conclusion

This study compared the application of definite and indefinite articles in English and Persian through comparison of 10 historical and religious short stories. According to the obtained results, the application of these articles didn't show full compatibility in two languages; however we discovered that most cases which showed the definiteness and indefiniteness in Persian resembled the English equivalents, for instance, based on the obtained results, familiar words showed the highest percent for definite article "the" with about 72 percent, and indefinite articles with about 55 percent demonstrated indefiniteness in Persian. However, the present study is restricted to historical and religious short story texts, so further researches might investigate the application of definite and indefinite article in other genres of writing, such as scientific ones.

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Title

**The Relationship between Teachers' Gender and Their Emotional
Attitudes**

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Biodata

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Abstract

Due to the rapid growth of the importance of learning English and its dominance over the world, as well as the crucial role of teachers in the development of students' learning, investigation of teachers' emotional attitudes is of utmost significance, especially in EFL context. However, there has been less of a focus on how the emotions and relationships that EFL teachers have can affect their professional development. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to design an instrument for finding out the relationship between teachers' emotional attitudes and their gender. Gender difference has been a controversial issue. Scientists have found that the brain structure of men and women are different (Rogers, 1999, Sax, 2005). To accomplish this aim, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 English teachers and the obtained data along with the results found from the related literature helped us in designing the first draft of our questionnaire. Then, the feasibility of the research was examined through 2 phases; at first with the help of 10 experts rating the items from 1 to 5, and then conducting a pilot study with 60 participants, from which the overall reliability of the questionnaire

was calculated (α=0.93). Finally, a sample of 200 EFL teachers of English from different regions of Iran filled out the questionnaire.The analysis of data from both interviews and questionnaires revealed that there is no significant relation between teachers' gender and their emotional attitudes.

Key words: Teachers' emotions, Gender, EFL context, Attitude

1. Introduction

There is a large body of research which shows that gender is a relevant variable which must be taken into account when explaining the functioning of classes and teacher-student interaction. Gender plays a critical role in education. Although many efforts are made to construct a test as valid and reliable as possible and teachers try to be fair in their judgments, a whole host of researches (Einarsson&Granström, 2002; Siskind& Sharon, 1997; Van Houtte, 2007; Peterson, 1998; Stagg Peterson & Kennedy, 2006) shows that gender may affect test results, teachers' assessments, and students' appraisals in the teacher-student interactions. The beliefs and the cognition of both the students and the teachers are deemed to be considerably influenced by gender and consequently they manipulate the way teachers and students make instructional decisions.

Beliefs and attitudes are difficult to be measured and it is recognized that they are manifested mostly in the way people behave. The assumption is that, these factors have profound influence on the way teachers and students decide on their teaching-learning processes and evaluations. The study conducted by Smith, et al. (1994) revealed that "female students were more sensitive to the interpersonal characteristics of their teachers"… while "male students were more sensitive to whether their professors were knowledgeable and had a good sense of humor" (cited in Acikgoz, 2005:108). Siebert(2003) reports that male and female students seem to differ significantly in their beliefs about different factors in their educational milieu. Bernart and Lloyd (2007) find that male and female students differ tenuously in their beliefs and they are significantly similar in their beliefs about many factors in educational climate.

2. Review of Literature

The rapid growth of the importance of learning English and its dominance over the world has made teaching profession one of the world's largest educational enterprises. Research on teacher development has extensively examined pedagogical and cognitive concerns,

especially on novice teachers (Freeman & Richards, 1996). However, an EFL teacher's professional life involves relationships with students, colleagues, parents and many others connected to the institutions that they work in (Cowie, 2010). Teaching is an emotionally charged activity and changing the way teachers teach is extremely difficult (Scott & Sutton, 2009). As Nias (1996) noted, teaching involves human interaction and therefore has an emotional dimension. Emotions frequently shape cognitions, and some emotion theorists include changes in cognitive functioning as part of their definition of the emotion process (Mesquita, Frijda, & Scherer, 1997).

The professional life of an EFL teacher is not limited to pedagogical and cognitive concerns, but also involves his/her relationship with students with whom he may spend a long time every day. In particular, there has been less of a focus on how the emotions and relationships that EFL teachers have can affect their professional development. As a matter of fact, although a lot of investigations have been conducted regarding learners emotions, personality types and styles, and individual characteristics, teachers' emotions have been neglected which could be regarded as a gap considering teaching as an "irretrievably emotional job" (Hargreaves, 2000,p.812). Although teachers may often hide their feelings, still students are often aware of and influenced by teachers' expression of both positive and negative emotions. Emotions may be expressed in several ways involuntarily and voluntarily (Sutton &Weathy, 2003).

Emotions are the focus of analysis, increasingly, among a number of professional settings, including education; however, emotion is the least investigated aspect of research on teaching, yet it is probably the aspect most often mentioned as being important and deserving more attention(Zambylass,2005). To date, emotions have largely been investigated through a range of scientific, biomedical, and psychological discourses that consider emotional phenomena primarily as ''individual'' and ''private'' (Lupton, 1998).It is believed that social relations and the dominance of either gender (usually male) affects teachers' lives. Female professionals are usually subordinate to male authorities in educational settings where professional interactions are usually characterized by marginalization of women (Bartlett, 2005). Since, as argued by social cognitive theorists (e.g., Bandura, 1995), efficacy beliefs are constructed and reconstructed through people's social experiences and interactions, it is rather impossible to deny influences of unequal power dynamics existing in the field of TESOL and the resultant explicit and implicit practices, such as unfaircompetition in male-dominated settings (Bandura, 1995), on women's efficacy beliefs (Davis & Sylvester, 2008).

Based on the above-cited researches, the null hypothesis put forward here is: *there is no relationship between teachers' emotional attitudes and their gender.*

This study aims to reflect on the following questions:

1. What emotions do Iranian EFL teachers perceive regarding their students, colleagues and work place?

2. Does any relationship exist between EFL teachers' gender and their emotional attitudes towards their students, colleagues and workplace?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants constituted two groups of teachers and raters who were teaching English at Iranian private and public English institutes countrywide.

3.1.1. Teachers

In this study the emotional attitudes of teachers towards their colleagues, workplace and students were investigated. In other words, teachers' views were studied and an instrument has been designed in form of a questionnaire. In this regard, firstly a group of 30 English teachers at Iranian English institutes were interviewed. The interviews were transcribed. Later using 'content analysis' the transcriptions were analyzed.

Then, 60 Iranian English teachers teaching at different private and public institutes participated in the pilot study, testing the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. At the final stage, 200 filled questionnaires were received from about 270 distributed questionnaires (both paper and electronic versions). To guarantee the generalizability of the results, the participants were chosen from 4 different regions of Iran: Rasht, Tehran, Mashhad and Shiraz through purposive sampling.

3.1.2.Raters

A group of 10 university English Language lecturers participated in the study in order to evaluate the items of the questionnaire which were based on the analysis of the interviews. They assessed the items critically to ensure their appropriateness and the content validity of the instrument. Their comments and suggestions along with the statistical evidence and the researcher's own views, were the main tools in the process of revising the items of the questionnaire. The main purpose was to come up with a user-friendly and clear instrument to operationalize emotions based on scientific methods.

3.2 Instrument

Data collected questionnaire consists of 65 items under 11 categories and the overall reliability of the questionnaire was α= 0.934.The reliability of the questionnaire was measuredafter implementing the pilot study, calculated through Cronbach's Alpha.

3.2.1 Semi-structured interview

In the first step, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 English teachers. Through these interviews, the researcher managed to obtain specific qualitative information from the sample as well as general information relevant to specific issues related to the aim of the study. Having known the basic questions to be asked in the form of an interview framework, the researcher gained a range of insights on specific issues through two-way communication with interviewees (Appendix B).

3.2.2 Closed questionnaire

In order to check the reliability and validity factors, the designed questionnaire went through three stages which had been suggested by Devellis (1991):

- generating an item pool

-reviewing the items by experts

-selecting the final items

(The final version of the closed- questionnaire is shown in Appendix A)

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The present study was carried out in several phases. Since the researcher was seeking an instrument to operationalize the emotions of English teachers towards three main factors, the following steps were needed to come up with a reliable and valid questionnaire:

Step one: Conducting Semi- structured interviews

Step two: Analyzing the obtained information

Step three: Designing the questionnaire

Step four: Administering a pilot testing

Step five: Preparing the final version and distribution of questionnaire

3.4 Data Analysis Procedure

In order to analyze the gathered data, several steps were taken to find an answer to the posed questions. In the first step, the transcription of the interviews went through content analysis. Then, a statistical analysis was done, using SPSS software version 19.0, to find out the frequency of the answers given by participants. Hence mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values were determined. In order to find out the main emotions that Iranian EFL teachers perceive regarding their students, colleagues they are cooperating with and their working environment, one-sample T-test was used. Also, Pearson Product-Moment

Correlation and Chi-Square Test were used to find out whether any relationship between emotions and gender (as a personal variable) of participants exist.

4. Results

Based on the analysis, the most frequent emotions that Iranian English teachers perceive regarding their students, colleagues and workplace are provided in the following table and discussed in details afterwards.

Table 1 *Feelings towards Students*

Feelings towards Students

1. Satisfaction as a result of their students' compliments

2. Satisfaction as a result of interaction with students

3.Satisfaction as a result of students' improvement

4.Dissatisfaction when students are not cooperating

5. Dissatisfaction because of heterogeneous students in class

6. Dissatisfaction as a result of traditional beliefs of students towards learning

7. Anger towards students when they keep repeating the same mistakes

8. Being close to students when they are adults

9. Being close to students as a result of having common interests
10. Going beyond the role of a teacher and becoming a moral guide to students
11. Friendship, because some of the students turn into close friends
12. Respecting different ideas in the class

This table indicates that there are 12 most frequent feelings that teachers usually experience towards their students, including satisfaction and dissatisfaction (based on different reasons), anger and respect. The participants also mentioned the way in which they feel close to their students, even regarding them as friends. In general, the expressed feelings were mostly positive and most of the interviewees believed that their relation with their students is one of the basic reasons for teaching.

Table 2 *Feelings towards Colleagues*

Feelings towards Colleagues
1. Suppression of feelings whenever there is a problem with another colleague
2. Anger whenever they just want to show off their abilities
3. Confidence, that if necessary, teachers can ask other colleagues for help or advice
4. Collaboration with colleagues through meetings
5. Respect towards other colleagues
6. Friendship, because some of the colleagues turn into close friends
7. Anger, when colleagues say unpleasant stuff about each other
8. Sharing problems with colleagues, when it seems helpful

As the table above represents, although the feelings described towards colleagues were not as positive as those in regard of students, it does not mean that there was no emotional warmth between them. Most of teachers preferred to share their experiences of different classes with their colleagues, and they found it useful to ask for help or advice. However, in some institutes, the competitive atmosphere caused negative feelings such as anger. As a matter of fact, the general relation between teachers was based on mutual respect and some of the participants named their colleagues as their best friends.

Table 3 *Feelings towards Workplace and Staff*

Feeling towards Workplace and Staff
1. Dissatisfaction when constantly being checked through cameras, observations, etc.
2. Dissatisfaction as a result of lack of freedom in the workplace
3. Anger, when the facilities are not available
4. Respect towards the staff

As shown in table 3, teachers' opinions of the institutions that they worked at were often positive and they were trying to stay optimistic. However, they complained about lack of trust and freedom, making them self-conscious of whatever they were saying, and consequently limiting their creativity. Source of some of the negative feelings were in lack of facilities such as computers, soft-wares, dictionaries and other materials in the classroom. All the participants expressed respect towards the staff they were working with, although their relations were limited to the workplace and were mostly a formal one.

In order to find the answer to the main question of the study and to see whether there is a relationship between teachers' gender and their emotional attitudes, the following tables and results of analysis could be helpful

Table 4 *Gender * Emotion Crosstabulation*

Count		EMOTION		
		Mean	Max.	**Total**
Gender	**Male**	*37*	*16*	*53*
	Female	*93*	*52*	*145*
Total		*130*	*68*	*198*

Table 5
Chi-Square table between teachers' gender and their emotional attitude

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.554[a]	1	.457		
Continuity Correction[b]	.331	1	.565		
Likelihood Ratio	.562	1	.454		
Fisher's Exact Test				.502	.285
Linear-by-Linear Association	.551	1	.458		
N of Valid Cases	198				

Table 6 *Cramer's V between teachers' gender and their emotional attitudes*

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.053	.457
	Cramer's V	.053	.457
N of Valid Cases		198	

According to the tables above, level of significance is higher than 0.05 and there is no significant relationship between teachers' gender and their emotional attitudes.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this study, notwithstanding its limitations, shed some light on the relationship between emotional attitudes and their gender. "Gender in the EFL classroom" is a phrase which may conjure up in teachers' minds no more than complaints about the use of *he,* or about textbooks being sexist. Closer examination, however, suggests that gender operates at more than the level of materials. Other levels include: the English language itself, classroom processes, learning processes, teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction. These levels interact, always within a particular political, sociolinguistic, and educational context. Due to the specific situations of learning English as a foreign language in Iran, also a country with its particular social and religious background, this study was conducted to find out whether there is any relationship between teachers' gender and their emotional attitudes.

Much has been written over the last decades about sexism in the English language (e.g. Kramer, 1975; Cameron, 1985), and about nonsexist language change (e.g. Bate, 1978; Cooper, 1984). Linguistic sexism at code level has been identified in the pronoun system ('generic' *he, him, his, himself); 'generic' man;* masculine and feminine 'equivalents', which

through 'semantic derogation' (Schulz, 1975) are not so now, the feminine being often less prestigious and/or having sexual connotations (e.g. *master/mistress, manager/manageress);* under-lexicalization *(*husband-swapping party);* over-lexicalization (e.g. the number of verbs used disparagingly for women talking and of nouns referring to sexually active women), and 'male firstness*(men and women).* Discussions of change focus on, *inter alia,* the use of *s/he,* 'singular *they'* (which is not new), Ms, -person words, and alternative, more familiar 'neutral' forms: e.g. *flight attendant.* There is evidence of change in written English: 'androcentric generics' may be disappearing, for example (Cooper, 1984), and though there is less evidence for change in spoken English, personal observation indicates this is happening in some contexts. Lesson transcripts made from tapes have shown secondary- and tertiary level teachers of mixed classes to pay more attention to male students (Spender, 1982: 56; Stanworth, 1983: *22)* - even when the teachers are committed not to doing so and even when they think they are distributing their attention equally.

Still the question exists: what would a 'non-discriminating' classroom look like? Not one in which each student got an equal amount of teacher attention, surely, since *individual* needs and other differences must be catered for. There are several important studies which prove that gender, on the part of both the teacher and the student, is a relevant variable that must be taken into account when explaining the functioning of classes and the types of interaction which occur therein. For example, McAuliffe (1994) and Kamler (1993) found that the characters depicted in pieces of written work carried out by students often reflect certain gender stereotypes. Furthermore, in examining group discussions among students, Evans (1966) has shown that there is an abundance of individual beliefs on gender domination and subordination which allows some people to be heard more than others. A number of these studies are supported by research in ELT. For example, it has been shown that male language learners tend to dominate conversations and produce more language output; female students, on the other hand, tend to initiate more conversations and receive more input (Gass&Varronis, 1986).

In terms of teacher gender and its effect on students, research such as that conducted by Wilkinson and Marret(1985) has shown that this variable must be taken into account when attempting to explain perceptions and behaviors in schools.

As far as the gender factor and interaction between instructors and students is concerned, various studies indicate that boys and girls are treated differently by their teachers. Brophy(1985) and Meece(1987) has shown that teachers pay more attention to boys, give them more answers in public, praise them more frequently and criticize them more

harshly when they under-perform or behave badly. Their research concludes that the differential behavior of teachers is a consequence of gender differences in the behavior of the students

While teachers may express that they pay little attention to gender differences in the classroom, a number of scholars, including Ropers-Huilman(1997) and Weiler(1988) have stated that teachers' identities do influence their teaching practice. Their own background and their status in relation to their gender affect the ways in which they construct their teaching behavior, their interaction and relations with their students. The teachers' identity as male or female is closely related to authority in the classroom and educators have expressed the concern that students often consider male teachers as authoritarian and female teachers as too soft and unable to control some undisciplined situations Ropers-Huilman(1997).Even though according to the present study, teachers' emotions towards different teaching situations are not related to their gender, students may still behold the traditional views.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Final Version of Questionnaire   General information

All information is completely confidential.

Age:….   Gender: male / female

Years of language teaching experience:...Field of study/Degree:….

➢ *Instruction: You are kindly requested to fill this questionnaire, which has been especially designed for our research on Teachers' Emotional Attitudes towards their Students, Colleagues and Workplace . We appreciate your sincere responses, which are no doubt of great value to our purpose. Please read the following questions and choose one answer from strongly agree(1) to strongly disagree(5).*

	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree/disagree(3)	Disagree(4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
➢ *Satisfaction*					
1. **I feel satisfied whenever I hear others appreciating**					

	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree/ disagree(3)	Disagree(4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
me as a good teacher and compliment my effort to teach.					
2. The most important source of my satisfaction is my income (financial aspects).					
3. My students are the reasons that I feel satisfied with my job.					
4. I love my job.					
5. I feel satisfied with my job because of the interaction between me and my students.					
6. I feel satisfied whenever I see my students' improvement.					
➢ *Dissatisfaction*					
7. I feel dissatisfied whenever I cannot do my best.					
8. I feel dissatisfied when students are not cooperating.					
9. I feel dissatisfied when I am constantly checked through observations, cameras, etc.					
10. I feel dissatisfied with my job because I have to censor myself and I am not free.					
11. Heterogeneous classes make me feel dissatisfied.					
12. I feel dissatisfied because students have traditional beliefs towards learning and they don't accept new methods.					

➤ *Interaction with Colleagues*					
13. **When I have a problem with a colleague, I'd rather keep it in my mind.**					
14. **When I have a problem with a colleague, I just suppress my feeling.**					
15. **I feel mad at my colleagues, when they just want to show off their abilities.**					
16. **I feel mad at my colleagues, when they say unpleasant stuff about me.**					
➤ *Anger towards the Institutional Context*					
17. **Whenever I feel angry because of the institutional context, I try to be positive and deal with it.**					
18. **Whenever I feel angry because of the institutional context, I would talk with the manager.**					
➤ *Anger towards Students*					
19. **I wouldn't become angry with the students because I know they haven't got a good sense of learning.**					
20. **I am annoyed when a student keeps on committing the same mistakes.**					
➤ *Being Close to Students*					
21. **When my students are adults, I am very close to them.**					
22. **When my students share interests with me, I feel**					

	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree(2)	Somewhat agree/disagree(3)	Disagree(4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
very close to them.					
23. Most of my close friends are my students.					
24. There is a friendly atmosphere in the class but my students are not my friends.					
25. As an English teacher, I am closer to my students than other teachers and I try to eliminate the boarders between teacher and students.					
26. I've gone beyond my role as teacher and become a "moral guide" to my students, because I believe that we are teaching the culture as well.					
27. Sometimes I go beyond my role, but I think we have got to have some redlines.					
28. I don't go beyond my role and I try to be indifferent to the topics.					
29. I think you've got to be more careful with the opposite sex.					
30. I think you've got to be more careful at the beginning of the term when you don't know their points of strength.					
31. I try to be equal to all my students, no matter they are male or female.					
32. Sometimes because of cultural reasons you may unintentionally make a difference.					
33. You have to follow the social norms, because of that I DO treat my students differently.					

	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree(2)	Somewhat agree/disagree(3)	Disagree(4)	Strongly Disagree(5)
➢ *Interaction with Students& Colleagues*					
34. I believe the most interaction between teacher and students usually happens through discussions.					
35. Students like to communicate when the topics are related to their lives.					
36. I share my personal life with my students because it encourages them to talk.					
37. I share my personal life with my students because then they start sharing as well and it is authentic interaction.					
38. I share my personal life with my students because when you talk, they can see you as a real person.					
39. I think sharing my personal experiences helps creating the bond between me and my students.					
40. I share my problems with my colleagues because I think it is really helpful.					
41. I just ask those colleagues who have more experience to help me with my problems.					
42. I am confident that, if necessary, I can ask my colleagues for advice.					
➢ *Emotions and Staff*					
43. I usually don't talk with the staff about anything beyond the work.					
	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree(2)	Somewhat agree/disagree(3)	Disagre e(4)	Strongly Disagree (5)

44. When it is necessary, I am able to ask a colleague for assistance.					
➤ *Creating Rapport*					
45. In order to create rapport with my students, I go for topics that they can share.					
46. In order to create rapport, you highlight their positive features.					
47. In order to create rapport, having some sense of humor would help.					
48. In order to create rapport, I usually start with their interests and then we progress to more personal issues.					
49. In order to create rapport, I respect all the ideas in my class without any personal criticism.					
➤ *Collaboration*					
50. In order to collaborate with other colleagues, we have regular meetings at the institute.					
51. In order to collaborate with other colleagues, we have meetings but they are not regular.					
52. Sometimes we share any piece of useful information through email with each other.					
53. There is a respectful relationship between me and my colleagues.					
54. Some of my colleagues have become my close friends.					
55. My relation with the staff is just a formal one.					

	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree(2)	Somewhat agree/disagree(3)	Disagree(4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
56. I know the names of people working at the institute, but we are not close.					

> *General Feeling towards Your Career*

	Strongly Agree(1)	Agree(2)	Somewhat agree/disagree(3)	Disagree(4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
57. I generally feel so positive about my job.					
58. My job is one of the priorities in my life.					
59. I like my job but the long hours of work make me feel so tired.					
60. Teaching is the best thing I can do.					
61. I like my job because of the interaction with the students.					
62. Teaching is indeed a fulfilling job.					
63. I can never quit teaching cause I like dealing with people.					
64. Teaching is not a boring job, it is rather a social life.					
65. I feel that if I had to choose again, I would choose teaching one more time.					

> **If there are other points not mentioned above, please write them below. Thank you in advance….**

Appendix B: The Interview Questions

• What are the most important sources of your satisfaction in relation to your job as a teacher?
• What are the most important sources of your dissatisfaction in relation to your job as a teacher?
• How close are you to your students?
• Have you ever felt like a 'moral guide' to them?
• Have you ever tried to build a kind of bond with your students? How?
• What are the ways in which you collaborate with other teachers as your colleagues (email, meeting, etc.)?
• How do you create rapport with your students?
• Have you ever gone beyond your role as an English teacher?
• What are the sources of your anger (towards your students, colleagues and workplace)?
• How long would your anger last?
• Is there a difference between the way you treat your male and female coworkers?
• Do you usually talk about your emotions with your colleagues? Would it be helpful?
• Have you ever become angry because of the institutional context? Did you try to solve it? How?

- Do you know the name of the staff where you are working?

- Do you usually talk with the staff about anything beyond the collegial relations and issues? How close are you to them?

- Have you ever asked your colleagues to help you at any situation? Would you do that again?

- Use an adjective to describe your relation with the following:

  - Students

  - Colleagues

  - Workplace

- How do you generally feel about your job?

- Feel free to add anything which you believe has been missed through the discussion.

Title

An Exploration of RA Abstracts: From Schematic Structure to Modalization

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Abstract

Much has been said about rhetorical structure of RAs; however, there are very few studies on the interactions between move structure and modality. The present study seeks to explore the distribution of modal verbs within generic moves in abstracts using IMRD model of move analysis. The corpus includes 100 RA abstracts written by non-native writers in Persian Gulf University, Boushehr, Iran. The abstracts were selected from different fields including chemistry, agronomy, Persian literature, mechanical engineering, physics, fisheries, industrial management, civil engineering, psychology, and agriculture. The findings showed that distribution of modals was significant only within move 3, thus indicating the importance of modal uses both in rhetorical structure and pragmatic functions of writing RAs in ESP. It is hoped that a genre-based description of RA abstracts could help ESP learners to be aware of how writers are academically supposed to link modal verbs with rhetorical structure in abstract sections.

Keywords: English for specific purposes, Move analysis, Modal verbs, Research articles abstracts

1. Introduction

There is no denying that research articles (RAs) published in the scholarly journals provide their author or authors a sense of accomplishment and success (Swales, 2004).They are taken for granted as the primary tools for global scientific communication.It is often claimed that writing RAs is a challenging task for non-native English writers (Belcher, 2007; Curry and Lillis, 2004; Hanauer and Englander, 2011). In this regard, the international English journals ask non-native authors to have their manuscripts reviewed by a native English speaker before submission (Li and Flowerdew, 2007).

A number of RAs have abstracts displaying the content of the following sections in condensed manner.According to Bhatia (1993, p. 78), abstract "as commonly understood, is a description or factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article." Research article (RA) abstracts are supposed to play an important role in transferring knowledge in the academic community. They address the whole content of the accompanying article in abridged manner (Salager-Meyer, 1990). As time-saving devices, abstracts would help readers know whether the article is worth any further reading (Martin, 2003). In his view, inexperienced writers should learn the overall organization and linguistic features of abstracts to write an effective text. As Ventola (1994, p. 333) notes, abstracts ''have become a tool of mastering and managing the ever increasing information flow in the scientific community.'' Lorés (2004) writes that abstracts are marked as different genres from RAs in terms of function, rhetorical organization, and linguistic manifestation. He maintains that the function of an abstract is determined by its overall organization as well as linguistic devices. It is commonly acknowledged that abstracts represent the rhetorical structure of RAs which is IMRD structure (Introduction-Methodology- Result- Discussion) (Graetz, 1985; Jordan, 1991; Nwogu, 1990). Abstracts can share many features with RAs; however, they have distinct structures which distinguish them from other sections of RAs and establish abstracts as a particular genre (Lorés, 2004).

There is a general understanding that abstract isa particular genre with a unique rhetorical and linguistic structure. In this regard, it is not surprising that in recent years the rhetorical structures of abstracts have been the focus of many studies (Bonn and Swales, 2007; Chan and Foo, 2004; Cutting, 2012; Dahl, 2004; Hyland, 2000; Hyland and Tse, 2005; Samraj, 2005; Stotesbury, 2003; Willey and Tanimoto, 2012). All of the studies have focused on the schematic structure or "move" of abstracts along with some linguistic features. Zhen-ye (2008) provided evidence that first-person plural pronouns are more frequent in the abstracts than other types of pronouns. In his view, first-person plural pronouns have multiple functions in abstracts. Gillaerts and Velde (2010) studied a corpus survey of abstracts in the

journal of *Pragmatics* analyzing the interpersonality in RA abstracts. They present evidence that in the course of 30 years the degree of interpersonality realized in hedges, boosters, and attitude markers has abated. Along similar lines, Pho (2008) examined 30 abstracts from three journals in applied linguistics and educational technology. It becomes clear from the study that the realizations of the moves were similar across the disciplines;however, macro-structures of the abstract vary in the corpus. As Martin (2003) maintains, despite the emphasis on the importance of abstract writing for non-native English speaking writers, most studies have privileged the analysis of abstracts written by English background academics dismissing the writing conventions of abstract structures acquired in other cultures. Although the academic genre of abstracts has been investigated on the micro-level in terms of adjectives, lexical frequency, pronouns, and thematic features and on the macro-level (moves), in the ESP/EAP literature there have been few detailed investigations of modal verbs within the generic moves of RA abstracts.

The purpose of this study wasto provide a detailed description of modal verbs within rhetorical moves in the RA abstracts written by non-native English speaking (NNES) authors. It was felt that Iranian researchers need a comprehensive understanding of the genre structure of RA abstracts. This study has made an attempt to look at how modals are used and distributed within generic moves in RA abstracts by ESP writers from a diversity of fields of study. Presenting a clear picture of interplay between modals and rhetorical moves within abstracts, this study intended to provide valuable findings for ESP writing courses that are assumed to help NNES writers become more aware of the conventions of academic writing. Although some ESP writers might have the implicit knowledge of developing an abstract, hardly do they know the interaction of modal verbs and generic moves in the abstracts. Thus, the results in the study would assist ESP authors in having a better academic dominancy over preparing an abstract.

1.1.Modality in ESP

Modality has been considered as a main characteristic of academic writing. Downing and Locke (1992) represent two different dimensions of modality: epistemic and deontic. On the one hand, epistemic modals suggest that language users appraise "the probability that the proposition is true in terms of the modal certainty, probability or possibility" (Downing and Locke, 1992: p. 382) as in the following example: *it may be said that…*.On the other hand, deontic modals allude to the way that writers "intervene in the speech event by laying obligations or giving permission" (Downing and Locke, 1992: p. 382). Modals are realized by the linguistic features among which modal verbs play an important role. Modality links

writers' intentions with readers' understanding. It, in fact, displays the discourse producers' subjectivity (Lyons, 1977; Palmer, 1986). Besides their qualification relevance, modal markers are cohesion devices functioning rhetorically in the discourse (Englebretson, 2007; Kärkkäinen, 2007)

The general purpose of social interaction in either modes of communication is to make addressees do or act what the addressers please. Modal verbs are employed for regulating perceptual and social reactions of listeners (Bascelli and Barbieri, 2002). Hoye (1997) represented a list of nine modal verbs as the central modal auxiliaries in English: *will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should* and *must*. The list has been advocated by Coates (1983), Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (2002). Of the modals in the list some express deontic semantic meaning such as intention, permission, and obligation (e.g. *You must be at school at 7 a.m.*) and epistemic meaning linked with the level of certainty (e.g. *He might be my new student*).

Modalization has been extensively investigated by ESP researchers. Void (2006) investigated the modality across two disciplines(language and medicine) in research articles (RAs) written in three different languages, English, Norwegian, and French. The results illustrated that English and Norwegian writers favored epistemic modality markers more than the French authors. Interested in analyzing textual features in RAs, Piqué and et al. (2001) provided evidence that modality seems to be determined by the type of discipline. They observed that health science RAs used more epistemic modals while literary criticism RAs favored a blend of both deontic and epistemic modals.

2. Study

2.1.RA Corpus

To have a large sample of RA abstracts displaying adequately the diversity of generic moves and modals, a total of 100 abstracts from 10 majors includingchemistry, agronomy, Persian literature, mechanical engineering, physics, fisheries, industrial management, civil engineering, psychology, and agriculture were selected. The selected abstracts were parts of complete research articles written by non-native English speaking faculty members and postgraduate students at Persian Gulf University of Boushehr. From each major 10 abstracts were randomly selected for the following reasons: (1) to exhibit a high amount of representativity, (2) to encapsulate a variety of subject matters, and (3) to cover a wide range of modal choices and rhetorical moves. The corpus of the study has allowed a wide range of

abstracts from different disciplines in order to reflect the diversity of modal uses within the moves.

RA abstracts were selected based on the following guidelines. On the premise that different disciplines have their specific writing regulations (Bazerman, 1981; Hill, Soppelsa, and West, 1982; Samraj, 2002; Swales, 1990), we collected corpus from different majors to manifest the similarities and differences in ESP majors in using modals within generic moves in the abstracts. Further the corpus was limited to the abstracts with the conventional pattern of IMRD (introduction-method-results-discussion) pattern (Swales, 1990; Weissberg and Buker, 1990). The first article that conformed to the IMRD format was included in the corpus. Having abstracts follow the IMRD structure provided consistency and tenacity in the corpus analysis of the given modals.

2.2.Corpus analysis

This study included two parts: moves coding in the abstracts and an identification of modal verbs within the codified rhetorical moves. The present study adoptedIMRD model as a benchmark for coding moves in the RA abstracts: Move 1: Introduction, Move 2: Methodology, Move 3: Result, and Move 4: Discussion. Before examining the abstracts the researcher read the RAs in their completeness to eschew from biased comprehension or misunderstanding of the articles. In line with literature, the identification of the moves was made on the basis of comprehension of texts, linguistic elements, textual partitioning, and typographical evidences (Connor and Mauranen, 1999; Ding, 2007; Mauranen, 1993; Nwogu, 1997; Peacock, 2002).

Moves identification provides a baseline for the examination of the modals. In the second part of the study, the researcher scanned the identified moves in the abstracts sections for the purpose of modal verbs identification (*may, might, can, could, must, should, would, and will*). Modal verbs were manually counted with a special focus on the context of their use. The frequency of occurrence of modal was accounted in percentage within the identified moves. In order to keep away from missing any modal verbs,the researchersrepetitively reviewed the moves. It was an essential process that necessitated going back and forth within the abstracts. At the outset of the study it should be put, however, that the analysis was centered on the distribution pattern of the modal verbs rather than that of moves. Within each move in the abstract sections, the occurrence of each modal was identified so that its frequency and percentage could be measured.

The present study used qualitative and quantative methods in the corpus analysis. The quantative method servedthe distribution of occurrence of each modal verb within each

move. It provided a comparable data in terms of frequency of modal verbs within different moves along with significance of modal pattern within the identified moves. In the light of qualitative approach, it was tried to designate the pragmatic intentions underlying the use of modal verbs within each move and to identify the interaction between moves and modal verbs in the context of RAs.

Modal verbs were counted for distributions, and their frequency was displayed through tabulation. To determine the significance of the distribution of modal verbs within the moves, inferential statistics, Chi-square, with a significance of $P \geq .05$ was used.

3. Findings

The analysis of RA abstracts from different disciplines has revealed an interesting variation of modal uses within the rhetorical structure. A summary of differences in the frequency of each modal verb in the RA abstracts has been reported in Table 1. While a majority of modal verbs (29.31%) were equally found in the first and last moves, the second move accounting for 15.51% of the total number of modal verbs has embodied the least amount of modal distribution. In general terms, *can* was found to be the most dominant modal auxiliary within all moves constituting more than half of all identified items. While surprisingly enough, modals *might* and *should* were not employed in the corpus at all, thus indicating that authors in all majors show lack of tendency to use these modal verbs within all moves in their abstracts.

As regards introduction move, four modals including *may, can, must*, and *will* were equally distributed (11.7%), while no case of *might, could, should*, and *would* was found in the corpus. The analysis of this specific corpus indicated that the most heavily loaded modal verb within methodology move was *can* which contained more than half of all modal verbs (55.5%). On the other hand, *must, would*, and *will* were used in the smallest percentage, which together made up the other half of all identified modal verbs. Like the first move, there were some modals within this move modals with no frequency including *may, might, could,* and *should*. Expressed in quantitative terms, *can*, as it was mentioned above, was the most prominent modal within move 3 with 60% of the total modal verbs. In this move *may, might, must, should,* and *will* with no case of occurrence were the least prominent modal verbs. The findings within the last move partially resembled the modal distribution in the introduction move. In similar vein, reference to *can* was far more frequent in the move 4 constituting 47% of all other modal verbs, as opposed to *might, could*, and *should* with no occurrence.

As fordistribution of modals within moves, all Asymp. Significances measured for the comparison of the modal uses within three moves (1, 2, and 4) werehigher than 0.05, thus explaining that the frequency difference was not significant. Surprisingly enough, the distribution of modals within the move 3 was the only pattern that was significant given that Asymp. Significance for their occurrences was .000 ($p > 0.05$).

Table 1 *Frequency and Percentage Use of Modal Verbs within Moves in ESP Abstracts*

Moves	May	Might	Can	Could	Must	Should	Would	Will	Total	Chi-square	Asymp. sig
Introduction	2(11.7)	0	11(64.7)	02(11.7)	0	0	2(11.7)		17(29.31)	1.4	.2
Methodology	0	0	5(55.5)	0	1(11.1)	0	2(22.2)	1(11.1)	9(15.51)	.5	.7
Result	0	0	9(60)	5(33.3)	0	0	1(6.6)	0	15(25.86)	1	.000*
Discussion	3(17.6)	0	8(47)	0	2(11.7)	0	1(5.8)	3(17.6)	17 (29.31)	.8	.6

4. Discussion

This study aimed at describing the behavior of modals within rhetorical moves in the RA abstracts written in ESP fields by faculty members and postgraduate students at Persian Gulf University, Boushehr. To this end, a rhetorical framework of abstracts (IMRD) was used to analyze the RA abstracts of ten different fields of study. The study made an attempt to closely examine the interaction between generic moves and modal verbs. The outcomes of the study thus support preceding studies showing the variation of modal uses in the academic writing (Salager-Meyer, 1992; Hyland, 2005; Parkinson, 2011).

In regard to the frequencies of modal verbs in RAs, findings in above section revealed interesting differences and similarities in distribution of modal auxiliaries within the moves. Of the eight modals examined in the study (i.e., (i) may, (ii) might, (iii) can, (iv) could, (v) must, (vi) should, (vii) would, (viii) will), *can, will, may, could*, and *must*were overalland sequentially more prevalent in the investigated corpus.

More specially, the overall findings obtained in the investigation distinctly indicated that modal verbs relatively behaved similarly within each move. All given moves made the most frequent use of *can,* in the corpus. On the other hand, *would* with four cases of occurrence was the least frequent modal. The following examples illustrate this issue in four moves respectively:

Example 1. The cause of any movement or endeavor is motivation which **can** be internal or external.

Example 2. Although numerical problems such as instability, oscillation and underestimation near critical depth **can** be seen by using other methods but DQMsolution is smooth and accurate in this case.

Example 3. Also, 3 **can** catalyze the acetylation of various alcohols by the reaction of alcohols with ethyl acetate under reflux conditions or with acetic anhydride at room temperature.

Example 4. The catalyst **can** be reused.

Example 5. The cyanide source (ethyl cyanoformate) employed herein was relatively cheap and less toxic, which **would** be beneficial.

Move 1 and 4 (Introduction and Discussion) were recognized the largest moves embodying a large number of modals in the corpus (29.31%) while the lowest amounts of modals were identified within move 2 (Methodology, 15.51%).

Regarding some modals, interesting findings were observed. *Might* and *should*had no identification within the four moves in the analyzed corpus. Likewise, *could* was totally absent within all moves except move 3 (Result); the following example shows the use of *could* within move 3.

Example 6. It has been shown that Arena **could** be used in simulation of traffic signals system, despite the fact that Arena is not designed for modeling urban traffic signal control.

As the results display high occurrence of modals *can*, and *will* within four moves across the whole analyzed corpus, it could be argued that the aforementioned auxiliaries have been used for epistemic purposes stressing hypotheticality and tentativeness. The high frequency of *may*, *can*, and *could* within move 3 and 4 could indicate that they enable writers to calm the underlying forceful positions with respect to the politeness techniques [face saving act, see Johari, 2012] and to confirm the safety of their claims (García, 2000). Since within moves 3 and 4 authors make an attempt to generalize and describe the established knowledge and also to make claims and explain differences in the outcomes, these modalsassist writers to modulate their assertions through alleviating modals. Although some writers use *may* and *can* for their respective legal and epistemic functions and believe that *can* does not have tentative interpretation, it is also argued that assessment of possibility and uncertainty could be shown through the negative form of *can* (Perkins, 1983) as in example 7 below.

Example 7. Research findings **cannot** justify a relationship between Hierarchy culture and e-learning readiness. However, it does not mean that writers would refrain from their commitment to their propositions. In fact, they avoid compelling readers to accept their claims and hypothesis (Falahati, 2004). The choices of the modal support the Parkinson's

(2011) observation that RAs tend to be tentative and cautious; this goal, indeed, can be achieved through epistemic meanings reflectedby modal devices.

Regarding deontic modals, the study has revealed interesting low proportion of them. Unlike the ability and possibility modals, deontic modals like *must* received relatively less attention in academic writing. So, it could be claimed that the latter group is less prevalent in the formal academic discourse (Hinkel, 2009). The present findings are in harmony with those in a study by Biber et al. (1999). They found that the overall distribution of obligation and necessity in academic writing is relatively half of the uses of epistemic modals. Smith (2003) similarly discusses that lately a dramatic decrease in the frequency of obligation/necessity modals has been witnessed. The author ascribesthe decline in uses of deontic modals to the socio-linguistic changes in academia. It is generally stated that writers use deontic modals to fortify their claims and exert objectivity in the study (Meyer, 1997).

Regardless of discussing and comparing outcomes with those in the previous studies, this study has presentedinformativefindings concerning the variation of modal verbs within each move. Given that Asymp. Significances for the modal distribution within moves 1, 2, and 4 in the study werehigher than 0.05, it is not far-fetched to say that distribution of modal verbs was statistically insignificant within the given moves. This implies that non-native writers have low tendency to use modal verbs within these moves. On the other hand, Move 3 was identified as the only move with significant distribution of modals. This implies that ESP writers are more oriented to use modals within move 3 in the abstracts than in other generic structures. Based on the reported results, further research may be done to consider the modality variations from different aspects and in different parts of RAs. The present study focused on the abstract sections; however, other studies would replicate the same study in other sections such as introduction, result, and methodology. Other studies may also focus on how frequency of other forms of modality may vary in the RA abstracts. Further studycould also examine the researchers' awareness of using modal devices, drawing a border line among disciplinary variations.

Concerning pedagogical implications, it seems important to persuade novice writers in ESP to know the need to use relevant modal elements within different moves of RA abstracts. It is argued that the less authors are aware of tentative constructs in the academic writing; the more they are prone to use putative structure while academic research writing requiresto be more cautious and tentative (Parkinson, 2011). The need for such awareness is more essential for NN English writers in ESP domain because RA writing is a daunting job for them (Kanoksilapatham, 2011) and they need help (Peacock, 2011).

More specifically, findings can make faculty members and postgraduate students at Persian Gulf University more aware of the conventions of writing well-organized abstracts. As English has proved its dominancy in academia as global communicating tool, "non-anglophone researchers" have encountered challenges and problems for publishing in the international journals (Sheldon, 2011). In the same vein, authors in non-native countries may have problems in preparing well-written research articles and finally publish in the international journals (Cargill and O'Connor, 2006; Gosden, 2003; Salager-Meyer, 2008; Wood, 2001).Rejection of non-native writer's articles in the international refereed journals is also attributed to the language problems and rhetorical deviation (Alimorad and Sahragard, 2012, Sayfouri, 2010). For example in a country like Iran, according to Mirsharifi, Aminian, and Jafarian, (2008, p.7), "every year only less than 7% of Iranian scientific publications find their way to international citations." Non-native English speakers should follow the academic principles of English language to have a successful publication (Duszak, 1994). Therefore, the findings in the present firmly suggest that academic conferences and seminars be held at universities like Persian Gulf University to make faculty members and postgraduate students cautious of the conventionsof RAs. Such activities in the academic environments could increase their knowledge of the construction of RAs as well as the chance of publication in the high impact journals.

The findings of the present genre-based study may also help ESP material designers and instructors prepare relevant writing materials that show how professional writers commit to their propositions and make a well-developed RA. ESP instructors may introduce pertinent writing strategies/skills to SL writers to sensitize them to the expectations of a research community and also to the reading-writing interface. In reading classes, awareness ofstructure of a genre helps learners "create an appropriate rhetorical context in which to present their ideas" (Hudson, 2007, p. 205). As a result, providing practices that familiarizes learners with both language selections and rhetorical patterns in abstracts strengthens learner's ability to comprehend authentic RAs that widen their insight how and when modals are used in general and within moves in RA sections in particular.

Acknowledgment

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Title

Correct I or I Don't Correct Myself: The Effect of Corrective Feedback on EFL Students Writing

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Abstract

A hot debate is in progress between giving corrective feedback (CF) to students on promoting their writing ability and accuracy or not giving CF. This kind of dilemma that might be caused by the controversial researches published over the last 20 years baffled teachers about giving or not giving CF. After Truscott, J. (1996) gave a case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes and Ferris, D.R. (1999) gave a case for grammar correction the question got tougher. The purpose of the current investigation is to shed light on giving written CF to the EFL students writing. For the purpose of this study, 160 EFL students of Azad University participated in an extracurricular course; there were three experimental groups and a control group. The results emphasized the idea that it was cleared that giving corrective feedback should be considered as a productive way in improving EFL students writing.

Keywords: Corrective feedback, CF in writing, L2 writing class, Corrective feedback to EFL

1. Introduction

A fundamental question for second language teachers to help them to develop their students' ability and accuracy in their second language writing is "in which way should teachers correct their students' written productions?" Since 1996 when Truscott first published the article "the case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes" debate about whether to give L2 students feedback on their written grammatical errors has earned a great interest to researchers (Ferris, 1999, 2002, 2004; Truscott, 1996, 1999). On several grounds, Truscott (1996) claimed that grammar correction has no effect in writing accuracy promotion and should be abandoned. From an analysis of studies by Kepner (1991), Semke (1984) and Sheppard (1992), Truscott concluded that there is no convincing research evidence that error correction ever helps student writers improve the accuracy of their writing. He maintained that this finding should not be surprising. On the one hand, he argued that error correction, as it is typically practiced, ignores SLA insights about the gradual and complex process of acquiring the forms and structures of a second language (Bitchener & Young, 2005). On the other hand, he outlined a range of practical problems related to the ability and willingness of teachers to give and students to receive error correction (Truscott, 1999). Moreover, he claimed that error correction has harmful effect because it puts away time and energy from productive aspects of a writing program. Not surprisingly, these claims have since generated considerable amount of vigorous debate at international conferences and in published articles (Ellis, 1998; Ferris, 1999; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Truscott, 1999).On the other part of the bridge, Ferris (1999) claimed that his arguments were premature and overly strong given the rapidly growing research evidence pointing to ways in which effective error correction can and does help at least some student writers. While acknowledging that Truscott had made several compelling points concerning the nature of the SLA process and practical problems with providing corrective feedback, Ferris maintained that the evidence he cited in support of his argument was not always convincing (Bitchener & Young, 2005). As Chandler (2003) also points out, Truscott did not always take into account the fact that reported differences need to be supported with statistically significant evidence. In addition, Ferris maintained that there were equally strong reasons for teachers to continue giving feedback, among them is the belief that students have considered its value. However, Ferris did accept that it is necessary to consider ways of improving the practical issues highlighted by Truscott. Despite his call for the abandonment of error correction, Truscott (1999), in his response to Ferris, acknowledged that many interesting questions remain open and that it would be premature to claim that research has proven error correction can never be beneficial under any circumstances. However, he suggested that researchers and teachers should acknowledge that grammar correction is, in

general, a bad idea until future research demonstrates that there are specific cases in which it might not be a totally misguided practice. . In this research we aim to investigate the controversial question of whether giving CF can helps L2 writers to achieve greater proficiency over linguistic errors, measured by promotion and improving in accuracy when L2 writers use verb patterns after model verbs in writing in new written texts over an eight week period.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Much interest has been expressed in recent years in literature on the effectiveness of giving CF for helping L2 writers to improve the accuracy of their writing (see Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Sheen, 2010). Besides, there is evidence that written CF can help writers improve their written accuracy when asked to revise their texts (Ferris, 1999, 2006). Moreover, there is large amount of evidence on long-term effectiveness of written CF on accuracy improvement, revealed in the writing of new texts (Bitchener, 2008, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2010; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009). There seems to be some doubt, however, about the extent to which accuracy improvement in text revisions can be seen as a predictor of improved accuracy in new text writing over time (Sachs & Polio, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008).

Although there is growing evidence of the relationship between written CF and accuracy improvement over time, the research base has so far been limited to testing its effectiveness with certain linguistic error domains and categories. Thus, the extent to which written CF is effective for different domains and categories of linguistic knowledge has yet to be more fully explored. Truscott (1996) has argued that no single form of correction can be expected to help learners acquire knowledge of all linguistic forms and structures because the acquisition, for example, of syntax, morphology, and lexis requires an understanding not only of form but also of meaning and use in relation to other words and other parts of the language system. Referring to syntactic knowledge, for instance, he argues that written CF cannot be expected to facilitate the acquisition of such knowledge because it comprises more than a collection of discreet items. The research done by Mackey and Oliver (2002), on syntactic structures like question forms, has revealed positive effects when oral CF is provided. If the hypothesized advantages of written CF over some forms of oral CF prove to be true (see Sheen, 2010, for a discussion of differences between the two modalities), it may be that written CF is able to target complex forms and structures (e.g. syntax) as well as, and maybe better than, oral CF. So far, limited research has focused on the role of written CF for helping learners acquire

specific linguistic forms and structures. Those that have been published have tended to investigate the effectiveness of written CF for treating discrete, rule-based items. One study (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005) investigated the effect of written CF on three linguistic error categories (use of the English article system. The past simple tense, and prepositions)and found it to be effective for helping L2 writers improve their accuracy in the first two, rule-based, categories, but not in the more idiosyncratic use of prepositions. That study did not examine which particular functional uses of the article system were most effectively targeted with the feedback (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005). Given the range of functional use of the article system in English, it is important to know whether written CF is more effective in targeting certain uses rather than all uses. In a series of more focused studies on the extent to which written CF can effectively treat specific functional uses of the article system, Bitchener (2008), Bitchener and Knoch (2008a, 2008b, 2010), Ellis et al. (2008), Sheen (2010), and Sheen et al. (2009) investigated its effect on two particular functional uses of the English article system (the use of the indefinite article for first mention and of the definite article for subsequent or anaphoric mentions) and found that writers who received written CF outperformed those who did not receive CF. Gains were evident in both the immediate and delayed post-tests, thereby demonstrating that written CF can have an immediate effect on the writing of a new text and that the level of improvement can be retained over time. Several researchers (Bitchener et al., 2005; Butler, 2002; Ferris, 2002, 2006) have noted that advanced writers continue to experience difficulty in their use of the English article system.

A range of studies has investigated the extent to which different types of written CF may have an effect on helping L2 writers improve the accuracy of their writing. These studies have categorized written CF as either direct or indirect. Direct CF has typically been defined as that which provides some form of explicit correction of linguistic form or structure above or near the linguistic error. It may consist of the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/ morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, and the provision of the correct form or structure. More recently, direct CF has included written meta-linguistic explanation and sometimes oral form-focused instruction. On the other hand, indirect CF has been defined as that which indicates that in some way an error has been made but it does not provide a correction. It is typically provided in one of two ways: (1) underlining or circling an error and (2) recording in the margin the number of errors in a given line. Rather than the teacher providing an explicit correction, writers are left to resolve and correct the problem that has been drawn to their attention (Bitchener et

al., 2005). In earlier research (Ferris, 2003), the provision of a code to show the category of error also tended to be included within the indirect category.

Theoretical arguments have been advanced for both the direct and indirect approaches. Those supporting indirect feedback suggest that this approach is best because it invites L2 writers to engage in guided learning and problem solving and, as a result, promotes the type of reflection on existing knowledge that is more likely to foster long-term acquisition and written accuracy. Those more in favor of direct feedback suggest that it is more helpful to writers because it (1) reduces the type of confusion that they may experience if they fail to understand or remember the feedback they have been given (for example, the meaning of error codes used by teachers); (2) provides them with information to help them resolve more complex errors (for example, syntactic structure and idiomatic usage).

Studies that have investigated the relative merits of different types of feedback have tended to be grouped according to those that have compared (1) direct and indirect types of feedback; (2) different types of indirect feedback; and (3) different types of direct feedback. Considering, first, those that have compared direct and indirect types, Lalande (1982) reported an advantage for indirect feedback; Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) and Semke (1984) reported no difference between the two approaches; and Chandler (2003) reported positive findings for both direct and indirect feedback. Limitations in the design and execution of these studies (see Bitchener, 2008; Ferris, 2003; Guenette, 2007 for discussion of these issues) and differences in their contexts and in the proficiency level of their participants make it difficult to assess the value of the claims that are made. It should also be noted that most of these studies did not look at new pieces of writing, so they provide no information about the long-term effectiveness on written accuracy.

Studies by Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Robb et al. (1986) investigated the relative effectiveness of different types of indirect feedback and found no difference between types. However, the operationalization of indirect feedback raises questions about how the constructs were defined and investigated in these studies. Several recent studies have examined the relative effectiveness of different types of direct CF on improved accuracy. Bitchener et al. (2005) compared the effect of different direct feedback combinations typically practiced in advanced proficiency classroom settings: (1) direct error correction (placed above each error) plus oral meta-linguistic explanation in the form of 5 minute one-on-one conferences; (2) direct error correction;(3) indirect error correction in form of circling; and (4) no corrective feedback. They found that those in group one who received direct error correction and oral meta-linguistic explanation outperformed both groups two and three for the past simple tense and the

definite article but found no such effect for prepositions. They suggested that the addition of oral meta-linguistic explanation may have been the crucial factor in facilitating increased accuracy.

Bitchener (2008) investigated the effectiveness of other direct feedback combinations: (1) direct error correction with written meta-linguistic explanation (of the rule and an example of its use) and oral meta-linguistic explanation (in which discussion and clarification occurred); (2) direct error correction with written meta-linguistic explanation (of the rule and an example of its use); (3) direct error correction; and (4) no corrective feedback. Feedback was provided on only two functional uses of the English article system (the indefinite article ''a'' for first mention and the definite article ''the'' for subsequent or anaphoric mentions). Groups one and three outperformed the control group while group two only just failed to do so. When the study was extended (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2009) to include an additional 69 learners, no difference was observed between the same three treatment combinations. Thus, it is possible that the larger sample size eliminated the difference in effect between group two and the other two treatment groups in the first study (Bitchener, 2008).

Another study by Bitchener and Knoch (2010), investigating over a 10 month period the relative effectiveness of the same four different feedback approaches, found that each of the groups who received one of the treatment options outperformed the control group and that there was no difference in effectiveness between the three treatment groups, suggesting therefore that none of the written CF options was any more effective than another. The special significance of this finding was its investigation over a 10 month period and therefore its longitudinal measurement of the effectiveness of different types of CF on accuracy retention.

Sheen's (2007) study of the relative effectiveness of two types of direct feedback (error correction and written meta-linguistic explanation) also found no difference between the two feedback options in the immediate post-test, but in the delayed post-test conducted 2 months later found an advantage for written meta-linguistic explanation over direct error correction. Sheen suggests that the passage of time may have been the critical factor in facilitating this delayed effect for meta-linguistic explanation.

3. Method

3.1 Aims:

The essence of this investigation is to study the controversial question of whether giving CF can helps low advanced L2 writers to achieve a greater proficiency over linguistic errors, measured by promotion and improving in accuracy when L2 writers use verb patterns after modal verbs in

writing in new written texts over an eight week period.

3.2 Research Question:

Does using CF for low advanced EFL writers improve their accuracy in correct verb pattern after modal verbs?

3.3 Participants:

A total of 220 EFL students of Azad University Branch of Ghorveh , all male and ranging in age from 21 to 24 years participated in this experimental study. It should be stated that they are all originally Iranian and Persian was their first language. The participants were recruited to participate in a writing skill training program as a summer extracurricular course at Azad University. Prior to this program, a test had been delivered among 211 students and according to the result 160 students were ranked as low advanced EFL writer. There was also a survey questionnaire on how these 160 students liked to be provided with feedback and the interesting thing was almost 95% liked to be provided feedback by direct instruction of the teachers and only 5% liked to be provided feedback with their own investigations and studies.

3.4 Instrument:

A pretest-posttest design was run. For collecting data three pieces of writing were required. The subject of these three writings was a-250-essay on "where do you want to go for your holiday?" this topic was selected because of two reasons: (1) the topic requires writers to use verb pattern after modal verbs,(2)the program was held in summer so the topic was been like real one because students were heading for holiday. It should be mentioned that four teachers were responsible to run pretest-posttest design. A Pretest was conducted at the beginning of the instruction; an immediate posttest was conducted 3 days after the pretest and 45 minutes immediately after giving feedback, and delayed posttest at the last week (week eight). Three different types of written CF were used in this investigation: (1) direct written CF (DCF) in the form of written meta- linguistic (2) indirect written CF (ICF) in the form of underling (3) form focused written CF (FFCF) (4) and group four without any CF (NoCF). For analyzing data tests of one way ANOVA and two-way-repeated-measure ANOVA were used. It is worth mentioning that for the purpose of increasing accuracy in data analysis, SPSS 16 was used.

4.5 Procedure:

160 EFL students of Azad University attended in four classes in the beginning of the course. They were divided into four classes in order to be suited with four types of treatments; (1) Direct written CF, (2) Indirect written CF, (3) Form focused CF, and (4) No giving CF. Group one received DCF in the form of meta-linguistic, group two received ICF in the form of underling, group three received FFCF instruction, and group four received no CF. Three days

elapsed and on fourth day the written texts(those revised by the teachers) were returned for three treatment groups with three different types of CF. Once again should be stated that there was no type of CF for the control group. After students considered their feedback about 45 minutes, the immediate post test was administered. Four days later the immediate post test results with different types of CF were returned. During the time between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest, teachers were required not to give instruction on verb patterns after modal verbs. There was set a criterion for the scoring procedure: for each wrong use of verb patterns after modals there were -4 scores for students and the score was based on 100. It should be stated that in these three tests teachers just examined verb patterns after modal verbs and nothing else. For assuring the ratter reliability, four teachers rated each piece of paper and then the average score was computed. At the last week (week eight) the delayed posttest was administered and its results were computed.

4. Result

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for three treatment classes given CF and the control group without giving CF.

Table 1 *Descriptive statistics for mean test scores by group and testing period*

Group	N	Pre-test		Immediate Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Direct CF	40	64.15	14.36	68.25	11.75	69.65	12.36
Indirect CF	40	62.87	11.61	66.05	10.29	66.55	11.36
Form Focused CF	40	60.60	13.55	63.10	11.93	64.40	12.52
Control	40	59.77	14.65	56.15	14.67	55.05	13.96

By analyzing the means, it is crystal clear that only three treatment groups were able to improve their mean accuracy at the time of immediate posttest and to make use of it in the delayed posttest. Decreasing in means of control group is obvious, which indicates the importance and the effect of CF in accuracy promotion. DCF with the promotion of 5.50 in mean score might show the importance of giving written CF in the form of meta-linguistic. As a whole, the improvement in mean scores of the three treatment groups and the drop in the mean score of the control group indicate the importance and the effect of giving different types of CF and based on them the answer to the research question is verifiably positive.

Fig 1 provides a visual representation of the mean score of three treatment groups and the control group during the pretest, immediate post test, and delayed posttest.

Fig 1Mean score of three treatment groups and control group
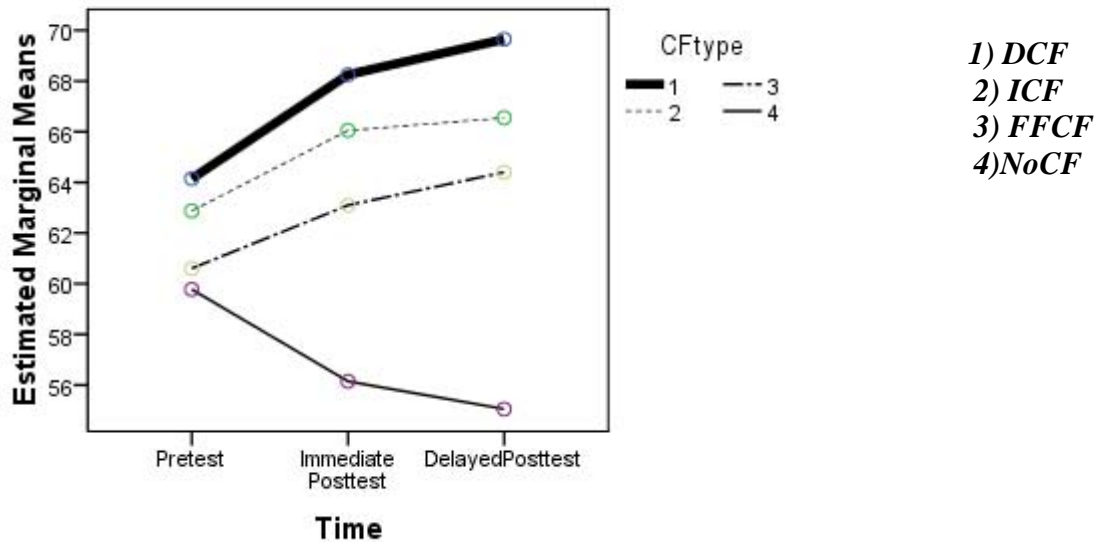

Fig 1 illustrates, while the three treatment groups increased in the delayed posttest, the rate of DCF is a little bit more than the other two types of CF. It is also illustrating that the control group mean score in the delayed posttest dropped dramatically.

Because one way ANOVA has involved some statistically problem regarding to data analysis in which it indicates no statistically significant differences between the three groups at the pretest time, a two way repeated ANOVA was used. Three level CF types were entered as independent variable and scores and time in three levels were entered as dependent variables. Table 2 describes the result that there is no significant interaction between types of CF and time p=.092. Knowing this, the interpretation of the main effect became easier. Now CF types (one of the main effect) were significant; showing significant differences among the three groups p=000. The fact that Time the other main effect isn't significant shows there is no significant difference over three testing time p=.519. Tukey's post hoc pair wise comparison was run to show the three groups were significantly different with each other.

Table 2 *Two way repeated measure ANOVA*

Source	Df	f	p
Between subjects CF types	3	18.86	.000
Within subjects Time	2	.66	.519
Time* CF types	6	1.83	.092

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the present study confirm that correction feedback helps students to improve their writing accuracy when they receive correction feedback on their writing, thus supporting the findings of previous investigations (Truscotte& Hsu, 2008,p.229; Bruton, A, 2007;Guenette, D,2007;Ferris,2004,p52).

The research question studied whether giving written CF on using correct verb patterns after model verbs helped low advanced EFL students to improve their writing accuracy in this case. For addressing the question the results of the study clearly showed that all three treatment groups – Direct CF, Indirect CF, and Form focus CF– outperformed the control group in the immediate posttest and immediately after they were provided with different types of CF, like what happened in the study of use of English article done by Bitchener & Knoch,2010, in which the treatment groups outperformed the control group. To state it in differently, all three treatment groups' accuracy improved after they were provided with different types of CF. It should be noticed that although treatment groups accuracy improved, the share of Direct CF is a little bit more than the other two types of CF in improving writing accuracy and it is a good confirmation to what Bitchener & Knoch, 2010 investigated on the use of English articles. To discuss it, in EFL contexts students are in habit of getting knowledge directly from its source. In the case of language learning teacher is the first and foremost source of learning for students so they just want to get feedback from their teacher.

These results support recent studies on correct use of verb patterns after model verbs with low advanced proficiency students (Sheen, 2007; Sheen et al., 2009). In each of these studies, the effectiveness of giving written CF was evident immediately after it had been provided in the immediate post -test pieces of writing and its effect was retained in the delayed post -test as well.

The dramatic drop in control group in the delayed posttest is interesting, yet questionable. It was revealed in the questionnaire which was administered at the first of the program that

students have the habit of being provided with feedback directly and by their teachers so the rational reason for this drop is quite clear, they liked to be provided with feedback with the teacher and had no interest in obtaining it by themselves as they stated in the questionnaire that they liked to be prepared with direct feedback and when this providing feedback weren't done the scores dropped and the mean score dropped respectively.

The findings of this study is restricted to giving corrective feedback to EFL low advanced students on correct use of verb patterns after model verbs so further research examining other linguistic features would be a useful follow up to this study.

A pedagogical implication of the findings of the study for giving corrective feedback on correct using of verb patterns after model verbs in EFL contexts is that giving direct form of CF in the form of meta-linguistic provides students with an excellent means to improve their writing accuracy. In this regard, teachers can give a report on the students writings in which indicate the problematic part for the students. These kinds of report serve as good direct corrective feedbacks which are in accordance with EFL writing context features.

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Title

Translating Cultural Terms in *Harry Potter*

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Abstract

This study aimed at analyzing an English literary work (*Harry Potter*) and two of its Persian translations by Eslamieh and Riahi Pour, and comparing and contrasting the translation of extracted cultural elements (proper names, and metaphors and similes), based on Venuti's 'domestication' and 'foreignization' methods of translation. The research dealt with translation troubles from English into Persian and one of the major relevant problematic forms; (cultural differences between the two languages), which may even result in untranslatability. Regarding this, Venuti's theory has been applied to one of the eminent literary works of the contemporary English literature, *Harry potter and The Goblet of Fire*. Since the realm of culture is too vast to deal with, this work was narrowed down to some culture specific elements (proper names, metaphors and similes) as these elements play a prominent role in Rowling's works. The results to some extent revealed the reason of more acceptability of Eslamieh's translations, as 'domestication' was more frequently used in Eslamieh's translation of proper names, which helped the TT gain the innateness of the original text, while she employed 'foreignization' method more than domestication for translating the text's metaphorical expressions, this approach conveyed the magnificence and

peculiarity of the ST metaphorical expressions, and corresponded to the author's style.

Keywords: Culture Specific Items, Metaphorical Expressions, proper names, Source Language (SL), Target Language (TL)

1. Introduction

Translating culture specific items or cultural terms is one of the most challenging tasks to which a translator may encounter. These elements (metaphors, idioms, proverbs, puns, sayings, etc,) are profusely found in literary works. The literary genre that appeals to the reader the most is novel. Subsequently, the paper was designed to analyze the translation of one of the most popular novels of the time (*Harry Potter*) which is read by many teenagers, youths, and adults all over the world, and is very well read in Iran too, regarding the translation of two culture specific items (proper names, and metaphorical expressions) which are critical features of Rowling's (2000) fictions. Then, the translations would be compared and contrasted according to Venuti's 'domestication' and 'foreignization' methods.

Translating culture specific items is one of the most difficult tasks in translation. As the term (culture specific) itself conveys these items are specific to one language and culture. Hence, providing an element in Target Language (TL) which corresponds to a source Language element may be difficult in some cases as the TL may lack that element, as in the cases in which we face untranslatability.

Analyzing translation of 'proper names' and 'metaphors', and 'similes' in *Harry Potter* seems to be very important, since as previously was mentioned these terms are difficult to be translated. The two features are plentifully used in fictional texts which are very appealing to both professional readers and ordinary people. Besides, *Harry Potter* is a very famous novel all over the world, and the book has been accepted greatly by Iranian readers. Another important thing is that *Harry Potter* is famous for its metaphorical expressions and particularly for its proper names. In a way that one of the most important factors in Rowling's (2000) success is using invented names that are truly incredible and somehow strange. The names are so purposefully used that each name can convey many things about the character by itself. Therefore, the translator should be very careful with translating them.

The purpose of the present paper is to analyze the translation of the culture specific items, in *Harry Potter's* fourth book, to see whether it appeals to Iranian readers or not. For this purpose Venuti's (1992) procedures- 'domestication' and 'foreignization'- have been selected.

The first one is TL oriented, meaning that it concentrates on the reader needs and expectations, and tries to be appealing to the reader. The other one is SL oriented, and it focuses on the author's intentions and his style. The translations had been studied to observe their impact and acceptability.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

As Munday (2001) quotes: 'Domestication' is realized as "translating in a transparent, fluent, 'invisible' style in order to minimize the foreignness of the target text" (p, 146). Therefore, in 'domestication' all foreign elements are adapted into the dominant target culture, thus depriving the target audience of critical features of the source culture. To put it differently, 'domestication' is the approach that privileges the target culture over the source culture, moving the author/creator towards the reader/audience. Venuti (1998) believes that the translation process includes not only translating a text, but also other related actions. In his opinion, readers have always a negative opinion about translations, assuming that the cultural and linguistic features of ST have been modified to fulfill TL's expectations and needs. This process of modification occurs at every stage in TT's production (translation), circulation and publication, its acceptance and the latter reviews. It starts with choosing a foreign text which accommodates to the values and goals of the TL culture. It continues as the translator chooses a strategy that also corresponds to the TL values, and it is later on completed with various factors such as the publishing industry, reviewer's notes, and so many other factors which are under the influence of a bigger cultural, social, political, and religious context (Venuti, 1998).

Munday (2001) defines 'Foreignisation' as an approach to translation which can be illustrated as "sending the reader abroad," as Venuti defines it (p, 147). Venuti (1998) insisted on 'foreignization' method and he called it minoritizing method which makes a heterogeneous discourse. This method as Venuti (1998) claimed, excludes the cultural values of TT. The procedure (Venuti, 1992) leaves the author alone as much as possible and moves the reader toward the author. It is a method which assumes that the translated text does not pretend to be an original, and where the foreign identity of the source text is emphasized. 'Foreignisation' privileges the source culture, and it evokes a sense of otherness.

2. Definition of terms

2.1. Translation

According to Munday (2001) 'translation' is the process of changing the original written text (Source Text or ST) in the original verbal language (Source Language or SL) to a written text

(Target Text or TT) in a different verbal language (Target Language or TL). This process involves adapting SL elements to TL, and since every language's syntactic, semantic, phonological and graphological system is different from another language the translator may encounter some difficulties in the process especially if there is a gap between two languages or cultures.

3.1. Translation Studies

Translation studies refers to an academic discipline which deals with the study of translation, including literary and non-literary translation, different forms of oral interpretation, dubbing and subtitling. Although translation has been subject to studies from the time of Cicero in the first century BC, translation studies has just become an academic discipline from the second half of the twentieth century (Baker, 2001). Formerly, translation was considered as a subfield of linguistics (Munday, 2001), but nowadays as an interdisciplinary and independent field of study, translation studies interfaces with a wide range of disciplines including linguistics, philosophy, literary studies, cultural studies, language engineering, etc. (Hatim & Munday, 2004).

3. Review of the Related Literature

As Munday (2001, p. 4) claimed "the term translation itself has several meanings: it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the translated text), or the process (the act of producing a translation)".

3.1. General cultural implications for translation

One of the most challenging tasks in translation is translating culture –bound elements. One of the definitions of 'culture' as given in Longman dictionary is: the system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that the members of society use to cope with one another. More concerned with language and translation is Newmark's (1998a) definition of culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression" (p.94). This definition of culture indicated his acknowledgment that each language has its own culturally specific features. Nida (1964) discussed the problems of correspondence in translation, and bestowed equal importance to both linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL and concluded that cultural differences might cause more difficulties for the translator than differences in language structure.

Cultural problems are in the form of lexical, syntactic, and differences in life ideologies. And as Newmark believed a translator should keep some points in mind in translating cultural terms (1988a). Of outmost importance are the aims of ST and ST author, intended readership of the ST and TT, importance given to certain cultural aspects and the extent to which their translating is necessary, and the text type (Newmark, 1988a). It was further explained that parallels in culture often provide a common understanding despite significant formal shifts in the translation. The cultural implications for translation are thus of significant importance as well as lexical concerns.

Bassnett, as well pointed out; the translator must deal with the SL text in a way that the TL version will correspond to the SL version. (S)He should attempt to enforce the value system of the SL culture onto the TL culture (1980). Consequently, while translating, it is important to consider not only the lexical impact on the TL reader, but also the manner in which cultural aspects may be observed and make translating decisions in view of that.

3.2. Different perspectives toward the translation of cultural terms

Newmark (1988a) proposed two strategies for translating cultural terms. The first one was transference which results in retaining the local color of the ST i.e. keeping cultural names and concepts. The second procedure as Newmark (1988b) stated is componential analysis, which is the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message. Componential analysis is based on a component common in the SL and TL. But the translator should keep in mind that this procedure is not as economical and lacks the pragmatic impact of the original.

On the other hand, Hervey and Higgins (1992) defined culture bound terms as "terms which refer to concepts and institutions which are specific to SL culture" (p.2). They (1992:2-6) proposed the following four techniques for translating cultural words:

1.   Functional Equivalence: using a referent in the TL culture whose function is similar to that of the source language (SL) referent.

2.   Formal Equivalence or 'linguistic equivalence': It means a 'word-for-word' translation.

3.   Transcription or 'borrowing' (i.e. reproducing, or transliterating the original term): It stands at the far end of SL-oriented strategies. If the term is formally transparent or is explained in the context, it may be used alone. In other cases, particularly where no knowledge of the SL by the reader is presumed, transcription is accompanied by an explanation or a translator's note.

4.   Descriptive or self-explanatory translation: It uses generic terms to convey the meaning. It is appropriate in a wide variety of contexts where formal equivalence is

considered insufficiently clear. In a text aimed at a specialized reader, it can be helpful to add the original SL term to avoid ambiguity.

Cultural terms like idioms, proverbs, sayings, jokes puns, proper names, and metaphorical expressions should be treated very carefully, and one should adopt a very cautious attitude toward these words or expressions so as to avoid language misuse (Kussmaul, 1995). Among different cultural implications which may cause cultural untranslatibility, this study emphasizes on three culture specific features (proper names, metaphors, and similes), and their translation in the fourth book of Harry Potter's series (*Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*).

3.2.1. Proper names

Several translation theories have been proposed by different scholars about translating proper names. Newmark (1988a) classified proper names to three types: people's names, geographical names, and names of objects.

Harry Potter series are abounding with names of people from different origins. These names, mostly, have a meaning and demonstrate some features of the characters they are associated with. For example, *Harry Potter* means a constant Fighter'.

3.2.1.1 Strategies for translation of proper names

Newmark (1988a) proposed a list of 14 procedures to translate 'proper names'. The seven major strategies are:

1. 'Transcription' (adoption, transfer, loan-words); the basic procedure.

2. 'Literal Translation'; used when the SL term is transparent or semantically motivated and is in standardized language.

3. 'Through Translation' (calque, loan translation)

4. Recognized Translation

5. Cultural Equivalence

6. 'Translation Label'; an approximate equivalent or a new term, usually a collocation.

7. 'Translation Couplet'; the most common form of translation couplet consists of the transcription of an institutional term followed by its translation.

Leppihalme (1997:79) proposes another set of strategies for translating proper names:

i. Retention of the name:

  a.   Using the name as such.

  b.   Using the name, adding some guidance.

  c.   Using the name, adding a detailed explanation, for instance, a footnote

  ii. Replacement of the name by another:

a.   Replacing the name by another SL name.

b.   Replacing the name by a TL name

iii. Omission of the name:

a.   Omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means, for instance by a common noun.

b.   Omitting the name and the allusion together.

This paper employs the strategies proposed by Newmark (1988a), and compares two translations of the book *(Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire)* considering his strategies.

3.2.2. Metaphorical expressions

Metaphorical expressions as defined by Newmark (1988a) include: metaphors, similes, proverbs, idioms, metonymy and etc. Among these figures of speech or metaphorical expressions, 'metaphors' and 'similes' are of the paper's primary interest. According to Oxford English Dictionary (1995: 384) 'metaphors' are figures of speech "in which a name or descriptive term is transferred to some object different from, but analogous to, that in which it is properly applicable. Newmark believed that 'metaphors' have two major functions: their first function is making a comparison between two things, and their second purpose is appealing to the sense (1988a).

'Metaphors' have been widely discussed within the discipline of Translation Studies, predominantly with respect to translatability and transfer methods. It had been argued that 'metaphors' can become a translation problem, since transferring them from one language and culture to another one may be hampered by linguistic and cultural differences. According to Newmark (1988b) there are four steps in translating 'metaphors' and 'similes'. The first step which seems to be the most difficult step is recognizing metaphorical expressions from non-metaphorical ones. The second step is discovering the different parts of a metaphorical expression (image, topic, and sense). Next, we should be able to recognize different types of metaphors. And the last step is choosing a proper method for translating the metaphor.

3.2.2.1 Types of metaphor and their translation strategy

Newmark distinguished six types of metaphors: dead cliché, stock, adapted, recent and original, and discusses them according to the translation procedures (1988a).

1- 'Dead metaphors' are the types that we are not aware of their being a metaphor because of overuse. Newmark (1988a) believes that their translation is not normally difficult, and they can be translated by literal translation.

2- 'Cliché metaphors' are placed between dead and standard metaphors. Here the translator can choose between reducing the cliché to sense or replacing it with a less tarnished metaphor.

3-He defines 'Stock' or 'standard metaphor' as an established metaphor which in an informal context is an efficient and succinct method of covering a physical or mental situation. The first and most satisfying procedure for translating stock metaphors is to reproduce the same image in TL.

4-Newmark's definition of 'adapted metaphor' is: metaphors which are adapted to a language, and he believes that they should be translated by the same adapted metaphors in TL (1988a).

5- 'Recent metaphors' are metaphorical neologisms which are often anonymously coined and had spread rapidly in SL. They should be treated like other neologisms, with particular reference to the exportability of the referent and the level of language of metaphors.

6- 'Original metaphors' are created or quoted by SL author. These 'metaphors' should be translated literally, whether they are universal, cultural or subjective (1988a).

Larsen (1984), on the other hand divided metaphors and similes to dead and live metaphors. She defines 'Dead' metaphors as those which are a part of the idiomatic constructions of the lexicons of the language, and 'Live' metaphors as metaphors which are constructed on the spot by the author for illustrating something. Larsen believed that in dead metaphors keeping the image is not important while the meaning should be preserved (1984). Afterward, she proposed five procedures for translating live metaphors (ibid):

1- If the 'metaphor' has naturalness in receptor language it should be kept;

2- A 'metaphor' may be replaced with a simile;

3- A 'metaphor' may be replaced with a metaphor in TL that has the same meaning

4- The 'metaphor' may be kept and the meaning explained;

5- The meaning may be explained without keeping the metaphorical imagery;

3.2.3. Studies conducted in Iran

Frunza (2005) worked on the translatability of culture specific items, and among them her primary focus was on metaphor translation. She concluded that what determines the transibility of a metaphor is not its originality, but the extent to which it could be accepted by the linguistic and cultural experience of TL.

Shabani (2008) wrote a paper about metaphor translation too. The title of her paper was translation of image metaphors in Shahnameh Ferdowsi. She analyzed two traqnslations of Ferdowsi _ Warner's translation and Davis translation. She concluded that there were more tendencies toward literal translation and an SL oriented text in Warner's translation, while in

Davis translation there were more tendencies toward explicitation, simplification, and a more TL oriented text.

Standowics (2009) analyzed the translation of proper names in *Harry poter and the philosopher's stone*. She appreciated the fact that many names were left untranslated, which enables readers to discover their meaning on their own. It might mean that in the era of progressing globalization the need for domestication, even in children's fantasy literature, is on the decline. Enclosing a glossary at the end of the novel, where the translator explained the more difficult proper names (both translated and untranslated by him) as well as units of measurement and names of English dishes—was also a very useful technique in children's literature.

Sanati Pour (2010), worked on translation of personal names, she concluded that whatever strategy a translator uses S /He should mention the original name in parentheses or in the footnote.

4. Method

4.1. Corpus of the Study

This paper aims at comparing the translation of culture specific words (puns, proper names, idioms and metaphors) in the 4th book translated by Eslamieh and Riahipoor. Between the translations in the market, the translation of Eslamieh has been republished as much as 10 times while the other version, translated by Baharak Riahipoor was published twice in one year (2005).

Harry Potter is a series of seven fantasy novels written by British author J. K. Rowling (2000). Since the 1997 release of the first novel *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone*, which was retitled as *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone* in the United States, the books have gained immense popularity, critical acclaim and commercial success worldwide. As of June 2008, the book series has sold more than 400 million copies and has been translated into 67 languages, and the last four books have consecutively set records as the fastest-selling books in history. (Wikipedia, 22.04.2010)

4.1.1. Translations

The series has been translated into 67 languages, placing Rowling (2000) among the most translated authors in history. Subsequently, the books have seen translations to diverse languages such as Ukrainian, Hindi, Bengali, Welsh, Afrikaans, Latvian and Vietnamese. (Wikipedia, 22.04.2010)

4.1.2. Harry Potter in Iran

Harry Potter series were largely accepted by the Iranian readers. Consequently, many translators attempted to translate Harry Potter series, and *Harry Potter* books were translated by ten different translators. But translations of Vida Eslamieh, are bought and read better. (Wikipedia, 22.04.2010)

4.1.3. *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*

It is the fourth installment in the **Harry Potter** series written by J. K. Rowling, published on 8 July 2000. Until the official title's announcement on 27 June 2000, the fourth book was called by its working title, *Harry Potter and the Doomspell Tournament*. The book attracted additional attention because of a pre-publication warning from J. K. Rowling (2000) that one of the characters would be murdered in the book. The book sold nine million copies in the first 24 hours after its release. Rowling (2000) also admitted that the fourth book was the most difficult to write at the time, because she noticed a giant <u>plot hole</u> halfway through writing. The 4th book of Harry Potter series was also translated and published in huge numbers. (Wikipedia, 22.04.2010)

4.2. Data collection procedures

4.2.1. Translation of proper names

In this section some examples of the proper names of the book and their translation would be given. It is clear that both translators used more or less the same procedures for translating proper names, and just in some cases the final product of their translation was different.

Considering, the names of different organizations, magical beings, and other associated magical concepts, 'calque' or 'through translation' was prevailing (Newmark's (1988a) third procedure). Some examples are as follows: Eslamieh translated *Weesley's Wizard wheezes* to "فتنه هاي جادويي ويزلي ها"; while Riahi Pour translated it to "جيب برهاي جادويي ويزلي ها" *Worm tail* as "دم باريك" by Eslamieh, and "دم دراز" by Riahi Pour; and both translated; *Death Eaters* as "مرگ خوارها"; *Giants* as "غول ها" ; *Dementors* as "ديوانه سازها " ; and *Quidditch World Cup* as "جام جهاني كوويديچ". Here domestication method is utilized in the case of both translators.

Concerning, names of the human/wizard characters and different spells, both translators used the same procedures for translating. In this case, transcription was the procedure which was more frequent. The translators transcribed as the names were pronounced (Newmark's (1988a) first procedure) such as: Eslamieh translated *Nagini* to "نجيني" and Riahi Pour translated it to "نگيني"; they both translated *Muffliato* to "ورد مافلياتو"; *Rufus Scrimgeour*, translated as "رافس اسكريمجر"; *Berta Jerkins* to "برتا جركينز " ; *Frank Bryce* to "فرانك برايس"; or *Serius Black*, as "سريوس بلک". In these examples, the same method, foreignization, is

employed by both translators, as the linguistic and cultural elements of ST are transferred to TL, although their translations may differ from each other to some extent.

In other cases, translation label (Newmark's (1988a) sixth procedure) was also utilized: Eslamieh translated *Muggle* as "مشنگ" while Riahi Pour translated it to "هالوها"; by both translators; *Ton Tongue Toffee* as "تافي زبون دراز كن"; and *Unbreakable Vow* as "قول شرف".

Domestication has occurred in the above mentioned cases in both translators' works. However, in some cases such as translating *Albus,* for the headmaster, meaning 'white' as he always wears white gown. And of course Lord Voldemort meaning ' Flown out of Death'; and *mort, mors* 'death', it is not possible to make sure whether the translators have really attempted to imply the stated meanings as they have both transferred them as "آلبوس دامبلدور"" and "لرد ولدمورت". Foreignization is applied yet again.

Thus, in translating proper names, 'transcription' is a form of 'foreignization', as the linguistic and cultural elements of SL are transferred to TL, and readers face the names which are unknown to them. While 'calque' and 'translation label' are forms of 'domestication', since the elements of ST are modified to correspond to TL system, and the readers can get the meaning of the names as the names senses have been transferred.

4.2.2. Translation of metaphors and similes

Now let's analyze some examples of metaphors translation in the book

1- Lying there with their eyes wide open! Cold as ice!

اسلاميه: با چشماي باز افتاده اونجا! تنش مثل يخ سرده !

رياحي پور:هر سه تاشون با چشمان باز افتادن اونجا ! تنشون يخ كرده!

As we can see, Eslamieh has tried to convey the ST's simile by using a similar simile in Farsi. So, she has used Newmark's (1988a) first strategy. But Riahi Pour has not transferred the metaphoric expression, and her translation strategy is replacing metaphorical expression with sense. Considering Venuti's (1998) two translation procedure _ domestication and foreignization _ Eslamieh has used foreignizaton and has translated the foreigness of the ST, while Riahi Pour has domesticated it.

2- He could be seen pottering around the flower beds in fine weather.

ويدا اسلاميه: در هواي خوب و آفتابي در كنار بستري از گل ميپلكيد.

رياحي پور: در روزهايي كه هوا خوب بود در باغ ميپلكيد.

In this sentence the flower bed is a metaphor which Eslamieh has transferred it by keeping its image as much as possible, but Riahi Pour has deleted both the topic and the image. Here again Eslamieh employed foreignization and Riahi pour has utilized domestication.

3- He let himself into a cavernous kitchen.

ويدا اسلاميه: وارد آشپزخانه ي غارماناند خانه شد.

رياحي پور: فرانك وارد آشپزخانه اي شد كه بي شباهت به غار نبود.

Here, both translators have tried to keep the topic and the image of the metaphor. And they have replaced the English metaphor with the same metaphor in Farsi. Both translators have foreignized the TL text.

4- A flickering light shone through the gap, casting a long silver of gold across the black floor.

اسلاميه: دري نيمه باز بود و از لاي در نور شعله هاي آتش كه بر روي سنگ كف راهرو ميتابيد بخش باريك و طويلي از زمين تيره را به رنگ طلايي در آورده بود.

رياحي پور: يكي از درها نيمه باز بود و نوري كه از شكاف در بيرون ميزد آن قسمت از راهرو را روشن كرده بود.

In this sentence, none of the translators could replace the ST metaphor with a metaphor in TL, and both have deleted the image and point of similarity. They have both domesticate the SL metaphorical expression.

The cases in which translators transferred the metaphorical expression's image, foreignization occurred as the ST author and his style were prioritized. On the other hand, transferring just the sense of metaphor without considering its image is a form of domestication, as the TL reader and the comprehensibility of the text is more important.

5. Results

Among 70 metaphors which were found and analyzed, Eslamieh translated 33 of them by using 'transcription', 21 were 'calqued', and the remaining 16 names were transferred by 'translation label'. While Riahi pour used 'transcription' for 42 names, 'calque' for 17 names and 'translation label' for the last 11 names. As stated before, employing 'transcription' is considered as a form of 'foreignization', while the other two strategies are samples of 'domestication' method. These numbers were changed to the percentages, and the final result is presented in the following table.

	Total	Transcription	Calque	Translation Label
Eslamieh	70	% 47.2	% 30	% 22.8
Riahi Pour	70	% 60	% 24.3	% 15.7

Table-1 *Application of Translation Techniques in Proper Noun Translation*

Among 50 'metaphors' and 'similes' that were chosen and analyzed, Eslamieh translated 38 metaphors to metaphorical expressions in Persian, and the remaining 12 were replaced by non-metaphoric expressions. Whereas, Riahi Pour transferred just 21 of them to metaphors,

and the remaining 29 were replaced by non-metaphors. As previously mentioned, replacing a metaphorical expression with another metaphorical expression, and keeping the image is foreignization, though replacing metaphorical expression with non-metaphorical expression is domestication. These numbers were changed to percentages again, and the results are given in table 2.

	Total	Translated into Metaphorical Expressions	Translated into Non-Metaphoric Expressions
Eslamieh	50	% 76	% 24
Riahi Pour	50	% 42	% 58

Table-2 *Procedures in Translating Metaphorical Expressions*

6. Discussion

Percentages do not show a significant difference between the procedures used by the two translators in translating proper names, and they have acted almost similarly. All in on, the translators have tried to convey the meaning of the proper names, particularly in the cases that the names carried an immense load of information about the characters. There is just a little difference between the two translations considering proper names, i.e. Eslamieh has used domestication more than Riahi Pour.

However, considering translation of metaphors and similes, Eslamieh has mostly tried to transfer the figurative aspect of the metaphorical expression, while it seems that for Riahi Pour transferring the core sense of the expression is a greater concern.

7.Conclusion

The acquired results indicate that, although proper names and metaphorical expressions are both cultural terms, the proper translation method for each one differs from the other one. Hence, while domestication is an appropriate method for translating proper names, it may not be that good for translating metaphorical expressions. The results may to some extent reveal the reason of more acceptability of Eslamieh's translations, as by using 'domestication' for translating proper names invented by Rowling (2000), she makes the translated text more comprehensible and pleasing to the readers and TT gains the innateness of the original text. Nevertheless, one drawback for both translations, regarding proper names is that they tend to be inconsistent in their choices of procedures. They tend to translate a name in one case, but

left another similar name untranslated. Metaphorical expressions on the other hand have been foreignized by Eslamieh. Using this method Eslamieh tends to convey the magnificence and peculiarity of the ST metaphorical expressions, and her translation corresponds to the author's style.

7.1. Applications and Implications

A translator, when conscious of the probable and invisible effect of culture on his/her translation and the way it will be received by the target readers, will concentrate on these elements more carefully. Then, according to the situation, he or she decides whether to utilize a cultural filter. However, the process of informing the future translators regarding the matter discussed must start from classrooms in universities and translator training programs, which makes translators aware of the great impact culture may exerts on the product of translation and its reception.

Cultural studies of translation are intended to serve as a theoretical framework to be applied in the study of translation including applied studies of single as well as several texts in translation. The study of translation has been traditionally an area of comparative literature and thus translation studies is the accorded focus in the field of "comparative cultural studies," a field that combines traditional comparative literature with new knowledge in both comparative literature and cultural studies.

7.2. Suggestions for Further Research

The author suggests studies on more comprehensive corpus, possibly in three languages which will reveal really interesting results.

The present study was restricted to analyzing proper names and metaphors only; other cultural terms like idioms, proverbs, sayings, jokes, and puns may also be investigated. Another option is carrying out the same procedures in analyzing other prominent literary works and their translations.

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Title

The Power of Powerless Language Tests: Test Takers' perceptions

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Abstract

On a macro level, tests have long served to push the agendas of the powerful: politicians, bureaucrats, policymakers, educational authorities, etc. Language Tests can go so far as to establish *de facto* models of language proficiency in societies (Pishghadam and Kermanshahi, 2012). High stakes tests have marginalized classroom achievement tests in research circles, leaving power relationships and classroom assessments an uncharted territory.This paper constitutes an attempt to see, from learners' perspectives, the extent to whichELT teachers exploit tests' power for maintaining dominance and authority. To this end, a scale was developed ,validated through factor analysis, and administered to English major students. Results showed that students across different institutions, genders, and proficiency levels find language achievement tests powerful means of control and domination. The validity of assessment practices was then examined through a set of interpretive authenticity criteria.

Keywords: Power, test stakes, authenticity criteria, dominance

1. Introduction

Over the last couple of decades numerous attemptshave been made to uncover and expose the way language tests are frequently abused or misused to disseminate or silence ideologies of different types: linguistic, religious, or political (Shohamy, Donits-Schmite, &Ferman, 1996;Zafarkhan, 2009), to engineer change in educational systems (Wall and Alderson 1993,), and to promote interested knowledge (Pennycook, 1989). Such studies can be divided in terms of their geographical span: studies with a global scope(McNamara&Shohamy, 2008),

those within national borders (El-Ebyari, 2008; Cheng & Qi, 2006), and institutional studies (Saif, 2006). This macro to micro progression should not necessarily stop at the institutional level, as Alan Davies once pointed it out (personal communication 2009), and could go further down to cater for language tests and power issues within the core units that are at the heart of educational institutions. Little, however, has been done in ELT to examine the ways in which the power of language tests is exploited at such core units of educational institutions, i.e., classrooms. To put the issues in perspective, we have to challenge the dichotomy of high versus low stakes tests, which blinds us to the complex mechanisms of the role of tests in contexts where they are most frequently used, that is, classrooms, which "easily become private realm of power for the teacher" (Lynch and Jukuri 1998, p.274). We opine that like all dichotomies, which are essentially man-made, arbitrary and inadequate for representing the real world state of affairs, the tests' stakes should be viewed as points along a continuum, representing variations created by a multitude of local and personal factors. In other words, it is argued that a relative approach incorporating a host of cultural, individual, and political issues can better capture issues related to a test's stakes. Accordingly, there are no literally low stakesin the absolute sense of the word. Thus, depending on a multitude of personal and institutional factors the stakes of a test may grow higher or lower differently for different learners. Put in laymen's terms, a test with no stakes is never taken or given. Perceived from this vantage point, the issue of tests' power at classroom levels is no less important than investigating it in powerful, external examinations.

So far the debate about the links between language tests' power (LTP, henceforth) and social issues has gone into two seemingly reverse directions. The bulk of studies, which we consider as the orthodoxy,have been on the ways international and national language tests exert influences on education, individuals and society(Cheng, 2005;Hawkey, 2006;Tahmasebi and Yamini, 2013;Mirzaei, Hashemi, &Tanbakuei, 2012). The other strand of research, which rarely features in the mainstream literature, crosses the bridge from the other side, as Carlson(2008, 2009) puts it, by examining the way social structure leads to evolutions or revolutions in the language assessment practices (see Fulcher, 2008). There have of course been studies that focused on the language class per se but usually with the aim of discovering how classroom practices are controlled by external exams, not with a focus on power dynamics of classroom assessmentper se. This study derives its significance from this lacuna, bearing in mind that the dynamics of power are very complicated even within a classroom. Thus, this study strives to only scratch the surface of a few isolated issues related to students' perceptions of classroom assessment practices of EFL instructors. The

organization of the paper is as such: the first section features the orthodoxy in language test impact studies, dealing with power issues related to high stakes language tests. Next, after detailing the theoretical framework of the study, we present the study that culminated in the current paper.

2. The Orthodoxy: Power of High-stakes Tests

Historically speaking, most scholars (see Weir, 2005) trace the origin of mass, high stakes testing to the old Chinese emperor, who replaced nepotism with tests of competence for screening members of his army. Hust (2003, cited in Hamp-Lyons, 2007) reminds usthat like other achievements in the course of human civilization, tests were originally developed to promote justice and democracy but human beings quickly learned how to turn these benign instruments into means at the service of abuse, oppression, and dominance: "since its inceptions in ancient China assessment was supposed to disrupt the existing social order and class system. However, as we all know, assessment has rarely delivered on this promise" (p.501).In addition to the above-mentioned abuses of the power of language tests, Spolsky (2001) laments the deviation of language testing from its true mission and its turning into a business activity. He states that language testing "may well have started as a disinterested effort to provide public service, but has for a long time been a way of making money" (p.218). As a typical example he invites us to see how TOEFL, itself an offshoot of ETS, has become an "industrial giant" (Spolsky).

Among the theorists of examination power, Foucault (1975, cited in Fulcher and Davidson, 2007, p. 144) represents the camp who maintains a dark and negative view of tests and examinations:

> The examination combines the technique of an observing hierarchy and those of normalizing judgment. It is a normalizing gaze, a surveillance that makes it possible to quantify, classify, and punish. It establishes over individuals a visibility through which one differentiates and judges them. That is why, in all the mechanisms of discipline, the examination is highly ritualized.

Language tests, in particular, are historically infamous for their serving as instruments for making life-ending and life-changing decisions. The tragic fate of those who failed in the Shiboleeth test of phonology (see McNamara, 2000) is not a fairy tale to fancy with; simple pronunciation tests did determine the life and death of citizens. Rather, modern language tests continue to affect the fate of individuals and societies in equally serious, if not more so, ways

as did the Shibboleth test. Brutal mass killings, all based on a test of literacy in a language that was considered corrupt and evil, Persian, have been documented during the Arab dominance in Iran (Zarrinkoub, 1957). Though non-language tests are also utilized as instruments of power and control, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no life or death decision has ever been made because of one's failure on, say, a math test. Language tests, then, have been and continue to be, more than any other tests, used as instruments of abuse, misuse, surveillance, and control. The pessimistic account of tests offered by Foucoult suggests "an essentially negative and hapless view of assessment as unchallengeable surveillance and control" (Lynch and Shaw, 2005, p. 270). Such an account if subscribed to leaves little hope for emancipatory action to challenge the status quo.

Alternatively, Shohamy (2001)puts forward an inspiring LTP account in which it is emphasized that the necessary evil of language tests has the potential to be utilized for what they have originally been designed for: promotion of justice and freedom. She calls on us to give consideration to critical language testing and democratic assessment as possible platforms to build on to reduce the huge political clout that language tests wield. Davies (1997) in introducing a special issue of *Language Testing* on ethics of language assessment summarizes Shohamy's paper on test fairness: "uses of language tests to exercise control rather than to provide information are unethical. Language testers need to exercise constant vigilance" (p. 241).Accordingly, the damage done by language tests is not totally inevitable provided that language testers assume responsibility for all the consequences they are aware of (Hamp-Lyons,1998, 2000) though such an extended scope of responsibility does seem heretic to other scholars (see Davies,2003).

In his attempts at a grand theory capable of formulating a socio-political language testing theory with sufficient explanatory adequacy, Fulcher (2009) tries to establish a ground for relating test use to the political philosophy of societies. He predicts, though without empirical evidence, that tests will be used differently as a function of the political philosophy that is endorsed in a society. As such, he believes that in collectivist societies, where the interests of the state are put before those of the citizens "tests, like history, are used to achieve conformity, control, and identity. Conversely, "in individualistic societies, they are used to promote individual progress" (p.3). The same author, however, has elaborated elsewhere on a cloze test that was unethically used by the Australian government, as a liberal democracy that is individualist, to block migration of certain races, mainly Asians, to the country (Fulcher and Davidson, 2007). Such practices on the part of a democratic government show that the interplay of tests' power and political philosophy of societiesis

highly complex an issue. Despite Fulcher's generalization, this story further complicates the events, making it more difficult to ascertain with any degree of certainty how a language test will be used based on a particular political regime.

Stobart (2008) maintains that tests have the potential to construct individuals' identities, to inculcate worldviews and even impose on learners the way they see themselves. Early on in their education, students are acculturated to believe in the infallible authority of test scores; students are brought up in such a way that they place a value on themselves equal to the figure that is assigned to them by test scores. Some learners come to believe that they are nothing or failures if they frequently fail in examinations. Still others happen to believe that they are superior to their peers only because they are assigned higher scores in tests. Teachers themselves are not safe from the hegemony of tests and scores. With the exception of the few highly reflective, the majority of teachers because of their own years of being assigned test scores and later in their teaching career as score distributors, make the tacit assumption that tests and their scores are infallible and should not be questioned. Stobart goes further to state that the very constructs we claim to measure through tests are constructed by tests; there is no such construct out there in the real world. Therefore, not only individuals' identities are constructed by tests but also constructs *per se* are built and created through tests.The power of tests to shape identities prevails in the classrooms.

One of the realities of classrooms is the power differential that exists between teachers on the one hand and learners on the other: "students raise their hands to speak, ask permission o leave rooms, tense up in examination situations, and beam with the tiniest expressions of approval" (Gore, 1995, p. 165-6). Such very familiar and often taken-for-granted scenarios are an important testimony that classrooms are sites of power struggle. With the advent and impact of humanistic approaches to education, critical pedagogy, the urgency for giving voice to the historically silenced (i.e., learners), and the necessity of "permeable disciplinary borders" (Dehler, Welsh, and Lewis; 1999) this power differential might have gone more invisible than decades ago when instances of torture and physical punishment in classrooms embodied this power struggle. Today those practices are, at least theoretically, strongly discouraged. However, the rarity of those brutal learning spaces does not imply that today's teachers and learners necessarily engage in equal relations of power. Nor does it imply that teachers have ceased to takeadvantage of their upper hand in this uneven power relation.

It is then evident that teachers by their very status enjoy a higher degree of power in classrooms. This status, being itself a source of power, grants other rights and instruments of

power to teachers. Classroom assessment is seen as "one of the most powerful weapons in a teacher's arsenal" (Marzano, 2006, p. 2). Utilizing the authority accrued to them by assessments, testers at times might go to extremes to advance their agendas. Shohamy tells the story of a driving examiner who, simply because of sitting on the passenger seat as the examiner, demands that a testee run over a pedestrian to observe the driving rule of not stopping at green light (Shohamy, 2001). Zafarkhan (2009) writes about how TOEFL test serves the cultural, political, and economical interests of the North American nations in Saudi Arabia, a phenomenon hardly visible to the lay people.

In the literature of applied linguistics, Alderson (2009) is one of the scarce sources which explicitly addressesthe micropolitics of ELT. Alderson rightly makes the point that language educators have overall turned a blind eye on the micropolitical issues:

 The literature, when it deals with developments matters at all, gives the impression that language education is basically a technical matter, concerned with the development of appropriate materials, the creation and revision of appropriate tasks, textbooks and tests, and the analysis of results from piloting of innovations. But behind that façade is a complex interplay of personalities, of institutional agendas and of intrigue (p.3).

In examining why matters have come to be so in the micropolitics of language education, Alderson points to a couple of causes: one is that such issues are not recognized as legitimate fields of research and the second is lack of a consensual methodology of research in investigating such issues. He comments that "however, this is an aspect of education which rarely sees the light of the day, and which is simply part of the folklore and gossip of language education" (p.3).Such attitude of indifference is partially responsible for the fact that the study of tests' power has been limited to that of the so-called external examinations (Wall and Alderson,1993; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmit, and Ferman, 1996; Watanabe, 1996).

Examining the potential of tests for maintaining surveillance, control, and discipline has by far been mainly limited to that of high stakes language tests in the hands of powerful institutions like governments. Although we do not deny the services that such critical studies do in exposing and bringing to public attention the mistreatments and mishandlings of powerful institutions of language tests, such institutions are not very likely to be held accountable for their breaches of ethical conduct. For instance, it is highlyunlikely, if not impossible, that those authorities in Australia whodeliberately denied Asian citizens of life and education opportunities, all based on a flawed language test, would someday be brought to justice for their abuse of a language test's power. What is lacking in the literature though

is a focus on the numerous complex ways that tests are being used as instruments of power, control, and discipline in local contexts, by less powerful institutions, by individuals, and certainly by teachers in elementary, secondary, and tertiary education.Imposing accountability measures on such small institutions and individuals is fortunately not impossible, as it is with more powerful institutions,which usually have a free hand in puttinglanguage tests to uses they were not designed for. Therefore, studies aimed at discovering the power dynamics that prevail in seemingly less powerful tests are warranted and worthwhile. The current study is a preliminary attempt to assess the extent to which tests and examinations are used to maintain discipline, conformity, and control by instructors in college language programs. To this end, the following research questions are advanced:

What are learners' perceptions of their instructors' use of the power of assessments?

Are such perceptions moderated by learners' gender, proficiency, or the nature of the institution (profit vs. non-profit) in which they study?

Before moving on to describing the methods of the current study, a detailed elaboration of a power framework that pertains to test validity is in order.

3. A Power-informed Framework of Validity

Fairness and ethics have come center stage in recent conceptualizations of validity (see Messick, 1996;Hamp-Lyons, 1997, 2000;McNamra, 2006, among many others). The inclusion of ethical issues, which inevitably border on social concerns, in a framework of validity, however, is hard to buy into unless the informing paradigm alters. This means that although fairness in its limited sense of same treatment for all test takers can be and has been a concern in classical test theory, mainly by adopting DIF analyses, it is next to impossible to address the issues of ethics, without reducing them to what is amenable to quantification, within that framework. The school of thought upon which classical testing theory with its preoccupation with reliability is founded is positivism, which essentially sees the social phenomena the way physical entities are perceived. "An epistemology of intelligence" firmly rooted in biology underlies the testing culture, in which the individual comes to the world with a certain degree of intelligence that is "immutable" and reducible to a fixed number (Lynch, 2001, pp. 228-9). Issues of context, values, and other social considerations are likely to be excluded from the concerns of the language testers who work within a positivist climate because such matters do not lend themselves well to the kind of statistical analyses that language testers are comfortable with. Therefore, to see the relevance of ethical concerns to

language testing the positivist vantage point has to be replaced or complemented with an interpretive one, where reality (i.e., language proficiency) is socially constructed(McNamara, 1997;Challoub-Deville, 2003) and it is too elusive to be captured by a single test.Such dynamic, fluid, chaotic circumstances cannot be proper objects of study in a positivistic school of thought that informs classical testing theory. Conversely, issues of consequential validity, ethics and power relations are accorded prime importance in the interpretive paradigm that informs the "assessment culture" (Inbar-Lourie, 2008), underlying which is "an epistemology of mind" not 'intelligence' (Lynch, 2001, p. 229).

Ethical issues become salient only in a social milieu. A lonely man in a cave who does not care for other fellow human beings' interests cannot be concerned with ethics. Moreover, once we think of the social we, immediately get into the hierarchical, which in turn brings up power issues. In other words ethics is essentially about power, as Lynch and Shaw (2005, p. 270) put it: "to a certain extent, the issue of ethics in assessment can be thought of as aspects or expressions of power and the potential for abusing that power". For Foucault (in Lynch and Shaw, 2005, p. 271) ethics is rendered irrelevant in the absence of freedom for action. "so what is ethics, if not the practice of freedom?" it follows then that once we take away freedom form learners through assessment, we deny them the chances of 'practice of freedom', of ethical behavior. As they twist themselves to conform to the demands of imposed assessments they cease to be themselves. Practices that make learners manipulated, which block their being themselves lack in ontological authenticity, a crucial validity consideration in interpretive frameworks of validity.

Based on Foucault's theory, power is realized through three basic forms, namely domination, exploitation, and subjection. Domination canbe achieved both through physical and symbolic means: "Individuals dominate other individuals, or groups dominate other groups, when they impose their interests through actual physical force or symbolic acts of control (like grades) to which one cannot easily or effectively respond" (Lynch and Jukuri, 1998, p. 273). The domination form of power is very common in classrooms, despite all the lip service paid to learner-centered, autonomy-oriented, humanistic approaches to education. Hairston (1992) maintains that the absolute upper hand of teachers make classes fertile land for the exercise of power, not necessarily constructive:

> The real political truth about classrooms is that the teacher has all the power; she sets the agenda, she controls the discussion and she gives the grades. She also knows and can argue more skillfully. Such a situation is ripe for intellectual intimidation. (p. 30).

From the above discussion, the conclusion which is made is that the epistemology that informs standardized, high stakes examinations is not compatible with classroom-based achievement assessment. Therefore, to judge the validity of classroom assessments against the classical testing theory is counterproductive. For similar reasons, Lynch and Shaw (2005) approach validation from an interpretive perspective, where validity is concerned with six major dimensions namely, fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, tactical authenticity, consequential validity, and evolved power relations.

We forego a detailed account of the framework in the interest of space, focusing on the ontological criteria with the assumption that the other notions, because of their currency in the literature of language testing, are more accessible to readers. Ontological authenticity refers to "the degree to which the range of stakeholders and participants in a particular research setting are able to gain and use information as a result of the research process" (Lynch, 2001, p.232). The other key concern in ontological authenticity is whether participants in the assessment process are aided in establishing a meaningful identity, a sense of who they are" (Lynch & Shaw, 2005, p.278). It is noteworthy that in this frameworkassessment is considered to be a research endeavor aimed at gaining insights into learners' learning processes and outcomes. It follows that assessment practices whose only outcome is a set of numerical values provide littleuseful information to the stakeholders to be fed into constructing meaningful identities, and hence their ontological authenticity is compromised.

For the educative authenticity criterion to be satisfied in an assessment process, participants and stakeholders should "gain an understanding of the perspectives and meaning constructions of those outside their own group (e.g., teachers coming to understand the perspective of students" (Lynch, 2001, p.232). Finally, tactical authenticity refers to the extent participants are enabled to take action as a result of insights they gain from the assessment process. Once applied to the outcomes of the current study the implications of these criteria for language assessment will, hopefully, become more tangible.

4. Methods and Results

To build a pool of items for the classroom power scale we intended to develop, we drew on our personal teaching experiences, the literature of the field and a couple of interviews with students. The in-depth interviews were carried out by the researcher with two undergraduate students; one a female and the other a male student. These interviews helped generate further

items and drop some others pooled from the literature review. To see if the generated items truly reflected their views, thetwo intervieweeswere then asked to read the items and make comments on their appropriateness, content, and wording. Several items were modified in the light of their comments, thereby changing the wording of a few items and the content of some others. We ended up with a 17 Likert-type items intended to tap into students' attitudes, thoughts, and beliefs about their instructors' handling of tests' power. The final version of the measure consisting of 15 items was then administered to 114 English major students, 36 of which were studying at an Azad university and the remaining 78 at ShahidChamranUnivesity of Ahvaz. The sample was limited to freshmen and sophomores in the thought that courses offered for students in the first couple of years are mainly Language Skill courses (speaking, reading, writing, grammar), whose assessments can be considered as cases of language assessment rather than subject matter assessments associated with courses in different aspects of translation and literature.

The scale appeared to be of a moderately high reliability with aCronbach alpha coefficient of .78. To check the validity of the instrument, an exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation was run, the result of which is presented in Table 1. As it can be seen, a two factor solution was deemed appropriate because, first, it accounted for a respectable amount of variance (55%) observed in the data and secondly, due to its plausibility with the logic behind the items, where a scale of domination was sought with minimal dimensions. In fact, we sought a uni-dimensional scale based on the nature of items we collected but that failed to materialize in the factorial analysis of variance. The two factors diverge on the degree of visibility and concreteness of teacher domination and students' subordination so we dub them high visibility and moderate to low visibility domination and subordination. Therefore, showing up in classes or caring about signs that instructors put next to students' names are instances of visible subordination behavior on the part of students and visible domination behavior by instructors. A couple of items were dropped from the final version because they failed to load neatly on either of the two factors (see Appendix A for more details).

Table 1. The two-factor structure of the scale

Factor	Items
1	1,2, 6, 15
2	3,4,5,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14

To address the first research question, we dig more deeply into students' perceptions of their instructors' uses of tests' influence to maintain power, establish authority, manipulate learners' behavior, and cover up their own shortcomings in handling language classes. In so

doing, we examine the results of the one-sample t-tests run for each individual item. But before that, a brief note on the logic of one-sample t-test is warranted since, compared to independent and paired sample tests, it is less frequently used in applied linguistics literature. T-tests as we know them in applied linguistics research are associated with comparing the performance of two groups. The logic of one-sample t-test is different quite a bit. The one sample t-test is employed "to determine whether an obtained value is statistically different from a neutral value" (Hall 2010, p. 264). The range of possible scores on a five point Likert scale is between five and one, with the mean being our neutral value. So the neutral value against which we determine if the score is substantial is 2.5 in our data.

The results for the one-sample t-tests of individual items are given in Table 2. Of all the four items loading on the high visibility subordination (first factor), only item 15 did not exceed the neutral t-value (see Table 2). It was the item that asked students about the extent their class attendance was for their fear of test scores not the benefits they gained from the content of classes. The significant t-values for the other three items show thatstudents take very seriously the visible signifiers of assessment power and regulate their actions accordingly.

Table 2. One-sample t-test results for individual items.

Item	T	DF	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean difference
1	6.24	112	.000	.64
2	8.72	113	.000	.80
3	1.80	113	.74	.21
4	3.05	113	.003	.30
5	4.04	113	.000	.46
6	10.6	111	.000	1.18
7	9.28	113	.000	.94
8	8	111	.000	.89
9	1.83	112	.07	.19
10	6.38	112	.000	.64
11	1.95	111	.053	.21
12	.73	113	.466	.07
13	.99	111	.323	.10
14	5.08	77	.000	.74
15	1.24	77	.217	.17

As to the second factor, results of the one-sample t-tests were more mixed with non-significant values on items 3, 9, 11, 12, and 13 and significant t-values on the rest of items loaded on the factor. A brief elaboration on items with non-significant values follows: the non-significant value on item 3 demonstrates that students do not show respect to the authority of teachers solely for their control over students' grades. The other item with a non-significant t-value was item 9, which asked participants if they agree that instructors who are

generous with scores are better at managerial control. This finding is consistent with the findings on the first factor as well as with those on the items with significant t-values in the second factor. The message it conveys is that grades are a powerful weapon of control in instructors' hands, which if given away generously does not necessarily result in better class management. Item 11 asked participants if they agree that academically weaker students are more obedient to teachers' authority. The non-significant value of this item corroborates our findings on the ANOVA test (see below); that the level of proficiency does not mediate the degree to which students are dominated by the threat of test scores. The other couple of items with non-significant values asked students about the extent to which they are able to create managerial problems or pick up on instructors' gaps of competence but they contain themselves for fear of possible impacts on their scores. With the wisdom of hindsight, we find the interpretation of this item a bit problematic because each of the two items seems to be about a combination of two notions. Data from other sources is required to see whether such findings refer to students' inability to notice teachers' lack of competence or to their preferring to be on the safe side and not to risk their test scores.

Items with significant t-test values are clear indications of how teacher-student relationship is affected by teachers' control over the symbolic power of scores. The significant t-value on item 4 shows that students overwhelmingly support the idea that the respect and social status accorded to instructors is largely a matter of their power to give or deny scores on achievement tests. Likewise, that of item 5 reveals that grades go a long way in establishing surveillance and discipline, as the significant value of the test demonstrates. It means that frequently students encounter humiliating remarks from instructors but they choose to turn a blind eye to such remarks to secure their test scores. Items 7 and 8 had also statistically meaningful t-values, meaning that students believe that instructors exploit the power of achievement tests as a shield to cover up their own lapses in academic or character competence. We now turn to the second research question to see if participants' gender, language proficiency or the type of institution bears any effects on learners' perceptions of the power of achievement tests.

Our first speculation as to the outcomes of the study was that female students by their very nature must be more prone to be subordinated to the power and authority, and hence to the threats of the scores assigned to their language performance by instructors. This expectation was not met,however. Though firm conclusions are difficultto make with our limited data, one possible reason for the observed lack of differences is that the domination is too severe to leave visible differences between categories of participants. In other words, this

scale could detect whether students were to a certain extent affected by the power of test scores, the answer to which was positive, however; for a scale to discriminate among higher degrees of intimidation, it needs to have items with higher indexes of discrimination, a characteristic that seems to be lacking in the current measure.

Table 3. Independent Samples T-test for gender

	F	Sig	t	df
Equal variances assumed	.033	.85	.97	69
Equal variances not assumed			.98	65

Aside from the kind of exams used to screen candidates to Azad and state universities, the distinction that categorically sets Azad and State universities apart is that in the former students pay tuitions whereas those in the latter do not (we acknowledge that there are tuition-based courses in the latter as well but this is not the dominant norm as it is in the former). When money comes in, the stakes grew higher, as the word stakes speaks for itself. Accordingly, we speculated that since the stakes associated with grades are lower in state universities (i.e., the consequences of a fail are not as grave), instructors' domination should be less. The results of the independent t-test however did not confirm this hypothesis, indicating that students from both institutions are equally intimidated by the authority of the test in both types of institutions. This could have multiple explanations. One possible reason might be that the very failure on a course is an event with important repercussions, regardless of the financial costs that it might incur.For instance, failure can delay students' graduation, their losing face and status among their peers as well as with teachers, and their lagging behind their formal course schedules. These are by now tentative and unsubstantiated explanations; the issue invites deeper probing. What is evident though is that both groups of students are dominated by the power of course grades. In the next section, we will see that the domination is overwhelming enough to render it statistically significant.

Table 4. Independent Samples T-test for Scores of different stakes

	F	Sig	t	df
Equal variances assumed	19	.65	-.23	102
Equal variances not assumed			-.24	59.2

The final attempt at ascertaining systematic variations among groups of participants due to differential perceptions of tests' power was a one-way ANOVA to see how students' level of proficiency, operationalized through their GPAs, affects the way they perceive of instructors' leveraging of language tests' power. As Table 5 clearly attests, participants across proficiency levels seemed to be uniformly affected by the potential of language tests. As with

previous group difference measures, it could be that no matter what degree of mastery of language students have, their perceptions of the power of tests remains constant.

Table 5. Results of ANOVA between levels of proficiency

	Sum of scores	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	20.19	2	10.09	.13	.87
Within Groups	3759.8	50	75.19		
Total	3780.	42			

we surmise that this lack of significant variations across levels of mastery, test stakes, and genders has the important message that classroom achievement tests, despite our putting them in contrast to external high stakes tests like TOEFL, IELTS, and national tests acting as gate-keepers and door-openers (Bachman &Purpura, 2008), enjoy high stakes so much so that boundaries of proficiency, gender, and financial differences are blurred. This is consistent with a proverbial statement in our local folklore which roughly goes as 'apowerful fireburns the wet and the dry equally'.

5. Final Remarks

The issues of power are among the most determining yet invisible in education, more so in assessment and even more so in language assessment where judging one's language is essentially judging their identities (McNamara and Ryan, 2011). In this paper we tried to demonstrate that the study of power of language tests need not be limited to that of the so-called high-stakes language tests. Ironically, we believe that a handful of high stakes examinations are to be blamed for their consuming all the attention of scholars who take an interest in issues of power in language assessment. It was shown that classroom assessments of language proficiency do play a major role in regulating students' behavior, establishing teachers' dominance, and maintaining an undemocratic climate in educational institutions. Consistent with Gore's (1995) conclusion that the mechanisms of schooling are similar to mechanisms of prisons, this study revealed that classroom tests are a handy weapon in creating a panopticon setting where "a consciousness of permanent visibility as a form of power, where no bars, chains, and heavy locks are necessary for domination any more" is established (Allmer, 2012, p. 22).

Referring to the power and validity framework detailed earlier, it was found that lack of ontological validity characterizes participants' perception of language class assessments. As discussed before, the question in ontological authenticity is whether the process of assessment helps all stakeholders "establish a meaningful identity" (Lynch and Shaw, 2005, p.278). As we saw in the previous section, students clearly indicated that to secure a desired

score on their language tests they show frequently fake respect to their teachers. Such shady behavior normalizes and promotes dishonesty, which is detrimental to meaningful identity. It also has adverse effects on instructors as other stakeholders of the assessment process because in the absence of a healthy relationship with students they are denied the chance of genuine, honest and constructive feedback that they would have otherwise received from their students. Hence, ontological invalidity works to the detriment of both the powerful and the dominated. The assessment practices appear to lack educative authenticity too. The pivotal question in educative authenticity is whether "stakeholders and participants gain an understanding of the perspectives and meaning constructions of those outside their own group" (Lynch, 2001, p.232). Findings from this study shows that the current culture of assessment in English major programs creates a Berlin Wall between the two immediate groups of stakeholders namely, instructors and students. Students' practice of conservatism for fear of scores even when they are humiliated gives support to the existence of a non-mobile, unilateral power relation that hinders mutual, full-fledged interaction. This in turn perpetuates a tradition of academic instructors being locked in their comfort zones and university students playing the game of conservatism of winning their favors for numerical awards, called test scores. This brings to mind the next concern in validity and power framework, tactical authenticity.

In an atmosphere of close power relations, participants are not "empowered to take action" (Lynch, 2001, p. 232), which is the concern of tactical authenticity. As we saw, students adopt a conservative guise, leading to their further disempowered to air their basic grievances, e.g., when they are humiliated via instructors' remarks. As the outcome of most assessments in the academia is no more than a bunch of scores, the chances of taking significant actions to improve on the construct under investigation are also slim. Such practice takes away agency from test takers to take action aiming at further improvement.

Another factor in evaluating the validity of both traditional and alternative assessments is fairness. In alternative assessment, which is epistemologically more compatible with classroom tests, fairness translates into allowing each individual "equal opportunity to demonstrate their ability" (Lynch & Shaw, 2005, p. 232). Fairness also requires that we assume responsibility for the consequences of our assessments. In a nondemocratic milieu fostered through the assessment power, none of the above criteria can be met as learners are mainly concerned with earning scores. To that aim they utilize strategies that have little to do with the construct of language proficiency. As Messick (1996)

maintains, all practices which lead to increases in scores without corresponding gains in the target construct are instances of detrimental test washback and hence are of dubious fairness.

We end this article with a few suggestions for imporving the current assessment culture in language programs. The first and most important is that for assessment to be at the service of learning. For this to happen, evolved, mobile, reversible power relations among stakeholders is of paramount importance. This is akin to a willingness on the part of teachers to give some agency to students to be involved in testing decisions. Occasional uses of peer and self-assessments as well as portfolios are among the alternatives that make current assessment practices more democratic.

One of the misconceptions in both secondary and higher education is that a language teacher or instructor is by nature a qualified language assessor too. This is not necessarily true (see Fulcher, 2012;Popham, 2009). All those involved in language education need to stay current with good practices in language assessment. We all need regular doses of assessment literacy, as Popham (2006)puts it. It is imperative to remember thatLanguage assessment literacy (LAL) has its own requirements, the mastery of which demandsconscious ongoing development. More urgently needed for classroom language assessment is familiarity with the principles and procedures of criterion-referenced language assessment.

Beyond strategies, techniques, and areas of knowledge that can potentially help with an expanded knowledge base of language assessment, the single most important factor is developing a capacity to reflect on the "often tacit preconceptions, beliefs, understandings, and worldviews about assessment that teacher-assessors bring to their professional learning and their practices of assessment" (Scarino, 2013, p.310). It is only within such a capacity that we come to realize how our today's practices of assessment are reflections of centuries of educational practices at the heart of all of which has been an element of power. Tests have been the major apparatus in preserving this power.

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Appendix A. Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
1. Instructors control students' behavior, threatening them with cuts in their final grades.		.67
2. Students' in-class behavior is one of instructors' major criteria in their final assessments.		.49
3. For the sake of my grades, I respect teachers whom I don't have much respect for otherwise.	.76	
4. Had they not had control over students' grades, instructors were not so much respected.	.62	
5. There are times when the instructors' manners are insulting or demeaning but for fear of my grades I show no reaction.	.77	
6. I care about the signs instructors put next to my name in their lists.		-.50
7. Had it not been for their control over our grades, instructors who are weak at teaching and managing could not survive students' taunts and jibs.	.57	
8. Instructors do not master the content they teach but students do not object for fear of their grades.	.56	
9. Instructors who are generous with grades are successful in handling their classes.		
10. Upon graduation, I don't show the respect I now have to have for my instructors due to my grades.	.52	
11. Weak students are more obedient to teachers because of their fear of failure in the courses.	.34	
12. I can create serious problems for instructors by asking questions that come to my mind but I refrain because of my fear for grades.	.67	
13. At times I know the instructor's explanations are faulty but I agree with him/her because I fear for my grades	.74	
14. I pick up nothing from my classes but I pretend to be paying attention only because I want to secure my grades.	.60	
15. I know classes give me nothing but I attend only for the sake of my grades.		
		.54

Title

Power Distribution in EFL Context: Probing the Potential Role of Age and Grade of Study

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Abstract

The current investigation sought to explore the power relationships prevailing among Iranian university EFL learners and their professors. Thus, in keeping with their main preoccupation in the present scrutiny, the researchers strived to gauge the possible influence of learners' age and educational level on the power relationships holding between them and their professors. The participants of the study were some 42 BA and MA university EFL learners, both males and females, studying at a variety of grades in Urmia University. To conduct the investigation and elicit the required data, the researchers administered a purpose-made questionnaire, which was devised following the lead of Wardhaugh (1990) and Johnson and Johnson (1999). The researchers' tailored questionnaire encompassed 24 items which addressed such notions as the participants' way of addressing their professors and classmates, interruption, use of titles, tag questions, T/V distinction, uncertainty and hesitation among others. In tandem with the gained upshots, the participants' demographic features, i.e. their age and educational

level, were found to significantly affect the manner in which the power relationships went on in the class milieu.

1. Introduction

Needless to say, language is not confined merely to its forms and structural patterns. When put to use in the social context, the same structural patterns can play a totally different part. Thus, pragmatics has been defined as "how language is interpreted by its users in its linguistic as well as non-linguistic context" (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, p. 249). The linguistic context may, at times, be referred to as co-text, and even sometimes entail participants' knowledge of other texts (intertext). The non-linguistic context may include relationships between participants and emotions, their inferencing procedures, their cultural and world knowledge, their perceptions of different contexts of situation and their paralanguage. Brown and Yule (1983) define pragmatics as "any analytical approach in linguistics which involves contextual considerations" (p. 26). In like manner, Hudson's (1993) definition of pragmatics is not dissimilar to Brown and Yule's: "the rules for using linguistic items in context" (p. 220).

When used in the social context, language can turn into a means for the execution and display of power. Thus, when interacting with each other, individuals establish power relationships that are displayed in such interrelated areas as terms of address, control and domination, 'unequal encounters', and linguistic imperialism. More often than not, in such 'power' relationships, one interactant is superior to the other participant(s). These terms are used not in the negative sense of the word, but they are rather employed to show possession as well as exertion of power (superiority) or lack of power (inferiority) in these interactions.

According to Wardhaugh (1990), power continues to be a dominant part of the modern social structure. Hudson (1993) mentions two dimensions dominant in the relations among individuals: power and solidarity. In the first dimension, one interactant is subordinate or superior to the other. In such cases, some rules are supposed to be followed by both the speaker and the addressee. For example, in a power relationship where the speaker is superior to the addressee, the speaker will display possession of power since the encounter is unequal in terms of power status. The superior party in such a relationship will display, exert, and execute power through the selection of conversational topics and control of the turn-taking

mechanisms. The powerful speaker can also interrupt other individuals, namely the inferior speakers, and choose whether to speak or remain silent (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Additionally, the superior speaker is freer as to the use of address terms, for example in the selection from among *Mr Smith*, *Sir*, *John*, *mate*, and so on to accost an inferior speaker. As we shall see, the subordinate party, on the other hand, lacks such a right and claiming the right to do so, for instance, by using such address terms as Smith to call one's boss will, in all probability, be interpreted as a sign of defiance. On the other hand, solidarity is present when the individuals are of the same or equal power status as in the case of close friends or two bosses or workers in the same office.

Wardhaugh (1990) adds another component to the elements that play a significant part in the interaction between the superior and inferior parties: T/V distinction. Although this is no longer a feature of English language, at the time of Shakespeare it was the case when the English used the singular *thee* to address one person. The superior speaker delivered T, the singular pronoun for *you*, to the inferior speaker and received V, the plural pronoun for *you*, instead. Thus, it is an obvious feature of every relationship to be dominated by either one party or another through power, solidarity or a mixture of these components.

As it is obvious, almost no interaction is neutral and virtually all individuals are engaged in relationships characterized by either power or solidarity. What was said above is also true of the classroom settings in which the major interaction is established between the teacher and students. This interaction is expected to be influenced by power imbalance at play. The objectives of this study include an exploration of the relationship among university students and professors while taking into account numerous elements including interruption, address terms, and tone, among others, involved in the two-way street of student-teacher and student-student relationship. The focus is, thus, placed on variables such as the participants' gender, educational level as well as age which are supposed to play a part in power relationships in the teacher-student interaction.

This study, qualitative in nature, set out to explore the student-teacher power relationships (STPR) in the Iranian academic EFL context between/among university learners of English and professors. This aspect of student-teacher relationship has been rarely probed, giving rise to the impetus for the implementation of this study. The main gap in the literature surrounding this problem is lack of exhaustive and extensive work that can bridge this gap and lead to a better understanding of STPR.

In order to investigate how power is displayed or executed in the classroom or to examine how EFL learners perceive the teacher power, the current study aims to provide answers to

the following research questions and argue as cogently as possible to interpret the results obtained.

1. What is the role of Iranian EFL learners' educational level in the teacher-student interaction?

2. What is the role of Iranian EFL learners' age in the teacher-student interaction?

3. What are the elements influential in realizing power in Iranian EFL academic settings?

The findings of this study are hopefully expected to reveal how EFL learners perceive the way teacher power is manifested in the classroom. In addition, the findings can provide insights about the asymmetries in the classroom discourse, and consequently contribute to the improvement of this situation and transformation of the oppressive discourse that is most often observed in classrooms.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Power, Politeness and Face: Theoretical Perspectives

The bulk of research studies concerned with the pragmatic aspects of the interactions among interlocutors, particularly those holding between teacher and students in classroom settings, lends evidence to the fact that this area of enquiry has been appropriated mounting interest on the part of researchers, particularly within the recent years. This growing interest is partly reflected in studies conducted by a large number of researchers (e.g., Buzzelli & Johnston, 2001; Camp, 2011; Corcoran, 2011; Cornelius & Herrenkohl, 2004; Cummins, 2009; Jamieson & Thomas, 1974; Méndez & García, 2012).

As Karlberg (2005) discusses, "In the latter half of the twentieth century, theorists of power began to invoke what has become a widely-used distinction between two broad ways of thinking and talking about power." This binary division, as he says, has to do with the contrast between two aspects of power referred to as "power to" and "power over". Karlberg (2005), then, continues to elaborate on each of these two perspectives of power by way of citing Wartenberg (1990, p.27) who maintains,

> the expressions *power-to* and *power-over* are a shorthand way of making a distinction between two fundamentally different ordinary-language locutions within which the term "power" occurs. Depending upon which locution one takes as the basis of one's theory of power, one will arrive at a very different model of the role of power in the social world. (p. 2)

Karlberg (2005) concerns himself more with the latter category, i.e. *power-over*, and relates it to his proposed notion of *power as domination* which, as he states, "highlights issues of social conflict, control, and coercion" (p. 2). Power distribution in the classroom context can also be tailored to this discussion through attending to pertinent notions of turn-taking and politeness.

In most learning contexts, it is merely the teacher who assumes the most active role and holds the floor, and hence learners might be required to wait for minutes on end to be given the floor to raise their points. That's, perhaps, why learners, are sometimes even referred to as "passive targets" in the classroom (Van Dijk, 2001, p. 356). Yet, it is mostly the case that only some students who are more capable of winning the teacher's attention are given the right to keep the floor and dominate the rest of class, hence compelling the weak turn-takers (less successful students) into compulsory silence. After all, as Adger (2001, p. 505) puts it, "weak turns fall prey to the 'turn sharks' hovering in the interactional waters to snatch them up."

Teacher's role, in this regard, might be considered to be quite critical, for s/he is the only one in the class who can bring about a fair distribution of turns among the learners. Underscoring the role of classroom climate in producing more student involvement, Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson, and Salovey (2011), for instance, refer to "classroom emotional climate (CEC)" which they delineate as "the extent to which teachers promote positive emotions and make students feel comfortable" (p. 27) and contend that, "Students' relationships with supportive teachers are expected to promote a sense of connectedness in the classroom" (p. 28). This sense of connectedness, in turn, is thought to underlie the greater penchant, on the part of learners, to take part in classroom activities.

On second thoughts, issues of politeness and face-saving attempts might also contribute to the discussion at hand. Defined by Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, and Ogino (1986) as "one of the constraints on human interaction, whose purpose is to consider others` feelings, establish levels of mutual comfort, and promote rapport" (cited in Pishghadam & Navari, 2012, p. 161), the concept of politeness may be conceived of in different opposing ways by different cultures and in varied learning contexts. To adopt Najeeb, Maros, and Mohd Nor's (2012) words, "Politeness strategies may differ and vary from one culture to another … and all cultures communicate politeness in terms of linguistic or non linguistic perspectives" (p. 127).

In some parts of the globe, including East Asian and Muslim countries (our country included), for instance, the notion of politeness gains more significance, as the learners in

such contexts are expected to observe politeness while interacting with their instructors and even peers. Interestingly enough for our discussion, politeness at times may play a destructive role in the process of learning and classroom participation, as remaining silent, which is known as one of the salient signs of politeness (see for example Leng, Yao, & Leng, 2013), seems to have turned to a widespread strategy opted for in language classes.

Also quite relevant to the present discussion might be the concept of face, which is mostly thought of as an inseparable component of politeness. As Blitvich (2013) rightly puts it, "The field of linguistic politeness has of late experienced a renewed interest in conceptualizations of one of its core concepts, face" (p. 1). A rather comprehensive delineation of the concept of face appears in Abbas (2013), where she states,

> Face is the 'public self-image' which speakers in a society claim for themselves. It has two related aspects, called 'positive' and 'negative' face. Positive face refers to the positive consistent self-image or 'personality' claimed by interactants, including the desire that this image should be appreciated and approved of by others. Negative politeness, on the other hand, refers to the speaker's basic claim to territories, personal preserves and the right to nondistraction: in other words, the speaker's freedom of action and freedom from imposition. (p. 186)

Now turning back to our earlier discussion of classroom role-distribution, turn-taking and power relationships, the pertinence of face might be further illuminated by referring to another quotation from Feeney and Bonnefon, (2012), where they argue,

> All people are motivated to protect the face of themselves and others and the protection of face is known as face work. Face may be threatened if a speaker disagrees with, criticizes, or embarrasses a listener. Speakers may take steps to minimize the threat which an utterance makes to the face of their interlocutor. One such step is to be polite and in this context politeness is a linguistic strategy that decreases face threat. (p. 183)

Thus, adopting confrontational styles while teaching is likely to put learners on the defensive, a reaction which might be conceived of as an attempt on the part of learners to reduce the threat to their face. This might be the chief reason underlying learners' silence in language classes. Furthermore, since the notions of face and identity are inextricably intertwined (e.g. Joseph, 2013), learners who see their sense of identity jeopardized would rather remain silent than endanger their sense of identity.

2.2 A Concise Overview of Empirical Research

Having provided a pithy account of how power relations are configured in the classroom context, and how notions such as turn-taking, politeness and face relate to role-distribution and power allotment in such contexts, the researchers will now turn to a laconic overview of the empirical studies conducted on concepts like power and domination in learning circumstances.

In a study of 207 high school, undergraduate and graduate students, carried out via the use of questionnaire, Jamieson and Thomas (1974) examined the issue of conflict in the student-teacher relationship, assuming that the lack of power on the part of students could lead to their inability to cope with decisions taken that might frustrate them. They further noted that "This disenfranchisement of students has a number of dysfunctional consequences" (p. 323). Bearing in mind French and Raven's (1959) typology of interpersonal power, i.e. reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, expert power, and informational power (see Elias & Mace, 2005), they found that an uneven distribution of power existed between the students and teachers and concluded that this indicated the authoritarian mode of teacher influence.

The role of power was extensively investigated in a series of articles entitled *Power in the Classroom* by McCroskey and Richmond (1983), Kearney, Plax, Richmond and McCroskey (1985) and Plax, Kearney, McCroskey and Richmond (1986). McCroskey and Richmond (1983) assert that "power and communication are closely interrelated" (p. 175), and that it is the way that the teacher communicates that determines the type and the extent of the power that s/he imposes on the students. In their study of 156 teachers and 2698 students which aimed to set an acceptable method of measuring use of power and to determine the extent to which the teacher and students have shared perceptions of the concept of power, they found that in the teachers' and students' viewpoints, the coercive power was less likely to be used than other types of power.

Kearney, et al.'s study (1985) set out to extend the typology of power that teachers use and construe as effective. They concluded that "perhaps […] teacher characteristics that are more related to their ability to assertively communicate control or student concern (e.g., communication apprehension, assertiveness, teacher communication concern immediacy)" are the elements that determine the effectiveness of teacher power (p. 27).

Plax, et al. (1986) examined the use of nonverbal behaviors, referred to as immediacy cues, by the teachers to gain student control. Utilizing Behavior Alteration Techniques (BAT), Teacher Immediacy and Student Affective Learning as their instruments of study,

they found relationships among BAT use, immediacy and affect which were in line with the results obtained in earlier studies in this series.

Benesch (1999) examined the students' resistance to institutional and professional control in a paired EAP/ psychology course at a US college. Benesch found that students responded with questions and complaints toward the displays of "unilateral bureaucratic power" (p. 325). She concluded that by making the students aware of the power relations, "EAP can encourage them to question academic life and contribute to its improvement"(p. 326).

In a more recent study, Elias and Mace (2005), utilizing a modified version of Raven and French's (1998) Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI), scrutinized the students' attributions for compliance, with an eye on the student gender, region of residence within the United States and class standing (i.e., lower vs. upper division). The results of their study revealed that "the power taxonomy can be altered based on the powerholder-target relationship or dynamic" (p. 1750). They concluded with an emphasis on the difference between the social power, applicable to the university classroom, and "a more traditional setting where there is a powerholder and a target" (p. 1752).

Furthermore, in their probe into the role of teacher power and control in students' perceptions, Brekelmans, Mainhard, den Brok, and Wubbels (2011, p. 19) concluded that "teachers with relatively high levels of Control and Affiliation, according to their students, are therefore referred to as more interpersonally competent." These researchers further averred that, "students who perceive more teacher Control and Affiliation show greater cognitive achievement, stronger engagement, and more positive subject-related attitudes than do students who perceive their teacher as performing at lower levels of these dimensions" (pp. 18-19).

The Iranian context does not seem to have welcomed much investigation into the role of power in academic settings. In this regard, Niroomand (2012) scrutinized the way power modifies the use of politeness strategies by Iranian EFL learners. In yet another recent study drawing on Fairclough's approach to critical discourse analysis, Abdullah and Hosseini (2012) analyzed the EFL classroom practice to explore the unequal power relationships in Iranian high school EFL classes. They found that such discursive strategies as teacher-controlled talking time, turn taking, topic control, modes of meaning construction and elicitation strategies are used by teachers to keep the students powerless and passive.

Informed by this ostensible dearth of research on the issue, the current study is, therefore, intended as an attempt to bridge, though partially, some of the gaps in the literature on the

critical concept of power distribution in class, toward which very scant attention seems to have been paid, particularly on the part of domestic research community.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

Participants of the study included 42 undergraduate and graduate university learners of English, both males and females, from varied educational levels. Demographic data including age, gender, and educational level of the study participants are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 *Demographic Specifications of the Participants*

	Undergraduate	**Graduate**
Age	Min.: 18	Min.: 23
	Max.: 28	Max.: 28
Gender	Male: 32.5%	Male: 25%
	Female: 67.5%	Female: 75%

Note. Min. and Max. stand for Minimum, Maximum, respectively.

3.2 Instrumentation

Following the lead of Wardhaugh (1990), particularly chapter 11, and Johnson and Johnson (1999), the researchers devised a questionnaire to elicit data from the participants. The questionnaire included 24 items which addressed such notions as the participants' way of addressing their professors and classmates, interruption, use of titles, tag questions, intonation when speaking, T/V distinction, uncertainty and hesitation among others. The content validity of the questionnaire was analyzed by three EFL university professors and the necessary modifications were applied to the questionnaire. The researchers were available at the time the participants filled in the questionnaire in case any question was raised or items were unclear to them.

3.3 Procedure

Being mainly of a descriptive nature, the present study was carried out in Urmia University with the participants (42 in total) studying in differing BA and MA semesters. The study was conducted through the administration of the researchers' devised questionnaire to learners, who were then provided with illuminating guidelines as to how they were to fill in the questionnaires. The researchers were present in case any questions were posed by the learners as to the way questionnaires were to be filled and to make sure no ambiguity was encountered. As stated earlier, the questionnaires had been screened meticulously prior to their administration, and three experienced university professors had examined the

questionnaire in terms of validity. Pearson product moment correlation was the major statistical procedure which was utilized for calculating the correlation between the variables of age and educational level and the responses provided by the participants.

4. Results and Discussion

The current study was mainly aimed at exploring the teacher-student power relationship at the university level. In so doing, an attempt was also made to find the possible correlation between the answers provided by EFL learners and their age and educational level defined in terms of university semesters.

4.1 Correlation between EFL Learners' Educational Level and their Responses

One of the variables investigated in this study was the participants' educational level which was defined in terms of university semesters. The researchers set out to scrutinize the relationship between this variable and the participants' responses to the questionnaire items. The first research question was stated as follows:

1. What is the role of Iranian EFL learners' educational level in the teacher-student interaction?

The results of the study indicated that the participants' educational level correlated significantly with some of the questionnaire items. The results are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2 *The Results for the Significant Correlations between EFL Learners' Educational Level and their Responses*

	Item 2	Item 4	Item 9	Item 13
Pearson correlation	$-.321^*$	$-.433^{**}$	$.333^*$	$.405^{**}$
Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	.005	.036	.009
N	40	40	40	40

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The responses provided by EFL learners showed that educational level, in general, correlated negatively with item 2 ('Does your professor remain silent when you ask him/her questions or ask for something?') and item 4 ('Do you address your classmates by their first names?'), with the values of -.32 ($p < .05$) and -.43 ($p < .01$), respectively. This observation indicates that as the students' university level increases, most often university professors speak rather than remaining silent when addressed by their students. Remaining silent can be

interpreted as a means to decline to answer the addresser's request. In effect, as opposed to speaking, silence can be perceived as a way of demonstrating power as previously mentioned. The negative correlation between educational level and item 4 ('Do you address your classmates by their first names?') comes as a surprise since it is expected that with the passage of time students get along more comfortably and intimately with one another.

However, the same finding may refer to the fact that students' avoidance of mentioning one another's first names may be indicative of demonstrating and exposing one another to their power. Also, a positive correlation can be observed between the answers and item 9 ('Do you think that your professor interrupts you because s/he is more powerful than you are?') and item 13 ('Do you hesitate when you talk to others?'), with the values of .33 ($p < .05$) and .40 ($p < .01$), respectively. An interesting finding was that the students' responses to item 9 correlated *positively* with their educational level. This is probably suggesting that students' view of their professors continues to be more like *authorities* who control and dominate the class, demonstrating their power through interrupting their students!

Notwithstanding, one should be cautious about generalizing this moderately significant finding to all situations. Additionally, responses to item 13 ('Do you hesitate when you talk to others?') indicate that this finding, although significant in a positive way, is to be approached more cautiously, as well. Hesitation, believed to suggest uncertainty, implies that the individual feels 'inferior', not in the negative sense of the word but in terms of power, to the addressee. Thus, as can be seen, the lowest and highest correlations belong to items 4 and 13, respectively.

4.2 Correlation between EFL Learners' Age and their Responses

The study also set out to explore the relationship between the participants' age and their responses to the questionnaire items. The second research question was put forward as follows:

2. *What is the role of Iranian EFL learners' age in the teacher-student interaction?*

Table 3 below summarizes the results in this connection.

Table 3 *The Results for the Significant Correlations between EFL Learners' Age and their Responses*

	Item 2	Item 4	Item 9	Item 16(b)	Item 20(b)
Pearson correlation					
	-.338[*]	-.335[*]	.358[*]	.455[**]	.395[*]
Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	.035	.023	.005	.025
N	40	40	40	37	32

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen, results show that age has correlated negatively with items 2 ('Does your professor remain silent when you ask him/her questions or ask for something?') and 4 ('Do you address your classmates by their first names?'), both with the same value of -.33 ($p <$ .05). Interestingly enough, this observation indicates that age does affect how individuals interact with one another. Findings show that as students' age increases, professors speak more frequently rather than remaining silent when they are accosted by their students. As indicated earlier, of silence and speaking, the latter is indicative of solidarity while the former suggests power. Age modifies significantly the teacher-student relationship differently as items 9 (.35, $p <$.05), 16(b) (.45, $p <$ .01) and 20(b) (.39, $p <$ .05) lend credibility to this finding. These items deal with the reason why professors interrupt their students (item 9), the way of forming questions by raising one's tone (item 16(b)), and addressing one's professor using his/her name along with such titles as 'Dr.', 'Mr.', 'Mrs.'. The positive correlation of age with these items demonstrates that age influences an interaction *positively*, as well.

4.3 The Role of Power in Iranian EFL Academic Settings

The third research question stated:

3. What are the elements influential in realizing power in Iranian EFL academic settings?

The findings indicated that more power than solidarity dominated the academic setting. Overall, of the elements that were investigated to see their effect on the teacher-student relationship, the findings demonstrated that silence, address terms, interruption, hesitation and uncertainty, raising intonation to ask questions and asking questions along with the addressee's title and name are among the influential elements in realizing power in Iranian EFL academic settings. In general, the findings of this study are, to some extent, in keeping with those of Abdullah and Hosseini (2012), who spelled out some discursive strategies frequently exerted by teachers in an attempt to keep students powerless and passive.

5. Concluding Remarks

This study was an attempt to explore the nature of teacher-student power relationship and of the elements involved in this interaction in an Iranian context. Based on the obtained findings, the researchers tend to conclude that such elements as age and educational level of the students do impact on the teacher-student relationship. Findings indicate that, like Jamieson and Thomas' (1974) study, the student-teacher relationship in Iranian academic context is of the authoritarian mode. A word of caution, however, seems inevitable, at this

juncture, to accentuate that this finding is not necessarily to be taken as negative or counterproductive, as every educational context, in terms of the elements included, as well as the individuals interacting, is quite unique. One obvious implication is that university professors are expected to take into account these components when interacting with their learners, so that solidarity, and not power, would dominate this interaction. Nevertheless, power seems to be an inevitable, inherent, and unavoidable element in the teacher-student interaction, as Hurt, Scott and McCroskey (1978, cited in McCroskey & Richmond, 1983) pointed out that, "in a classroom setting a certain degree of teacher power is always present" (p. 175). After all, however enticing the findings of the current study might prove to be, further investigations on the issue, particularly by involving more participants and delving into learners' perceptions and attitudes, would help come up with more insights as to the way classroom discourse is to be approached by different educationalists.

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Appendix

Questionnaire (Language and Power: A Case of Iranian EFL Learners and Their Professors)

Age: …………. Semester: …………… Year: 1   2   3   4   Mother tongue: ……………

Gender: ○ Male ○ Female   Email (for further contact if necessary): Dear language learner,

The following questionnaire has been devised to do a research study on the relationship between university students and professors. All the information you provide will be kept **CONFIDENTIAL.** Please make sure to provide honest, clear, and exact answers to the questions. The researchers would like to thank you in advance for your highly appreciable and kind help.

In the following questions, the numbers correspond to:

1=never   2= rarely   3=sometimes   4=often   5=always

 Tick the box that you think is appropriate as fitting you!

	How often:	1	2	3	4	5
1	Do you use such titles as 'sir', 'madam', etc. at the end of the questions you ask your male or female professor?					
2	Does your professor remain silent when you ask him/her questions or ask for something?					
3	Do you address your professor by his/her first name?					
4	Do you address your classmates by their first names?					
5	Does your professor speak (=do not remain silent) when you ask them questions?					
6	Does your professor select the conversational topics for you to talk about in the classroom?					
7	Does your professor interrupt you when you are talking to him/her or to your classmates?					

8	Do your classmates interrupt you?					
9	Do you think that your professor interrupts you because s/he is more powerful than you are?					
10	Do you think that your classmates interrupt you because they want to help you?					
11	Are you ordered by your professor to be quiet?					
12	Are you ordered by your professor to start speaking?					
13	Do you hesitate when you talk to others?					
14	Do you use **tag questions** when you talk to others? Example: The professor is leaving**,** *isn't he*?					
15	Are you uncertain when you speak to others or express your opinion?					
16	Do you use each of the following structures? a) forming questions by using a modal verb, for example: **Will he come**? b) forming questions by raising your intonation, for example: **He will come**?					
17	Do you interrupt your classmates when they are speaking?					
18	Do you interrupt your professor when s/he is speaking?					
19	Do you address your professor using the Persian singular pronoun "تو"؟					
20	How do you address your professor? a) Do you use titles like "sir", "madam", etc. only? For example: *Excuse me sir, can I …?* Or b) Do you use the above-mentioned titles along with your professor's name, for example: *Excuse me Dr. Alizadeh, can I …?*					
21	Do you talk to your professors differently if they are from different age groups?					
22	Do you talk to/address your professor differently if s/he has a higher or lower position in university?					
23	Do you talk more slowly and softly to an older professor than to a younger one?					
24	Do you use longer sentences when you speak to your professor than when you speak to your friends?					

Title

EFL Teachers' Perception of Professional Knowledge through In-service Programmes

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Biodata

Ghasemali Azadi, M.A. in TESL from University of Putra Malaysia (UPM) and currently teaching at Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Iran. His areas of interest include teacher training, testing, L2 methodology, and curriculum development. His published articles in academic journals such as JALS, ILI, and TPLS are in the reign of EFL teacher development.

Abstract

This study attempts to identify the perceptions of EFL teachers in high schools towards the enhancement of the professional knowledge (PK) presented in the short-term in-service development programmes (SIDPs). EFL context in which English is exclusively learnt and used in the classroom calls for the need of proficient non-native teachers and highlights the role of SIDPs to support teachers to survive in the teaching profession. The main objective for this study is to determine whether there is any significant difference between EFL teachers' gender, academic qualification, teaching experience, and age and their perception towards the PK presented in SIDPs. The data were collected through questionnaire using a quantitative research method with a descriptive design and cross-sectional procedure. As the sample, 256 Iranian EFL teachers at Esfahan high schools in 2013 participated in the study and filled up questionnaires. The results were analysed through both descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings on sample's gender, academic qualification, teaching experience, and age indicate: a) there is no significant difference in the PK between male and female teachers. The attitude of both groups is positive; b) there is significant difference in the PK between Bachelors and Masters. EFL teachers holding Bachelor degree show positive attitude towards the programme while those holding Master degree show negative attitude; c) although all three groups with different teaching experience perceive PK as positive, there is difference among

the three groups. The least experienced teachers show the most positive attitude and the most experienced ones show the least positive attitude and d) the youngest teachers show the most positive attitude and the eldest ones show the least positive attitude towards PK. In light of findings, the implications of the study concern the need for education policy-makers to outline more practice-based SIDPs, for teacher educators to revisit development strategies by welcoming EFL teachers' challenges faced in the classroom, and for EFL teachers to involve actively in the SIDPs to widen their PK.

1. Introduction

Kachru (1985) proposed a model of English extension with three different contexts or circles implicitly representing different approaches by which English language is acquired. The inner circle indicates English as Native Language (ENL) with fully competent speakers, the outer circle implies English as a second language (ESL) with competent speakers, and the expanding circle implies English as a foreign language (EFL) with limited English language speakers (Bolton, 2004, p. 374).

In both ESL and EFL contexts, the need for proficient non-native English language teachers is prominent. The proficiency of teachers in both contexts is intensely dependent on teacher education that drives ESL and EFL teachers towards enhancement in teaching and takes the entire body of an education system towards the assigned goals. The significance of teacher education is viewed by Loughran (2006, p. 14) as a place where "the breakthroughs and insights of knowledge and practice in teaching and learning are immediately applicable and constantly questioned and tested".

In EFL settings, English language teachers are performing a very delicate practice as they teach under the conditions of little or no exposure to English language implementation out of the classroom or in the real world. Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992) demonstrate the context of EFL teachers in which English is purely practised in school settings and is not considered as a medium of instruction and communication throughout the country. Having involved in EFL setting with limitation of exposure to use English in the real context, EFL teachers are very much dependent on teacher training and teacher development programmes to be remarkably prepared for teaching enterprise.

In order to maintain teachers in a constant fresh mode on profession, very much attention should be paid to development programmes in EFL context that consequently lead teachers to practice better teaching, to develop EFL learners, and to fulfil school reform (Curtis, 2008). Such programmes, according to Dillon and Maguire (2001, p. 69), potentially enhance teachers' competency levels relevant to knowledge and understanding of "subject matter, teaching and classroom management, assessment recording, reporting and other professional requirements".

Being influenced by the constant changes of the today's world, teacher development needs to be restructured and have constant movement towards betterment via both effective knowledge and enquiry because they play significant roles in driving both teaching and learning towards changes if need be (Thomas, 2002). Furthermore, teacher development should generate changes and significantly influence teacher effectiveness by the delivery of programmes, activities, and strategies to help teachers how to "move from knowledge transmission to knowledge construction" (Freeman, 2002, p.73). Through such shift, teachers, particularly L2 teachers, construct their own feelings and understandings of teaching and learning.

Professional knowledge (PK), in the setting of teaching language, deals with teachers' knowledge and understanding of presentation of materials, teachers' application of various techniques to offer the materials, and teachers' enthusiasm towards the profession and students (Rahman, Ghafar, and Li, 2010). In a broad sense, PK targets at the teachers' tasks, lesson presentation, and students' development. Teachers' tasks deal with expressing the knowledge of various materials of the textbooks, enhancing teacher's growth, and presenting class practices while lesson presentation focuses on managing appropriate offerings of textbook materials and managing classroom. However, students' development involves in considering students' need, improving students' behaviour, and increasing students' motivation (ibid).

Martinet, Raymond, and Gauthier (2001) classify PK in four categories: "foundations; teaching acts; educational context; and professional identity". Regarding foundations, teachers not only should act as a professional critic and interpreter of knowledge but also should communicate clearly in the language of instruction. Concerning teaching acts, teachers should develop teaching/learning situations, evaluate students' progress, and organise and supervise the class enhancement. Relating to educational context, teachers should adapt his/her teaching to the needs and characteristics of students, join information and communication technologies, and cooperate with teaching teams. Pertaining to

professional identity, teachers should engage in professional development individually and with others and show ethical and responsible professional behaviour.

In this paper, PK is operationally defined as the subject knowledge, updating knowledge, self development, and experience enhancement, the development of assessment procedure, interaction and classroom management.

2. Background

Due to the sensitivity towards education in general, societies, politicians, and the media put the blame for the inadequacies of society's youth and the ineffective schools on teachers. Teachers are said to fail or be incompetent or lack healthy perspectives when teacher training or teacher development system plays an inappropriate or inadequate role. According to Pushkin (2001), in order to eliminate or minimise the possible teachers' failure especially towards today's changes, teacher training and teacher development systems need to be "deconstructed to the most fundamental views and to be rebuilt to reflect those views appropriately". It is believed that no one can develop students without developing teachers as no one can develop teachers without developing teacher training and teacher development programmes. In sum, improving teachers and students deeply depends on reforming and developing teacher development programmes because they are the main propositions that teacher development is inherently founded for.

According to Thiessen and Kilcher (1993), the core of studies on teacher development indicates innovations in where and why alternative features or changes need to take place and enable four major partners in teacher development "government, universities, school boards, teaching profession" to sustain and enhance innovative approaches. Additionally, Freeman and Richards (1993) define L2 teaching as "a science, a technology, a craft, or an art" with distinctive orientations, professional knowledge, essential skills, and suggest certain approaches to prepare and develop teachers for each definition.

Dam (2008) indicates that a development programme for L2 teachers in secondary schools in a European country was initiated in Lancaster- England in 1978 and is still in operation. In 1978, Dam and Gabrielsen, familiar with the work of the Lancaster trainers such as Breen and Candlin in communicative language teaching (CLT), invited them to Denmark to offer a short intensive in-service course for a group of EFL teachers in local secondary schools. The aim of the workshops was to introduce and implement innovation in language teaching. At

that time, the four people involved in this initial venture had no idea that the proposed course might become a kind of continuing programme.

Pushkin (2001) indicates the first form of development programmes in American education was held in 1830s and the goal was to maintain respected academic programmes. Until 1900, four general curricular theories were followed "classical humanism; child centring; social efficiency; and social reconstruction". Then, the programmes became holistic, providing teachers with integrated learning experiences relative to their interests and goals. In 1970s, a seven-step lesson plan including "objectives; standards; anticipatory set; teaching/presentation; guided practice; closure; and independent practice" influenced teacher development programmes. In 1990s and beyond, the evolution of teacher development fell in stronger commitment to cultural diversity and sensitivity.

Based on the details of teacher preparation format in Iran documented by Safi (1992, p. 27), before the establishment of the first teacher training centres, Dar-al-moalemin and Dar-al-moalemat in 1918, teachers in Maktab (i.e., the primitive form of school) did not receive any education. They were usually selected from the best and the most studious students. In 1928, those centres changed to Darolmoalemin Aali (i.e., Higher Teacher Centres) and in 1974, it was renamed as Teacher Training University (Alagheband, 1995 and Safi, 2001). In the 1970s, due to the rapid growth of population as well as the segregation of schools, new teacher training centres with new syllabuses came into existence (Menashri, 1992, p. 108).

Teacher education for EFL teachers in Iran in the form of course work or workshops have been handled and monitored by governmental institutions, either the Higher Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Education. In pre-service teacher training courses, participants take part in the long-term university programmes to be initiated into the teaching enterprise and in in-service development programmes; they are prepared for successful continuation of the enterprise (Safi, 2001). The SIDPs for EFL teachers in the form of seminars or lectures available for few weeks are offered to increase intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth of Iranian teachers to continue to evolve in the use, adaptation, and application of their PK in real context. The distinguished university lecturers or highly qualified head teachers present the components of the SIDPs for EFL teachers in approximately two-to-four-week courses and the probable issues are debated by lecturers and teachers in a constructive dialogue type at the end of each session (Saiedi, 1997).

Fathivajargah (1997) points out the SIDPs for EFL teachers in Iran which were started in 1930s received the first systematic programmes in 1977. The programmes were organised locally and each city could design and manage its own in-service education courses. Then,

due to Iran revolution in 1979, the textbooks and educational system underwent a great change; therefore, there was an urgent need for renewing the in-service teacher development programmes.

According to Fathivajargah (2008), the SIDPs in Iran entail different formats. The most familiar format is Face-to-face one in which teachers should attend seminars or conferences in the training centres on the weekend or in the afternoon programmes. The Sandwich format is another stream of the SIDPs through which development packages are handed to teachers to improve their profession theoretically and practically without attending certain sessions in training centres. The other format is On-the-spot development which brings development sessions in the schools instead of taking teachers to training centres. These programmes are planned and held every year involving approximately all staff of the Ministry of Education and teachers in particular. The SIDPs in Iran are presented in the form of regular seminars, lectures and workshops holding from two weeks to four weeks based on the required changes and listed issues.

Regarding ELT, Iranian Ministry of Education offers the programmes for EFL teachers in three categories, that is, professional attitude, professional skills, and understanding. According to Safi (2006), professional attitude category contains willingness to work hard, commitment, respect for learners, and participation in class activities, punctuality and positive attitude towards the study. Professional skills category comprises classroom management, application of professional skills and techniques, appropriate lesson presentation, application of teaching aids, monitoring learners, assessing learners' progress, knowing educational and pedagogical theories, and encouraging learners' language development. Understanding category involves specifying content to a subject area, interpreting information, and teacher-learner participation (ibid).

Narafshan (2006) defines the SIDPs for EFL teachers in Iran context as continuing education which includes training courses emphasising new theoretical approaches towards the issues relevant to the classroom practice, presenting new materials, introducing new techniques and follow-up activities, improving classroom skills, and pursuing question-and-answer routines derived from teachers' experience.

Moreover, Atai and Khaki (2006) mention that some objectives of the SIDPs for EFL teachers, based on the documents of the Iranian Ministry of Education (1999; 2000) are to increase teachers' professional knowledge to teach reading comprehension, listening comprehension, grammatical structure and new words practically, and to help teachers to evaluate oral and written examinations in terms of new demands.

Ananisarab and Mobasheri (2009) examine the effect of short-term teacher training courses on teacher attitudes and practice. Their study indicates that teachers' attitude was changed but it also shows that the change in teachers' attitude does not necessarily lead to a change in the classroom practice.

Studies conducted by Mirhassani and Beh-afarin (2004), Atai and Khaki (2006), Ahmadi (2007), and Ananisarab and Mobasheri (2009) indicate the short-term programmes for EFL teachers suffer from content deficiency, different attitudes towards the programmes, dissatisfaction with the present situation of the programmes, and unaffected practice in the classroom. The mentioned studies reveal the problem is that EFL teachers in Iran are dissatisfied in general with the present situation of the programmes and complain about the content deficiency of such programmes.

Regarding the results of the previous studies, this study is significant as it focuses on the notion of the professional development through EFL teachers' perceptions of the PK for the classroom, deepens teachers' understanding of the role of the in-service programmes, reveals possible grounds for the previously mentioned shortcomings, assists teacher trainers to weigh up the effects of their efforts, and draws up an objective perspective on the role of the programmes for the education policy makers.

In consonant with the objectives and hypotheses of the study, the following research questions were pursued to portrait the possible reasons for the aforementioned deficiencies:

1. Is there any significant difference between EFL teachers' genders in their perception of the PK presented in the SIDP?

2. Is there any significant difference between EFL teachers' academic qualifications in their perception of the PK presented in the SIDP?

3. Is there any significant difference between EFL teachers' teaching experiences in their perception of the PK presented in the SIDP?

4. Is there any significant difference between EFL teachers' ages in their perception of the PK presented in the SIDP?

3. Methodology

Research strategy for data collection and data analysis associated with the research objectives and questions is a quantitative research with descriptive survey design to gather data from the respondents as the representative of some population by using instruments composed of closed or open-ended items. The factors playing the role for the design of the study include who should be studied, when and where the study should be conducted, and why the study should be carried out.

3.1 Participants

A pilot study, in October 2012, was carried out before the actual questionnaire was distributed to the respondents. It was carried out, with 30 teachers who were selected randomly in high schools across the city of Esfahan, to trace "ambiguities", "misunderstanding", or "inadequacies" in the questionnaire (Ary *et al.* 2002, p. 111). Based on their written comments, amendments to the item were made.

To infer the actual sampling, the equation presented by Ary *et al*. (2002) and Yamane's statistic formula (1967) were applied and sample size through their formula where confidence level is 95% and level of precision is .05 was deduced. Since the total number of English language teachers in the high schools of the city of Esfahan is 1432, the formula offers us 312 (n= 1432/1+1432 $(.05)^2$ = 312). However, 256 English language teachers participated in the study. Cluster random sampling was deployed for this study. This sampling was used due to the nature of distribution of population across the city, time, expenses, and the school locations. This probability sampling enables the researcher to select random groups and all individuals of the groups are included (Ary *et al*. 2002).

3.2 Validity and Reliability

Face validity of the questionnaire was judged. It refers to the content of the items that should appear valid for their intended purposes in terms of being relevant and meaningful as a "representative sample of the behaviour domain under investigation" (Ary *et al*. 2002, p. 409). Therefore, the content of the items had been taken into account and viewpoints of TEFL experts at Esfahan University were obtained. After their approval was received, the questionnaire sheets were distributed among 30 randomly selected English language teachers and the obtained data were fed into Social Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to get the reliability or alpha level.

The internal reliability index for all items in the questionnaire of pilot study is 0.77. Since it is considered acceptable in social science (Festinger and Katz, 1966 and Sekaran, 1992), the researcher was confident that questionnaire for this study is reliable (Table 1).

Table 1: Internal reliability of the instrument

Variable	No. of Cases	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
PK	30	20	.77

3.3 Instrument

The personal background of EFL teachers was measured by four variables, namely gender, academic qualification, teaching experience, and age. Gender was typically measured with the categories of male or female. Academic qualification of the participants was considered

through two categories of B.A and M.A. To measure the length of participants' work experience, three ranges were categorised: 1-10, 11-20, and above 20. Age was also classified in three categories: 25-35, 36-45, and above 45.

A 20-item questionnaire was adopted from studies conducted by Abdullah (1999) and Miric (2006) and developed for Iranian EFL context. The items of the questionnaire involved in the aspects of PK as the major concern areas in the classroom context among Iranian EFL teachers. The nature of the items was based on the issues for Iranian EFL teachers addressed in the studies conducted by Ahmadi (2002) and Koosha (2001).

3.4 Data Collection

Although the sample size was considered large, the researcher personally delivered and collected the questionnaire sheets in order to express his concern on the study and to ensure the highest return rate. The survey was carried out from the 9th of October to 8th of November 2012 to distribute and collect the questionnaire sheets after gaining approval from the Ministry of Education board in Esfahan. Out of 105 high schools, and from among 312 distributed questionnaire sheets, 256 sheets were filled out by 117 male and 139 female EFL teachers within six educational districts in Esfahan. The reduction in the number of the returned questionnaire sheets may have been related to fresh teachers who had not participated in that SIDP.

3.5 Data Analysis

According to Ary *et al.* (2002), quantitative large mass of data are usually in the form of numbers that researcher analyses using various statistical procedures. The data associated with this study were analysed based on the objectives and questions of the research. The researcher investigated the significant difference between four independent variables and one dependent variable. EFL teachers' gender, academic qualification, teaching experience, and age are the independent variables (IV) and PK is dependent variable (DV).

For analysing each variable, a relevant statistical method was used. To determine the significant difference between demographic factors and the EFL teachers' perception, the demographic factors are divided in two groups. The first group included gender and the academic qualification as nominal scales. To see the means of two employee groups, T-test was used for analyses. The purpose of applying T-Test is to find the significant difference between the means of two samples (Healey, 2007). Second group included teaching experience and age. Thus, ANOVA was employed as the appropriate procedure to see any significant difference between the three groups. The purpose of employing ANOVA is to

determine the association and difference among three or more factors in data and to provide precise analysis over comparing differences between groups means (Healey, 2007).

The collected data were then fed into SPSS to be analysed considering the scales of measurement of the variables. The data analysis was first followed to examine the reliability of the instrument and, therefore, Cronbach's coefficient alpha value was obtained to compare the pilot study with actual data reliabilities. Then, the Central Limit Theorem (Healey, 2007) and the employment of histogram indicated that the data were normally distributed. Descriptive statistics were then used to analyse mean, standard deviation, frequency distribution, and percentage for participants relevant to IVs. Inferential statistics were used to show the relationships between independent variables and dependent variable.

4. Results

Given that the inference of the internal reliability of the item consistency for independent and dependent variables through the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient found .83 as accepted level, T-Test was manipulated to investigate and compare differences between two group means on gender (male and female) and academic qualification (B.A and M.A holders). The one-way ANOVA was manipulated to investigate and compare within-subject factors design or Post Hoc on teaching experience of EFL teachers [Low (1-10), Moderate (11-20), and High (Above 20)] and the age of EFL teachers [Young (25-35), Mid-age (36-45), and Old (Above 45)]. Table 4.1 provides the descriptive statistics for the four levels of IVs. Some information about the variables, categories in groups, number of the participants, mean, and standard deviation is tabulated respectively.

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics of PK

Variables	Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	Male	117	3.33	.425
	Female	139	3.28	.416
Qualification	BA	225	3.36	.409
	MA	31	2.91	.405
Experience	Low (1-10)	58	3.70	.300
	Moderate (11-20)	82	3.36	.310
	High (Above 20)	116	3.06	.405
Age	Young (25-35)	58	3.70	.300
	Mid-age (36-45)	85	3.34	.329
	Old (Above 45)	113	3.24	.404

To answer the first question involving the gender of EFL teachers, table 4.2, reports the T-Test result for the equality of means between males and females perception of the PK. Since the result shows '*p (.296) >a*', there is no significant difference between males and females in their responses about the PK presented in the programme at *a* = .05.

Table 4.2: Independent Sample T-Test for Gender

T-Test for Gender	t	df	Sig. (2-t)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
PK Equal variances assumed	1.047	254	.296	.5687	.05434

To come up with the result over academic qualification of the teacher in the second question of the study and see if there is difference between B.A and M.A responses about their perception of the PK, T-Test result shows that since '*p (.000) < a*', there is significant difference between B.A and M.A responses to the PK presented in the programme at *a* = .05 (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Independent Sample T-Test for Academic Qualification

T-Test for Qualification	t	df	Sig. (2-t)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
PK Equal variances assumed	5.652	254	.000	.44220	.07838

To address the third queston of the study over the teaching Experience of EFL teachers, Table 4.4 indicates the variation (Sum of Squares), the degrees of freedom (df), and the variance (Mean Square) of the teaching experience groups of participants given for the within and the between groups, as well as the F value (F) and the significance of the F (Sig).

Table 4.4: ANOVA for Teaching Experience

ANOVA for Experience	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.512	2	.756	58.566	.000
Within Groups	3.266	253	.013		
Total	4.778	255			

Since '*Sig-F (.000) < a*', EFL teachers in the three experience categories indicated significantly different perceptions towards the PK presented in the programme at the .05 level of significance.

To identify pair groups that are significantly different, the Post Hoc Test-Tukey HSD- is used. Since there were three English teaching experience independent levels, low (1-10), moderate (11-20), and Above 20 (high), three pair-wise comparison possibilities were

existed. (I) English teaching experience represents the independent levels and (J) English teaching experience represents the judged levels of the individual IV- those compared with the independent level (I) in the second column. The first group of 1-10 was compared with other IV levels one by one in a pair-wise manner. The first group mean once compared with the second group mean and then with the third group mean. The second group, i.e. 11-20 was compared with IV level of the third group. In (I-J) column, mean differences for each paired level are presented (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Post Hoc for EFL teachers' Experience

GROUP	(I) EXPERIENCE	(J) EXPERIENCE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1.Low	1-10	11-20	.0961(*)	.01949	.000
2.Moderate	11-20	Above20	.0976(*)	.01639	.000
3.High	Above20	1-10	.1937(*)	.01827	.000

According to the results of table 4.5, a significant difference was observed ($p<.05$) in relation to each pair of low, moderate, and high experienced EFL teachers in reference to their perceptions.

It can be concluded that the first experience group perceived the programme with the most positive attitude. The second experience group perceived the programme better than the third group. On the other hand, the third group perceived the programme with the least positive attitude.

To pursue the forth question of the study on the age, Table 4.6 represents the variation (Sum of Squares), the degrees of freedom (df), and the variance (Mean Square) of the age groups of participants given for the within and the between groups, as well as the F value (F) and the significance of the F (Sig).

Table 4.6: ANOVA for Age

ANOVA for Age	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.432	2	.716	54.144	.000
Within Groups	3.346	253	.013		
Total	4.778	255			

Since '*Sig-F (.000) < a*', EFL teachers in the three age categories indicated significantly different perceptions towards the PK presented in the programme at the .05 level of significance (Table 4.6).

To identify pair groups that are significantly different, the Post Hoc Test- Tukey HSD- is used. According to Table 4.10, since there were three age group independent levels, 25-35, 36-45, and Above 45, three pair-wise comparison possibilities were existed. (I) Age group

represents the independent levels and (J) Age group represents the judged levels of the individual IV- those compared with the independent level (I) in the second column. The first group of 25-35 was compared with other IV levels one by one in a pair-wise manner. The first group mean once was compared with the second group mean and then with the third group mean. The second group, i.e. 36-45 was compared with IV level of the third group. In (I-J) column, mean differences for each paired level are presented (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Post Hoc for Age

Group	(I) AGE	(J) AGE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1.Young	25-35	36-45	.1030(*)	.01959	.000
2.Mid-age	36-45	Above45	.0882(*)	.01651	.000
3.Old	Above45	25-35	.1912(*)	.01858	.000

According to the results of table 4.7, a significant difference was observed *(p<.05)* in relation to each pair of young, mid-aged, and the eldest EFL teachers in reference to their perceptions.

It can be concluded that the first age group perceived the programme with the most positive attitude. The second age group perceived the programme better than the third group. On the other hand, the third group perceived the programme with the least positive attitude.

The basic statistics elicited from the collected data in this study regarding EFL teachers' perception of the PK presented in the SIDP are tabulated in percentage. Table 4.8 represents that 75% of the participants agrees (A) that the SIDP as a resource has developed their PK while 25% of the participants disagrees (D) that the programme has developed their PK.

Table 4.8: EFL teachers' perception of PK

Categories		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A	192	75.0	75.0	100.0
	D	64	25.0	25.0	25.0
	Total	256	100.0	100.0	

5. Discussion

Wallace (1991) proposes three models of teacher development programmes. First, the craft model which gives value to the experimental aspect of professional development considering teaching experience. Second, the applied science model which supports theoretical and practical knowledge to put teaching problems on scientific footing considering practice of profession. And third, the reflective model which considers both science and experience.

According to Safi (2006), teacher development programmes in Iran integrate three basic constituents: teachers' knowledge, skills, and attitudes. They are viewed as the causes of either teacher's success or failures in teaching profession. Having underlined teachers' PK, SIDPs for Iranian EFL teachers pursue the integration of theory and practice presented in line with the reflective model (ibid).

In this study, EFL teachers in Esfahan high school expressed their perception of a three-week SIDP meant to develop their PK. Based on the results of the study; there is no significant difference in the PK presented in the SIDP between male and female teachers. That is, both males and females showed positive attitude towards the PK. There is significant difference in the PK between teachers holding B.A degree and those holding M.A degree. B.A holders showed positive attitude towards the PK, whereas M.A holders indicate negative attitude towards it. Although all three groups of the teachers with different teaching experience perceived the PK as positive, there is significant difference towards the PK among the three groups. The first group with the low teaching experience, i.e. (1-10) showed the most positive attitude towards the PK, whereas the moderate group (11-20) indicated less positive attitude than the low experience group and the high group (Above 20) demonstrated the least positive attitude. Of the age groups, although all three groups of the teachers with different age categories perceived the PK as positive, there is significant difference towards the PK among the three groups. The young group (25-35) showed the most positive attitude towards the PK, while the mid-age group (36-45) indicated less positive attitude than the young group and the old group (Above 45) demonstrated the least positive attitude.

It could be explained by the nature of the distribution of the PK in the SIDP which seems productive and helpful for all teachers especially for the least experienced and the youngest teachers. It could also be described by the participants' expectations of the applications of the PK presented in the SIDP in the real classroom context. It seems that the expectations of EFL teachers with the least teaching experience were met more than that of the moderate and high experience groups.

The findings of this part of the study are different from the study conducted by Mirhassani and Behafarin (2004) as their study showed EFL teachers in Iran, no matter how long the experience is, are dissatisfied with the PK presented in the SIDPs. However, the findings of this study are consistent with the following studies.

Acording to Atai and Khaki (2006), EFL teachers with different teaching experiences show different perceptions of the subject knowledge presented in the SIDPs. Mirhassani and Behafarin (2004) indicate that EFL teachers with different experience and age range express

different perceptions of the SIDPs. Koosha (2001) shows that pursuant to the negative perception of the development programmes among experienced EFL teachers, urgent amendments to the programmes should be made considering the expectations of the most experienced teachers.

The fact that Iranian EFL teachers perceived the PK presented in the SIDP differently mirrors some crucial factors and realities affecting the findings of the study. Among them, the nature of texts for university matriculation (Konqur) in Iran plays a major role. The texts are of the grammar and reading sections as the mere contents which are fully practiced in the classrooms in order for students to pass the matriculation and little or no attention is paid to other skills. Therefore, both EFL teachers and students attempt to fulfil the requirements merely for university matriculation (Ahmadi, 2007) and (Koosha, 2001).

According to Mirhassani and Behafarin (2004), SIDPs for EFL teachers are not held at regular intervals in Iran. The long stretches between programmes fade away the efficiency of the programmes. EFL teachers should be able to learn all the time due to the society needs particularly to be in line with the continuous progress of science and technology.

Almost all Iranian EFL teachers in high schools apply Grammar-translation Method while textbook materials call for communicative approach (Atai and Khaki, 2006). In EFL context with little exposure to real English situation, various communicative approaches can be more productive to meet the real world requirements.

Another reality worth highlighting is that SIDPs for EFL teachers in Iran are certificate-weighted. The sad truth is that teachers consider the programmes as a mere formality and attend them for the certificate as it offers them incentive and credit for better salary (vajargah, 2008). In-service development programmes for EFL teachers need to pave the way for productive changes, particularly to teachers' PS, so that the teachers can apply the changes practically in the classroom. In this regard, the programmes should be subjected to continuous assessment in relation to practical requirements for both teachers and students. In sum, Iranian EFL teachers without enough exposure to the practical teaching skills have difficulty running the classroom resourcefully and efficiently and, therefore, expect the development programmes to provide them with the professional practices for a better foreign language teaching.

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