Probing the Predictive Power of Cultural Intelligence on Iranian EFL Learners' Performance on IELTS Writing Test

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ABSTRACT: This research effort examined the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' Cultural intelligence (CQ) and their performance on the IELTS Writing Module. Furthermore, this study explored the predictive power of the four subscales of CQ on EFL learners' writing ability. In addition, we tried to examine whether the difference between male and female learners' CQ was statistically significant. To this end, eighty three EFL learners, both male and female, participated in this project. Cultural Intelligence Scale and IELTS Writing Module were used in this study. The IELTS Writing Module and the Cultural Intelligence Scale were administered to those test takers who were willing to take part in this study. The results revealed that there exists a significant relationship between EFL learners' CQ and their writing ability. Moreover, among the subscales of CQ, cognitive CQ was found to be the best predictor of writing ability. Finally, male and female EFL learners were not different with regard to CQ. The results are discussed and pedagogical implications are provided.

Key words: Cognitive CQ, Cultural intelligence, Writing ability

1. Introduction

The explosion of information and technology in this modern world has empowered people from different communities to communicate with one another more frequently and more easily. Therefore, there is a growing need to learn a foreign language. The number of people who learn foreign languages for their professional or personal needs is increasing day by day. There have been numerous attempts to meet the needs of language learners in achieving their goals of learning a second/foreign language. One of these needs is learning the cultural dimensions of the target language. Undoubtedly, the cultural aspects of a foreign language should be addressed along with its linguistic aspects.

It is clear that a person who embarks on learning a foreign language and aims at mastering it needs to appreciate and accommodate to the culture of the people whose language s/he is trying to learn. Cultural awareness is a term related to this discussion. Cheng (2007) pointed out that cultural awareness refers to becoming aware of the members of another cultural group, such as their values, perspectives, expectations, and behavior. Cheng (2007) introduced four levels of cultural awareness. At the first level, there are individuals who are cognizant of their way of doing things; however, they are ignorant of cultural differences. Individuals, at the second level, become familiar with others' ways of doing things, but they think their way is the best. The third level of cultural awareness is characterized by becoming conversant about other cultural norms and choosing the best norm based on the circumstances. At the fourth level, people are ready to construct shared meanings with the members of other cultures.

Cultural intelligence (CQ), the ability to have effective interactions with people from different cultures, requires cultural awareness. To put it differently, successful interactions with the members of a given culture calls for being aware of their values, perspectives, and patterns of behavior. In a similar vein, Cheng (2007) has argued that proper awareness of cross-cultural communication patterns is the first step to have harmonious and successful communication. There are many research projects conducted on the role of CQ in successful communication (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Gregory, Prifling & Beck, 2008), and successful leadership (Alon & Higgins, 2005; Elenkov &, Manev, 2009; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Moon, 2010; Triandis, 2006; Khani, Etebarian, & Abzari, 2011). All in all, these studies suggest that CQ plays an important role in effective communication and successful management and leadership.

There are few studies carried out to investigate the role of CQ in educational achievement. Similarly, the contribution of CQ to learning a foreign (or a second) language is rather unexplored. To the best of the present researchers' knowledge, the relationship between CQ and EFL learners' writing ability has not been researched. Hence, the present study aims at examining the association between Iranian EFL learners' CQ and their performance on the IELTS Writing Module. Among the four language skills, writing is selected because it is more culturally loaded.

2. Theoretical background

Cultural intelligence (CQ) has been defined as the ability to have effective interactions with people from different cultures. Thomas and Inkson (2004) have proposed that CQ is a multidimensional competence that is composed of knowledge of other cultures, mindfulness, and a set and of behavioral skills. Thomas (2006) held that CQ enables people to comprehend different cultural norms and function appropriately in cross-cultural contexts. Ng and Earley (2006) suggested that CQ is a culture-independent construct that is applicable to particular cultural settings. They also mentioned that CQ helps individuals adjust themselves to different cultural contexts. CQ refers to the ability "to engage in a set of behaviors that uses skills (i.e., language or interpersonal skills) and qualities (e.g., tolerance for ambiguity or flexibility) that are tuned appropriately to the culture-based values and attitudes of the people with whom one interacts" (Peterson, 2004, p. 89).

McNab and Worthley (2011) examined the relationship between CQ and individual characteristics (i.e., general self-efficacy, international travel experience, management, and work experience). Three hundred and seventy mangers and management students representing over 30 nationalities participated in their study. They found that there is a positive relationship between general self-efficacy and CQ (r=.15). Their findings also revealed that three subscales of CQ, i.e., meta-cognitive (r= .18), motivation (r= .16), and behavior (r= .18), are associated with general self-efficacy. McNab and Worthly (2011) concluded that general self-efficacy is a salient feature in CQ education and development efforts.

Petrovic (2011) explored teachers' level of cultural intelligence and the variables that can be perceived as the predictors of CQ. This research project involved 107 elementary teachers (86.9% female and 13.1% male) coming from four towns in Serbia. It should be noted that most of these teachers (68.2%) taught in culturally heterogeneous classes. Petrovic chose 8 variables for potential CQ predictors, namely contacts with other cultures, communication in a foreign language, reading of foreign literature, watching TV travel shows, the importance of knowing other cultures, experiencing multicultural classes as a challenge, enjoyment of intercultural communication, and openness to cultural learning. It was found that teachers show a high level of CQ (mean= 67.79, SD= 9.21). The majority of the teachers demonstrated a high (66.4%) or very high (22.4%) level of CQ. In addition, significant

predictors of teachers' CQ were enjoyment of intercultural communication (β= .262), experiencing the multicultural composition of the class as a challenge (β= .240), and openness to intercultural learning (β= .185).

Elenkov and Manev (2009) investigated the effect of senior expatriates' visionary-transformational leadership on the innovation adaptation on the organization they lead and the role of CQ in this regard. One hundred and fifty-three senior expatriate managers along with 695 subordinates from companies in all European countries took part in their study. They found that visionary-transformational leadership has a direct impact on the rate of innovation adaptation (r= .27). Their findings also indicate that CQ moderates the effect of senior expatriates' leadership on organizational innovation, but not on product-market innovation.

Almost all the studies reviewed here investigate the role of cultural intelligence in business and management particularly in cross-cultural contexts. There seems to be a gap in the literature on CQ regarding the role of CQ in learning the verbal aspects of another culture. Moreover, the contribution of CQ to observing the verbal expectations of those with whom we interact -not necessarily from another culture - appears to be unexplored. Writing is an important facet of the verbal behavior in a culture that is the focus of this study.

2.1. Purpose of the study

This research effort examines the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' CQ and their performance on the IELTS Writing Module. It also investigates whether there is a significant difference between male and female EFL learners regarding CQ. Finally, this research explores the predictive power of the four subscales of CQ on EFL learners' writing ability. Therefore, this research project is aimed at answering the following questions:

1. Is there a significant association between Iranian EFL learners' cultural intelligence and their performance on the IELTS Writing test?
2. Among the subscales of cultural intelligence, which one is the best predictor of performance in the IELTS Writing test?
3. Is there a significant difference between male and female EFL learners in terms of cultural intelligence?

3. Method

3.1. Participants and setting

This study was carried out in Pardis Toos Scientific Centre, Mashhad, Iran. Eighty three EFL learners, 41 males (47.7%) and 42 females (48.8%), participated in this project. All of them were university students studying at different universities in Mashhad, Iran. Fifty one learners (61.4%) were students of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. Twenty three learners (27.7%) studied at Khayam University and nine learners (10.8%) were students of Islamic Azad University. They were mostly advanced EFL learners attending IELTS preparation courses. The participants age ranged from 18 to 27 (mean= 22.55, SD= 2.39). The sample, which was an available sample to the researcher, seemed to be representative of Iranian EFL students with the same age average, yet having different academic backgrounds.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1 Cultural intelligence scale

In order to assess EFL learners' cultural intelligence, the researchers utilized the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) developed and validated by Ang et al., (2007). This 20-item self-report questionnaire is composed of four factors. The first factor is Meta-cognitive CQ consisting of 4 items (item 1, 2, 3, and 4). This factor is related to the accuracy of individuals' cultural knowledge as they interact with people from different cultures. The second factor of this questionnaire is Cognitive CQ including 6 items (items 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10). This factor measures individuals' knowledge to express verbal and non-verbal behavior in different cultures. The third factor of this scale is Motivational CQ dealing with enjoying interaction with people from other cultures. This factor is composed of 5 items (items 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15). Behavioral CQ is the fourth factor of this instrument. It deals with changing one's non-verbal behavior in a cross-cultural context. It has 5 items (items 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20). The items of this questionnaire are on the basis of a five-point Likert scale, i.e., strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

3.2.2. IELTS writing module (academic version)

The second instrument of the study is the IELTS Academic Writing Module. It is composed of two tasks. In Academic Writing Task 1, the candidates are given a task on the basis of some graphic or pictorial information. The candidates are expected to write a summary of the information provided. The summary should not be less than 150 words.

Test takers are advised to spend around 20 minutes on this task. Academic Writing Task 2 is assumed to be more challenging. Test takers should produce a written argument on a given topic. They are supposed to organize their writing and provide examples to support their arguments. This task should be at least 250 words. The candidates are recommended to spend around 40 minutes on this task. The second task is longer than the first task and worth more scores. The writing examiners mark candidates work on a scale of 1-9 in four areas, namely vocabulary, grammar, content, and organization (Jakeman & McDowell, 2008).

3.3. Data collection

This study was conducted in two phases in Pardis Toos Scientific Center at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. It was carried out in October and December, 2011. First, the IELTS Writing Module (Academic Version), along with the Listening and Reading Modules, was administered. Then, the interviews were held a few days later. The candidates were asked to mark their IELTS sheets by signing 'YES' in case they were willing to participate in the second phase, i.e., to fill out the Cultural Intelligence Scale. The candidates were supposed to pay the registration fee in order to take the IELTS Sample administered by Pardis Toos Scientific Center. Therefore, it was totally optional to take part in the first phase of this research project. By signing 'YES' in their IELTS answer sheets, volunteer candidates declared their willingness to participate in the second phase of the study. Hence, taking part in this phase was also voluntary.

Those who were eager to participate in the second phase of the study were asked to enter a separate room in order to fill out the Cultural Intelligence Scale after their IELTS Writing Teat was finished. The researcher provided the participants with a brief explanation of the purpose of the study. The English directions related to the Cultural Intelligence Scale accompanied the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the second researcher was present in the meeting where the questionnaires were administered and repeated the directions in Persian (the participants' native language) once again so that the participants could gain a clear understanding of what they were supposed to do. Meanwhile, they were served with cookies and juice to help them fully concentrate on the questionnaire items. The second researcher was present in both phases of the study that were under standard conditions.

3.4. Data analysis

IELTS candidates' writing skill was scored by two ratters, one of whom was the second researcher. In addition, the researchers prepared the scores related to the Cultural Intelligence Scale. The data obtained via the IELTS tests and the Cultural Intelligence Scale was given to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16 to answer the research questions. To answer the first research question that deal with the association between cultural intelligence and EFL learners' performance in the IELTS Writing T, Pearson correlation formula was used. In order to perform a deeper analysis of these relationships, the whole sample was divided into three groups based on their CQ scores, i.e., low group, mid group, and high group. Then, with regard to their IELTS Writing score bands, one-way ANOVA was run to see whether there exists a significant difference between the three groups in terms of writing ability. The second research question addresses the predictive power of the subscales of cultural intelligence for performance in IELTS Writing Module. Standard regression was run to answer this question.. A significance difference between the three groups would support the relationship between cultural intelligence and IELTS Writing scores. The third research question pertains to the possible difference in males' and females' mean scores in cultural intelligence. To answer this question, independent samples t-test was calculated.

4. Results

The third first question deals with the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' performance in IELTS Writing Module and their CQ. Table 1 demonstrates this relationship.

Table 1
The Relationship between CQ and Writing Ability

	Behavioral	Cognitive	Metacognitive	Motivational	Total CQ
Writing	.38**	.49**	.35*	.36**	.45*

* p < .05, ** p < .01

According to Table 1, there is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' performance in IELTS Writing Module and their total CQ (r= .45, p<.05). It means that the higher the level of CQ in Iranian EFL learners is, the better their performance is in IELTS Writing Test.

Based on Table 1, there is a significant association between cognitive CQ and writing ability (r= .49, p<.01). To put it differently, those Iranian EFL learners who are more conversant about other people's cultural preferences are more likely to be successful in their writing performance. Moreover, there is a meaningful relationship between behavioral CQ and Iranian EFL learners' writing ability (r= .38, p<.01). In other words, those EFL learners who are able to perform appropriate verbal and nonverbal behavior in interacting with people with different cultural preferences tend to be better writers of English as a foreign language. In addition, writing ability is also significantly related to motivational CQ (r= .36, p<.01). This means that those EFL learners who are more inclined to devote attention and energy to learning about and functioning in situations which are characterized by cultural disparity tend to be more successful in writing English. Finally, metacognitive CQ is also associated with Iranian EFL learners' performance in IELTS Writing Module (r= .35, p<.05).

Among the subscales of CQ, cognitive CQ has the highest correlation coefficient with writing ability and metacognitive CQ has the lowest one. The important role of different components of CQ in writing performance of the students is shown in the following table.

Table 2
The Sequential Role of CQ and Speaking Ability

Cognitive CQ > Behavioral CQ > Motivational CQ > Metacognitive CQ

In order to perform further analysis of the association between CQ and writing ability, the participants were divided into three groups with regard to their total CQ score. Those participants whose score was below 50 were put in the Low Group, those whose score was between 50 and 70 were put in the Mid Group, and those whose score was above 70 were put in the High Group. One-way ANOVA was calculated to see whether the difference among groups is statistically significant. Table 3 displays the results of ANOVA for the three groups.

Table 3
Results of One-way ANOVA for Cultural Intelligence

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	85.73	2	25.5114	2.12	.000
Within Groups	61.12	80	28.7598		
Total	146.85	82			

As Table 3 indicates, the differences between the three groups in terms of IELTS Writing score band is statistically significant(F=2.12, p<.05). The analysis of variance showed just the difference among the three groups, but in order to locate the differences Scheffe Post Hoc test was run. Table 4 demonstrates the results of Post Hoc comparison.

Table 4
The Results of Scheffe Post Hoc Test for Writing Ability

Groups	*N*	*1*	*2*	*3*
Low-Group	*29*	*5.15*		
Mid-Group	*28*			*6.11*
High-Group	*26*			*7.09*
Sig.			*1.000*	*1.000*

Subset for alpha=.05

Scheffe Post Hoc test illustrated that the High group, the members of which had the highest level of CQ, had the highest level of writing ability (mean= 7.09). The Mid-Group ranked second in writing ability (mean= 6.11), and the Low-Group had the lowest ranking in writing ability (mean= 5.15). This finding supports the meaningful association between Iranian EFL learners' CQ and their writing ability.

High-Group> Mid-Group> Low-Group

The second research question was concerned with the predictive power of CQ on Iranian EFL learners' performance on the IELTS Writing Module. In order to answer this research question, multiple regression analysis was run using CQ and its subscales as the predictor of variance in writing ability. Table 5 demonstrates the results of EFL learners' writing ability being regressed on the variables of interest in this research (the subscales of CQ). The results indicate which variables arte important in predicting higher score bands in IELTS Writing Module. Based on Table 4.12., among the subscales of the CQ, cognitive CQ is the best predictor of Iranian EFL learners' writing ability. It accounts for 23% of the total variance in writing ability ($\mathbf{R^2}$=.23, p<.05).

Table 5
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Writing Ability by CQ

Predictor	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	P	B
Cognitive	.492	.242	.232	22.56	.000	.492

The third research question concerned the possible difference between male and female EFL learners with regards to their CQ. In order to answer this question, independent samples t-test was run. Table 6 depicts these two groups of learners' means on the Cultural Intelligence Scale.

Table 6
Independent Samples T-Test for CQ in Male and Female EFL Learners

Group	N	Mean	df	t	Sig (two-tailed)
Male	41	64.63	81	.624	.524
Female	42	63.69			

According to Table 6, the mean score of CQ for male learners is 64.63 and that of female learners is 63.69. However, the difference between these two groups is not statistically significant ($t= .624$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, male and female EFL learners participating in this study are rather similar in regards to CQ.

5. Discussion

The findings of this study showed that there is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' CQ and their writing ability measured by IELTS Writing Module. It means that those EFL learners who have higher CQ are more successful in the IELTS Writing Test and vice versa. This association can be explained in light of the four components of CQ. First those EFL learners who showed high CQ are able to acquire and understand cultural knowledge, i.e., they have metacognitive CQ. They are capable of adjusting their mental models to their audience's thoughts, values, feelings, and expectations. Therefore, they are more likely to write about what is favorable and avoid what is unfavorable for those with whom they are interacting (Brislin, Worthley & Macnab 2006; Triandis, 2006).

Second, culturally intelligent EFL learners tend to be aware of similarities and different between cultures. They can be also sensitive to the fact that people with whom they are communicating may have different feelings, and thoughts in comparison to themselves. Hence, they can adjust to these different feelings, values, and preferences. This enables them to have better interactional experiences with others (Brislin, Worthley & Macnab 2006).

The third reason for the significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' CQ and their writing ability can be the fact that individuals with high CQ are more willing to spend time and energy on learning the norms and values of other cultural groups (Triandis, 2006). In addition, as it is supposed in this study, culturally intelligent people are likely to try to become familiar with emotions, beliefs, and preferences of other individuals within their own cultural group. It seems patent that dedicating one's effort to understand other people's thoughts and feelings help one have a more successful interaction with other people because this allows one to adjust one's mental model and written output accordingly.

The significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' writing ability and their CQ can also be interpreted in light of sociolinguistic competence. Bachman (1990) considered sociolinguistic competence as "the sensitivity to, or control of the conventions of language use that are determined by the features of the specific language use context; it enables us to perform language functions in ways that are appropriate to that context" (p. 94). Hence, a person who has high CQ is able to adjust his or her verbal and nonverbal behavior to the demands of a particular context. Based on James (1980), part of the concept of context is participants, i.e., the audience's values, feelings, beliefs, thoughts, and preferences are part of the context and shape the discourse. Consequently, a person's written work should fit the values and preferences of the members of a discourse community.

The theory of emotional intelligence may also cast light on the close association between CQ and efficiency in written interactions. Diggins (2004) proposed that emotional intelligence has the following components:

> (a) self-wariness - recognizing and understanding one's own thoughts and feelings as they occur, (b) self- regulation - managing one's rep[ones appropriately, (c) social awareness - recognizing the thoughts and feelings of others and having empathy, and (d) social skills - inducing effective and desirable responses in others. (p. 33)

Although the relationship between emotional intelligence and CQ might not have been empirically investigated, it goes without saying that these two are conceptually related. Social awareness, one of the components of emotional intelligence, seems to be conceptually close to

CQ. Pishghadam (2009) found a significant relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their writing scores. This asserts the assumptions that understanding the feelings and thoughts of others and write accordingly has a positive role in one's written interaction.

Another concept through which we can explain the association between CQ and writing ability is cognitive empathy. Zoll and Enz (2005) have defined cognitive empathy as the ability to take into account others' perspectives. They asserted that in order to show cognitive empathy one should understand people's expressive signals as well as the situational context. Therefore, a person who has high CQ cam be assumed to possess cognitive empathy. To put it another way, culturally intelligent individuals are probably capable of putting themselves in the shoes of their audience. Consequently, they are able to write in a way suitable to their potential audience's thoughts and feelings.

The meaningful relationship between Iranian EFL learners' writing ability and their CQ may also be interpreted with regard to theory of mind. Theory of mind refers to the ability to develop an understanding of others' mental states that are not directly observable (e.g. to recognize that people can express a certain emotion while feeling a different one) and to make inferences regarding others' future reactions and behaviors (Premack and Woodruff, 1978). In other words, those individuals who are culturally intelligent have a theory of mid of others. They can predict their potential audience's reactions to their written work. This makes them succeed in their writing tasks including in IELTS Writing Module.

The findings of this study revealed that among the components of CQ, cognitive CQ had the highest correlation coefficient with Iranian EFL learners' writing ability. In a similar vein, cognitive CQ was shown to be the best predictor of writing ability. Cognitive CQ refers to knowledge of norms, preferences, conventions, beliefs, thoughts, and feelings of the members of another cultural group. As mentioned earlier, in this study we have taken a broader look to CQ. In the framework of this research, cognitive CQ is regarded as knowledge of thoughts, beliefs, and preferences of other people in our own cultural group. Therefore, those individuals who have cognitive CQ are relatively aware of other people's preferences and values. Hence, they are able to write according to their potential audience's beliefs and values. This makes them more successful in writing. It should also be noted that cognitive CQ seems to be a perquisite to cognitive empathy and having a theory of others' minds.

The results of this study also showed that there is no significant difference between male and female learners with regard to CQ. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis of this research is confirmed. This finding is in line with Khodadady and Ghahari (2011). Of course, future research is necessary to ensure the two genders' similarity in CQ.

6. Conclusion

Cultural intelligence, in a general sense, is the capability of having successful interactions with people from different cultures. Hence, we may conclude that an individual having high cultural intelligence (CQ) can adjust his linguistic and non-linguistic behavior in interacting with a person from a different cultural group. In fact, a person who is endowed with high CQ is able to adapt his or her verbal and non-verbal behavior in communication with different people from the same culture but with various thoughts, feelings, and preferences. It is also assumed that culturally intelligent people are able to accommodate their behaviors - both verbal and non-verbal - to different contexts. Therefore, the present researchers hold that CQ seems to be an important factor having a role in EFL learners' sociolinguistic competence, the ability to use appropriate verbal and non-verbal patterns with different people and in different contexts. Consequently, the findings of this research can shed further light on factors involved in communicative competence in general and sociolinguistic competence in particular.

The results of this study can benefit EFL learners. If they allocate sufficient energy and time to learning the norms of other cultures - and other people's thoughts, feelings, expectations, and needs by extension - they are more likely to succeed in their cross-cultural communication and even in their interactions with people from their own cultural background. A further notion that may be highlighted by this study is that making EFL learners familiar with norms, practices, and conventions of other cultures, especially the English culture, can be a serious responsibility on the shoulders of EFL teachers. This study also illustrated the importance of motivating EFL learners to learn and respect other people's beliefs, feelings, needs, and expectations. Moreover, the findings of this research may be of benefit to textbook writers and curriculum designers. By enriching textbooks and other materials used in EFL contexts, with contents that can encourage CQ in EFL learners, they can become more efficient in their interactions with other people - either from their own culture or from other cultures.

As it is true for any scientific enquiry, nothing can be self-evident unless verified by observation or experimentation. To conduct any kind of scientific research, one may confront problems and limitations. The first limitation of this study is that its scope is limited to adult EFL learners taking an IELTS sample test. They are mostly upper-intermediate or advanced EFL learners. Therefore, the present research project excludes novice and intermediate EFL learners. Another limitation of this research is that the participants are mostly university students. Other studies should investigate the relationship between CQ and speaking ability of EFL learners who are not university students. Moreover, this research project is carried out at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. The association between these variables needs to be explored in other sociocultural contexts so that we can gain a comprehensive understanding of the contribution of CQ to EFL learners' speaking ability.

Every scientific enquiry opens new directions for further research. Some of the parameters by which research in this domain may be continued are as follows: First other researchers interested in CQ can carry out more research on the interplay between CQ and language learning strategies. Second, the contribution of CQ to EFL learners' achievement in other proficiency tests, such as TOEFL, FCE, CAE, and CPE, may be the subject of future investigations. Third, classroom observations may be done to examine the role of CQ in EFL.ESL learners' interactional patterns. Forth, the association between EFL teachers' CQ and their pedagogical success can be subject to further inquiries.

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Discourse and National Identities Construction: Case Studies of Iranian EFL Learners and Teachers at Private Language Schools

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ABSTRACT: The purpose of this case study was the analysis of national identities construction in an EFL context. Our site of struggle for the analysis was a private institution and the related variables were English textbooks, six teachers and six learners as our cases. Our theoretical framework was inspired by constructivism and in particular Bakhtin's dialogism and we followed an ethnographic methodology in our data collection. The results of the data showed the existence and construction of national identities, though there were intra and inter variations among the teachers' responses regarding national identities. The results were discussed in connection with the context of language teaching and some pedagogical implications were also suggested.

Key words: National identities construction, Dialogism, Private schools, Case study

1. Introduction

The aim of the present study is to investigate the role of national identities construction in an EFL situation through a case study. Constructivism in general and dialogical theory of Bakhtin in particular are our theoretical frameworks. Six learners and six teachers in a private school have been our central concern in our probe for the role of national identities construction. Therefore, in what follows, we try to give a brief review of our theoretical paradigm and related concepts and then pose our related research questions for that matter.

2. Review of literature

Broadly speaking, there are two perspectives or paradigm shifts in the history of identity. On the one hand, it has been treated as an essential or

cognitive phenomenon that governs human action, and on the other hand, it has been considered as a public phenomenon, a performance or construction that is interpreted by other people. The shift has been a move from essentialism to constructionism or social constructivism; in other words from analyzing linguistic identity as a given and fixed aspect of who an individual or group is, to something changeable and variable as it is constructed and performed.

Essentialism means 'the assumption that groups, categories or classes of objects have one or several defining features exclusive to all members of that category' (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 2000, p.77). In constructionism, the subject assumes different identities at different time. Within us are differing identities, pulling in different directions so that our identifications are continuously being modified. 'We are confronted by a bewildering, fleeting multiplicity of possible identities, any one of which we could identify with – at least temporarily' (Hall, 1992, p. 277). In the present study, we have discussed national identities as one type of identities from the perspective of dialogism theory of Bakhtin which is constructivist.

For Bakhtin a word is a world. He declares that, 'an individual's becoming, an ideological process, is characterized precisely by a sharp gap between . . . the authoritative word (religious, political, moral; the word of a father, of adults and of teachers, etc.) that does not know internal persuasiveness, and . . . the internally persuasive word that is denied all privilege, backed up by no authority at all, and is frequently not even acknowledge in society' (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 342). Unlike dialogic language, 'the authoritative word or discourse is monologic, distant from context, unanswerable, and embodies different sources of authority (tradition, generally accepted truths, official lines). It is an imposition, in the sense that it demands that we acknowledge it, that we make it our own; it binds us quite independent of any power it might have to persuade us internally; we encounter it with its authority already fused into it. The authoritative word is located in a distanced zone, organically connected with a past that is felt to be hierarchically higher. . . . It is therefore not a question of choosing it from among other possible discourses that are its equal' (p. 342). In the words of Holquist, 'undialogized language is authoritative or absolute' (1981, p. 426–7). Authoritative discourses or what Delpit (1995), Gee (1996), and others have termed 'the languages of power' encode 'cultural capital' (Bordieu & Passeron, 1977). Now, based on such grounds, identities, and national

identities in particular, may be projected authoritatively or suggested persuasively.

There is no agreement over the definition and classification of national identity (Mirmohammadi, 1383; Sani Ejlal, 1384). The national identity is a thing that can be created and revised by an individual during his or her life. In [this] circumstances the notion of national identity is diluted and it can change the meaning (adding some ethnic or political connotations) depending on the context (Sanina, 2012, p. 128).

Many researchers (Anderson, 1991;Gellner, 1994; Giddens, 2004) view national identity as a multilayered concept operating as a homogenizing force. Hall (1992, p. 14) in a constructivistic sense, talks of national shared identity which depends on the cultural meanings, which bind each member individually into the larger national story.

To define national identity is to define the words identity and national separately. We have already defined identity from different perspectives. To approach the concept of national identity, is to go from individual identity to collective identity and consequently the definition gets more complex. According to Smith and his study on national identity, a nation can be defined as 'a named human population sharing an historic territory, common myths and historical memories, a mass, public culture, a common economy and common legal rights and duties for all members' (1991, p. 14). Others (Keillor, Hult, Erffmeyer, & Babakus, 1996; Keillor, Bruce, & Hult, 1999) have considered other characteristics for national identity. Keillor et al. (1996), for instance, define the dimensions or elements of national identity as belief structure, national heritage, cultural homogeneity and ethnocentrism. These categories were developed following Huntington's (1993) four elements of civilization: 1) religion, 2) history, 3) customs, and 4) social institutions (Huntington 1993, as cited in Keillor et al., 1996, p. 59). What is connected to the definition and classification of national identity is the issue of culture. National identity can thus be seen as 'a sense of culture' (Keillor et al., 1999, p. 67). National anthems, flags, costumes and holidays, state rituals, national sports teams, pageantry, museums, heritage centers, buildings and monuments all help to create and sustain narratives about who we are and where we have come from. (Weedon, 2004, p. 24).

Still some other constructs such as nation, national character, and nationalism have made the construct of national identity difficult to define (Boerner, 1986; Bloom, 1990; Smith, 1991) along with different

theories behind these constructs (Wan, & Vanderwerf, 2009). In an attempt to define the concept of nation, Anderson proposes seeing it as an imagined political community – and imagined as both inherently limited and sovereign. It is imagined because the members of even the smallest nation will never know most of their fellow-members, meet them or even hear of them, yet in the mind of each lives the image of their communion. . . . In fact, all communities larger than primordial villages of face-to-face contact (and perhaps even these) are imagined. Communities are to be distinguished, not by their falsity or genuineness, but by the style in which they are imagined. (Anderson, 1991, p. 6)

Identity in all its forms, even national identity, is never singular but is plural, fractured and reconfigured by gender, ethnic and class relations. (Weedon, 2004, p. 20). National identity is defined in an exclusive relationship of difference from others that is most often tied to place or lack of it, as for example, in the demands of the Kurds in Iraq, Iran and Turkey for their own state. It is also linked to language, history and culture. Often these different factors are seen as inextricably linked, as for example in the case of the indigenous peoples of Australia, New Zealand and North America. Discourses of national identity most often appeal to ideas of a shared culture, history and place (p. 20).

The literature on national identities shows that there are a lot of studies done, but few studies have tried to investigate the role of national identities constructions in regard to the language learning context. Brown (2011), for instance, examined 5 to 11-year-old European American children's (N = 90) attitudes regarding immigrants, immigration policy, and what it means to be an American. The majority of children in the sample held strong American identities and had distinct ideas about what it means to be an American (namely, one must love America, live by its rules, and be White). Many children in the sample were aware of Americans' anti-immigration sentiments, largely attributing it to ethnic/cultural discrimination. Finally, children held negative attitudes about immigrants, particularly Mexican immigrants. These negative attitudes were most evident among children who held a strong, prototypical national in-group identity. In contrast, children did not hold differential attitudes about White and Black Americans.

In another study, Devine-Wright & Lyons (1997) examined the role played by historical places in the construction of national identities. Data used were from a sample of 105 Irish adults randomly selected from the members of the three main political parties and those of organisations

concerned with the promotion of the Irish language. In particular, they examined the symbolic significance of historical places in maintaining a positive, distinctive national identity and providing a sense of continuity with the past. It was shown that the kind of values and feelings associated with the four Irish target places (namely, the General Post Office, Trinity College, Newgrange and Glendalough) were related to the significance of the places in maintaining national identity.

Furthermore, another study by Rivers (2011) in an English learning context examined four psychosocial facets of Japanese national identification in relation to a selection of English language learning processes among 401 Japanese university students majoring in English and International Communication. Using the application of a structural equation modeling analysis, he suggested that within the social context of Japan, 'commitment to national heritage' was a significant mediator of both 'nationalistic' and 'patriotic' attitudes. It was also found that 'nationalism' was a significant positive predictor of 'internationalism' and of a positive 'orientation toward English speaking culture and community', whereas 'patriotism' was found to be a negative predictor of 'internationalism' and of a positive 'orientation toward English speaking culture and community'.

In line with the theories mentioned, our research questions are divided into three categories of textbook, teacher and learner's questions:

A. Textbook related questions:
   1. Are there any national identities (cultural topics, cultural names, and cultural dialogue) presented in the learners' textbooks?
   2. What are the special discourse types associated with the cultural national identities in the learners' textbooks?
   3. How are national cultural identities represented in the learners' textbooks?
B. Teacher related questions:
   1. Are private English language teachers influenced by national identities presented in the learners' textbooks?
   2. How are national identities promoted by private English language teachers?
   3. Are national identities suggested persuasively or projected authoritatively by private English language teachers?
C. Learner related questions:

1. What are the national identity preferences and codes of private English language learners?
2. Are private English language learners influenced by national identities presented in the textbooks?

3. Methodology

3.1. Setting and subjects

Our site of struggle for the analysis of national identities was a private institution and the related variables were English textbooks, six teachers and six learners as our cases. In what follows, we will present the related information on the institution, textbooks, teachers and learners, respectively.

3.1.1. The institution

A private institution was chosen as site of our identity construction because in such settings there is little control in the choice of teachers and the government has little supervision on such settings. Most of the students who choose English as their major in the University are nurtured in such private schools. To select some representative cases from these private schools, we investigated almost all private language schools in Mashhad (Iran) and found that the private institute of Frough is one of the oldest schools in this area, registered as No. 1623 in 1369 with the permission of Department of Education, Khorasan Razavi province, Iran.

3.1.2. Textbooks

The related textbooks of the males were Cambridge English for Schools (CES) and ON Target 2. The females studied In Contact 1 & 2.

CES is a five-level course (Beginner, Intermediate, False beginner, Elementary, and Pre-intermediate British English) for young students. The targeted cases' book was CES, book 3, published in 1997 by Andrew Littlejohn and Diana Hicks. It has 160 pages.

On Target 2 written by Diane Pinkley, James E. Purpura in 1999 and printed in the United States has 136 pages and is believed to be a theme-based, integrated skills program for secondary and adult students. It is of the Scott Foresman English series and is appropriate for the intermediate levels. In Contact 1 and 2, the females' course books, are the beginning levels of Scott Foresman English, a theme-based, integrated skills program for secondary and adult students. The writers maintain that Scott Foresman English is a unique and flexible series with multiple

entry levels. The book In Contact 1 is written in English language by Barbara R Denman and is published or distributed by Addison Wesley Longman. This particular edition was published on or around 1999-10-1 date. It has 134 numbers of pages of content for use. The book In Contact 2 is related to the Scott Foresman English series and is written in English language by Jane Sturtevant and is published or distributed by Pearson PTR Interactive. This particular edition was published on or around 1999-10-12 date. It has 134 numbers of pages of content for use.

3.1.3. Teachers

The teachers chosen were three males and three females. They were all provided teacher insurance for their job security. The method of our teacher selection depended on our learners as our cases. In our large and extended project we met our cases for about four semesters but we observed each teacher for one semester, though we had contacts with them during the project as well. We observed a class one semester as a preparatory stage. During our observation, we had many contacts with the teachers through phones, teachers' notes, formal and informal interviews, meeting them in their homes, in the car, in the office and outside the classes. We met them in their classes and we arranged to meet them for interviews in advance. They all were volunteered to take part in the interviews and had signed the written letter which asked them to read the purposes of our research and if possible cooperate with us during the project. The information extracted in the process of interviews both oral and written partly shows the identities of our targeted teachers which will be discussed in the following sections. Some of these teachers' information which is related to our title of investigation on teachers' identities is given below.

We observed each teacher's classes for one full semester but the data collection took four consecutive semesters, about a full year. Their classes (Males and females) were held twice a week, on Tuesday and Thursday (all females' classes), Monday and Wednesday (Case 4), Sunday and Tuesday (Cases 5 & 6). The classes in all four semesters were held from 4: 45 to 6: 15 PM. Each session took 1: 30 minutes. We could record 20 complete sessions (case 1, 10 sessions and case 6, 10 sessions), 36 complete sessions, (Cases 2, 3, & 5, each case 12 sessions) and 15 complete sessions (Case 4). All the recordings (about 106 hours) were then transcribed for the analysis of the data. The interviews were held four times, one semester before their classroom observation, and at

the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of observation. They were given some other ethnographic tools as mentioned too.

Case 1:
Her name was Hedyeh. She was born in Mashhad. She was 29 years old. She was married and had no children. She had started learning English when she was 5 years old. Her native language was Persian and she just knew English as her foreign language. She had a BA and an MA in TEFOL. She had a full time job as an English teacher in Frough institute for 5 years. She was a part-time teacher in some other institutes and Universities as well. In all, she had about 10 years of formal experience of teaching English to students of various proficiency levels from elementary to University students. She was teaching an average of 30 hours in a weak. She had no private English classes.

Case 2:
Her name was Khatereh. She was born in Mashhad. She was 48 years old. She was married and had 3 children, two girls and a boy. Her native language was Persian and she just knew English as her foreign language. She had a BA and an MA in TEFOL. She had a full time job as an English teacher in Frough institute for 7 years. She was a part-time teacher in some other institutes and Universities as well. In all, she had about 13 years of formal experience of teaching English to students of various proficiency levels from elementary to University students. She was teaching an average of 70 hours in a weak including her private English classes.

Case 3:
Her name was Nazanin. She was born in Mashhad. She was 38 years old. She was married and had a boy. Her husband was a teacher teaching Persian literature. She had started learning English when she was 5 or 6 years old. Her native language was Persian and she just knew English as her foreign language. She had a BA in English literature. She was living in Mashhad where she was a full time English teacher in Frough institute for 9 years. She had been a part-time teacher in some other institutes and she had been a full time translator in a company for 9 years. She was still doing this translation job as part time. In all, she had about 15 years of formal experience of teaching English to students of various proficiency

levels from elementary to advanced students. She was teaching an average of 50 hours in a weak and 25 hours of translation.

Case 4:
His name was Mohammad. He was 29 years old. He was married and had a little girl. He had started learning English when he was in the guidance school at the age of 12. His native language was Persian and he just knew English as his foreign language. He had a BA in English literature. He was living in Mashhad where he was a full time English teacher in Frough institute for 5 years. In all, he had about 11 years of formal experience of teaching English to students of various proficiency levels from elementary to advanced levels. He was teaching an average of 70 hours in a weak.

Case 5:
His name was Farhad. He was born in Tehran. He was 28 years old. He was married and had no children. He had started learning English when he was 4 years old. His native language was Persian and he just knew English as his foreign language, but he was trying to learn French too. He had a BA in English literature. He was living in Mashhad where he was a full time English teacher in Frough institute for 3 years. In all, he had about 6 years experience of teaching English to students of various proficiency levels from elementary to advanced. He was teaching an average of 40 hours in a weak. He had many private English classes.

Case 6:
His name was Shahriyar. He was born in Mashhad. He was 30 years old. He was single. He had started learning English when he was in the guidance school. His native language was Persian and he just knew English as his foreign language. He had a BA in English literature. He was living in Mashhad where he was a full time English teacher in Frough institute for 8 years. He also had private English classes. In all, he had about 12 years experience of teaching English to students of various proficiency levels from elementary to advanced. He was teaching an average of 65 hours in a weak.

3.1.4. Learners

Before starting the project, we selected two classes (one male and one female) with 21 learners and focused on 10 learners as our cases. We

observed the classes for one semester which took about four months and the observation, language proficiency of the students, learners and their parents' consents for participating in our project resulted in choosing three males and three females as our targeted cases to be studied in the three next semesters. Based on our data gathering, teachers' scores and our tests, the learners' level of proficiency was intermediate. The learners of this institution had a different teacher each semester, but sometimes they had the same teacher who was teaching them for two consecutive semesters, though rarely this happened. In all, these learners experienced six teachers in these three semesters. The male learners had a male teacher and the females had female teachers. Following are some of the learners' information.

Case 1:
His name was Ali. He was 15 years old, a high school student studying experimental science in the second grade. His father was a nurse working in the hospital and his mother was a teacher teaching Persian literature in the high school. He had one brother and two sisters. He was one of the top students in the school with an average of 19.5. His English proficiency was at intermediate level.

Case 2:
His name was Farzad. He was 14 years old, a high school student in the first grade. He was going to choose experimental science in the second grade. His parents were physician. He was the only child in the family. He was one of the top students in the school with an average of 18.90. His English proficiency was at intermediate level.

Case 3:
His name was Mehdi. He was 16 years old, a high school student studying mathematics in the second grade. His father had a free job and his mother was a housewife. He had one brother and one sister. He was one of the top students in the school with an average of 18. His English proficiency was at intermediate level.

Case 4:
Her name was Narges. She was 15 years old, a high school student studying experimental science in the second grade. Her father was a teacher teaching science in the guidance school and her mother was also

a teacher teaching English in the high school. She had one brother and one sister. She was one of the top students in the school with an average of 19.72. Her English proficiency was at intermediate level.

Case 5:
Her name was Maryam. She was 15 years old, a high school student in the first grade. She had not made her mind about her major choice. Her father was a university teacher teaching management in the university and her mother was a teacher teaching accounting in the high school. She had one brother and no sister. She was one of the top students in the school with an average of 18. Her English proficiency was at intermediate level.

Case 6:
Her name was Fatemeh. She was 15 years old, a high school student in the first grade. She was going to study mathematics in the second grade. Her father worked in a hospital and her mother was had a free job selling women clothes. She had one brother and one sister. She was one of the top students in the school with an average of 18.86. Her English proficiency was at intermediate level.

3.2. Instrumentation and procedure

The data analyzed and the results presented in this article are part of a larger project that aimed to describe the interaction of teachers and textbooks' roles on the identity construction of some private language school learners. Our whole data collection took a long time from 23 September 2010 to 30 September 2011.

To investigate for the existence of national identities in the related textbooks we did a content analysis task. Content analysis is a research method for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, with the purpose of providing knowledge, new insights, a representation of facts and a practical guide to action (Krippendorff, 1980). Based on the literature review on national identity, the typical themes related to national identities were extracted and modified by the researchers. In order to come to a common consensus of the typical themes, three independent MA (two) and PhD (one) raters read the data and marked the saliency of the national identities. Graneheim and Lundman (2004) support the value of dialogue among co-researchers to agree the way in which the qualitative data are labeled. The researchers

also verified the data in an iterative manner and tested the whole data. Our unit of analysis was a combination of discrete units and discourse. The reason for including discourse as one of our unit of analysis in the content analysis of the textbooks was inspired by Bakhtin's theoretical framework which shows that the unit of analysis should be the whole context. Oliva (2000), Matusov (2007) and Tihanov (2000) also advocate discourse as the unit of analysis for the dialogical methodology.

After reading the whole content, the data were classified into three categories of cultural topics, cultural dialogue and cultural names. In each category we searched for the existence of national identities. As Cavanagh (1997) notes, the purpose of creating categories is to provide a means of describing the phenomenon, to increase understanding and to generate knowledge. Credibility of research findings also deals with how well the categories cover the data (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004).

To find the related cultural topics, first we looked at the content or outline of the book presented at the beginning pages of each book. Then, we had a micro look at each lesson and searched for the related topics. We wrote the page numbers too. Moreover, in this section, following Phillipson (1992), we were supposed to determine whether the topic was related to the English or American Culture (we called it Native), or to Other Cultures, including Iran, if given (we called it Alien). If the country was mentioned, we tried to mention it as well, or if it was not clear to which category the topic may fall, we had to write Neutral. In other sections (Cultural dialogue , and Cultural Names) we did the same. Putting the data in the appropriate categories was a challenging task as Dey (1993) mentions, when formulating categories, the researcher comes to a decision, through interpretation, as to which things to put in the same category.

The second category was cultural dialogue. They were like cultural topics, but we had a more detailed analysis within the lessons (e.g. warm-up, grammar parts, exercises, Reading, Speaking, and Writing (listening parts were excluded, but if there were some written data related to the listening parts and it was related to a particular cultural type, we had to mention them. Furthermore, in the cultural dialogue part, we determined whether each activity presented is Native, Alien, or Neutral and if it was Authoritative, or Persuasive.

The third category was cultural names. In this section, we tried to find all the names (names of persons, objects, jobs, etc., whether abstract or concrete) related to national identities, in all parts of each lesson. In

the cultural names part, we also determined whether each name presented was Native, Alien, or Neutral. After the analysis of the whole data, we counted the numbers of each category and put the frequency of the numbers in the Tables.

Based on our ethnographic tools including teachers' interviews, teachers' journals and notes, audio and sometimes videotaped classroom observations of each teacher, and the participant-observer's research journal, we tried to search for the national identities in the whole data of our teachers. We used both semi-structured interview and unstructured interviews (Ellis & Haugan, 1997; Fontana & Frey, 2005). Researchers making use of unstructured interviews often hold a constructivist point of view of social reality (Denzin, 1989). As the purpose of the interviews was reconstructing teachers' identities and not understanding the proficiency level of the teachers, the interviews were held both in English and Persian. Unstructured interviews are governed by the cultural conventions of the research setting, which requires that the researcher can understand the interviewees' language and, further, its meanings in the specific cultural context of the research setting (Fife, 2005). The Persian interviews then were translated into English. We were given permission to tape the interviews and they signed an agreement that allowed us to use the transcribed material in our project. To observe codes of ethics in research, however, the names are fictitious. The questions were open ended questions and let them talk freely about their understanding of the national identities, the importance they give to these types of identities and their influence on the context of language learning and teaching. In our targeted larger project, however, we asked them many other questions regarding some types of identities. But, our focus in the present article is to look at the data to investigate the influence of national identities. Due to the large corpus of our data (about 30 hours formal and informal interviews with teachers), we tried to extract only the parts related to our focal national identities. Besides interviews, the occurrence of national identities was explored in the remaining data including our other ethnographic tools. We try to show and clarify them by giving some instances, though it is difficult to present them all. It is sometimes difficult to give a thorough presentation of the results of qualitative research in a format that is compatible with the space and word limitations in professional journals (Polit & Beck, 2004). The same procedure with the same ethnographic tools was done

for the learners. We will give the appropriate instances relating to the national identities of the learners too.

4. Results and discussions

4.1. Textbooks' national identities

The content analysis of the textbooks (See Table 1) shows a relatively high promotion of this type of identity by the authors. The content analysis of the females' books (In Contact 1 & 2) shows that there are 13 national identity topics, 480 national identity names, and 588 dialogues related to national identities. In regard to the discourse type, there are 2 Native, 4 Alien, and 7 Neutral national topics presented. The discourse type associated with the national names is also almost equal, but 104 national names are related only to the American and British countries and 135 national names are distributed among all other countries. In regard to national cultural dialogue, the discourse type of the neutral is the highest and the native discourse type is the lowest. And finally, the persuasive discourse type of presentation is more highlighted than the authoritative discourse type. This shows that the authors have tried to convince the readers more persuasively rather than authoritatively and presented just the national contents to the readers. The amount of national identities of cultural topics and names was much higher in the males' books (CES & On Target 2). Out of 75 national topics, 26 topics were native and only 12 national topics were related to all other counties which were labeled as alien topics. National names were also frequently high and the native discourse types outnumbered the alien types. Like females' textbooks, the way of discourse presentation was more persuasive than authoritative (See Table 2).

Table 1
The National Identity Content Analysis of Textbooks (In Contact 1 & 2) (Females) Based on Cultural Topics, Cultural Names and Cultural Dialogue

CT	N.	DT	N.	CN	N.	DT	N.	CD	N.	DT	N.	DT	N.
Nat.	75	Na.	26	Nat.	891	Na.	279	Nat.	86	A.	23	Na.	42
		AL.	12			AL.	266			P.	63	AL.	3
		NE.	37			NE.	346					NE.	41

Note 1: CT stands for Cultural Topics, Nat. for National, N. for Number, DT for Discourse Type, NA. for Native, AL. for Alien, NE. for Neutral, CN for Cultural Names A for Authoritative, P. for Persuasive, and CD for Cultural Dialogue.

Table 2
The National Identity Content Analysis of Textbooks (CES & On Target 2) (Males) Based on Cultural Topics, Cultural Names and Cultural Dialogue (All Lessons)

CT	N.	DT	N.	CN	N.	DT	N.	CD	N.	DT	N.	DT	N.
Nat.	13	Na.	2	Nat.	480	Na.	104	Nat.	588	A.	115	Na.	26
		AL.	4			AL.	135			P.	473	AL.	61
		NE.	7			NE.	241`					NE.	110

4.2. Teachers' national identities

The general analysis of the teachers' data showed that promoting and having influenced by national identities presented in the textbooks is a gradual and continuing process and is not at least consciously revealed in a short time even in two or three years. The observation of the teachers' classes showed that generally they, particularly females, followed the contents and models presented in the textbooks. The priority given to promotion and projection of the national identities by the teachers was determined partly by the precedence of the textbooks' writers, and as there were somehow a great deal of topics, names, and dialogue devoted to national identities, the teachers had to talk about them explicitly or implicitly. Hardly can we determine a clear path of development in the

construction of national identity by the teachers as their data show various forms of identity formation. In all, we can categorize them into dynamic national identity groups, in which each group may reveal the identity either explicitly or implicitly. In their surveys, for instance, they were more explicit in revealing their national identity, and their interviews showed that they were predominantly explicit about their identity stance, though some variations were also observed after repeating the interviews. However, when observed, they were more dynamic depending on the context of situation, though the textbooks made them in some way to confine themselves to the textbooks' direction. The variables of textbooks, teachers and learners were interplaying and though seemed to be chaotic but they all influenced each other cyclically. To show how they promoted the national identities and to determine the discourse type is not possible due to the little space, but we try to present some instances for our related discussion. The data extracted focus more on some determinants of national identities such as national media, native language preference, native clothes and music, and integrity or indifference to nation.

Hedyeh's (case 1) class observation during the term showed that she did not diverge from the topics of the book and she tried to do the exercises without making an external link with the outside world's topics. For example, when the book provided some national talks for discussion, she mostly moved to the teaching direction of defining words, teaching the syntactic structure and in general it seemed that at least consciously she was not aware of national identity projection of the textbook contents. Here is an instance of her interaction in the class:

The teacher: No?.....yes reports, events, sports, OK, do you watch TV? Yes? Can you say the channels? News? Just news? Films, movies, soap operas? What's the meaning of soap opera? You had it, soap opera, you had it before, did you forget it? Look at page 83, page 83, what happened in soap last week? Soap, soap opera, a television program that you can see it or watch it on TV every night, yes? Or, for example, once or twice a week, clear? Yes, soap opera, OK, do you listen to radio? No one? Why? Student: I don't like it. Teacher: Don't like it? What about your fathers? Do you fathers listen to radio? Student: Yes. Teacher: Where? Student: In car.

In regard to her allegiance to national clothes, Hedye showed no strong commitment to wearing some national clothes. She was not also very influenced by foreign clothes. Almost all female teachers wore formal clothes and almost all male teachers wore sport or simple and usual clothes. There were no explicit official codes for teachers to observe, but the interview showed that they had to wear formally. When interviewed, Hedye, or instance, commented that 'I wear jeans and sport shoes but as a university professor one should wear formal clothes.' When asked for her willingness to go to America, she replied that ' why not, if for the sake of education, I like to go and study there'. She didn't like Iran's TV programmes. Almost all teachers (except one female) showed no interest to watch such programs. Their reason was that Iran's TV does not show high quality programs. She also had chosen the American accent for teaching English:

The interviewee: I learned it from teachers and movies. I chose the American accent.
The interviewer: Why do you like the American accent?
The interviewee: Because my teachers spoke with American accent and also because of the movies that I watched. Now that I compare it with British accent, I find British more difficult.

Following are some other instances:

The interviewer: Do you like music? What kind?
The interviewee: Yes. Some calm Iranian music.
The interviewer: Do you like a particular singer or actor?
The interviewee: Yes, Nima Nakisa and Ansarian [Iranian singers].

She was also persuasive in her talks and probably due to her personality, she didn't want or couldn't act authoritatively. She accepted the learners' replies and she tried to correct them if they were linguistically incorrect.

As the literature shows, a person's loyalty to his native language is a determiner of national identity. In our case, we wanted to understand the reaction of the teachers toward their native language by asking about their preference. In regard to native or non-native dichotomy of pronunciation, almost all teachers preferred the American pronunciation,

but they had different reasons. Almost, no one liked to sound Persian when speaking English.

Our second case, Khatereh, shared some commonalities with Hedyeh, though she was unique in some respects. She did not like to sound Persian when speaking English but she had some different reason:

The interviewer: Do you follow a special pronunciation?
The interviewee: A special pronunciation?
The interviewer: For example, British or American.
The interviewee: I usually pronounce in American, because I don't like British, I've never followed it.
The interviewer: Why don't you like it?
The interviewee: I just don't like it!

Khatereh was also very strict and loyal to the textbook. Generally, she didn't let her students to move away from the related topics within the textbooks, but when giving an exercise model to the students, she asked them to change the content and add their personal information following the model. However, when the students revealed their favorite actors, singers, movies, etc., she didn't defend against their answers if they were for or against the Iranian national privileges. She was also persuasive in her discourse like our first case, though her voice was somehow more authoritative than Hedyeh's. Following is an interaction between Khatereh and her students in the class:

The student: Her favorite sport is volleyball.
The teacher: Volleyball. You, please.
The student: Her name is Shohreh. She is from Iran. She was born in 1998. Her favorite actor Brad Pitt. Her favourite singer is Enrico. Her favorite sport is basketball.
The teacher: Aha, you talk about your friend.
The student: Her name is Zahra. She is from Iran. She was born in 1998. Her address is 22 Bahman Street. Her favorite actor is Angelina. Her favorite sports are swimming and volleyball. Her favorite singer is Shakira.
The teacher: Shakira , Ok, you.
The student: Her name is Fatima. She is from Iran. She was born in 1989. Her address is 10 [….] street. Her favorite sport is tennis. Her favorite singer is Saleh.

The teacher: You.
The student: Her name is Somayyeh. Her is from Iran.
The teacher: her? Her is from Iran?
The student: She is from Iran. Her was born on 15 august.

In the above exercise, the students had to follow a particular syntactic structure, but the teacher let them be free in their choice or the contents of their sentences, which shows dynamic reactions of the students towards their favorite actors, singers, and sports. They almost chose Iranian names, but foreign favorite actors, and singers.

Following are some other extracts showing Khatereh's reactions towards national identities:

The interviewer: Iran national TV?
The interviewee: To tell the truth, I don't know about it too much.

The interviewer: How much do you watch TV?
The interviewee: Iran's? I barely watch.
The interviewer: Do you like to stay in Iran?
The interviewee: I may migrate to Canada, but the process has not completed yet, it's not known what happens next.
The interviewer: Do you feel prejudiced about Iranians?
The interviewee: An Iranian?
The interviewer: Ya, all Iranians.
The interviewee: Yes, I always like the Iranians to be successful. I would get angry to see other nationalities not paying attention to Iranians.

She was familiar with the Iranian classic poets and some great artists as well. Generally, case three, Nazanin, was familiar with some Iranian national figures and artists, but she seemed to be very religious bound. When she was asked about national affairs, her answers were more religious answers.

The interviewer: You watch nothing? Do you watch Iran's TV?
The interviewee: Yes I do. I watch news.
The interviewer: Iran television?
The interviewee: Do you mean television of the country?
The interviewer: Yes. Not receiver. Iran television.

The interviewee: Useful.
The interviewer: Satellite TV services?
The interviewee: Vain.
The interviewer: If you should listen to music, which one do you prefer?
The interviewee: If so, I prefer light music, classical music.

The interviewer: American pronunciation or British? Which one do you prefer?
The interviewee: American?
The interviewer: Do you like it?

The interviewee: American is easier for me because from the start my teachers used to speak American. I have no special reason …. I just learned American.
The interviewer: When we say American, U.S comes to mind. How much do you know about U.S?
The interviewee: Hmm… No, it's not interesting to me.
The interviewer: Aha.
The interviewer: Aha, .. as an English teacher, don't you like to travel to English-speaking countries like U.S, England or anywhere else?
The interviewee: Sure … for a job, research, observing their classes, for example, getting familiar with their teaching methods.
The interviewer: Don't you like to have a job there?
The interviewee: No …no ..no.. Never.

Among the female teachers, Nazanin was very explicit in her answers, though during the semesters she also showed some signs of identity formation and deconstruction, but it was not very explicit. Other females were more dynamic and had different responses based on the new situations emerged. Her discourse type was also mostly persuasive, though she was adamant in her replies when interviewed.

The male teachers were somehow free in their choice of clothes, in revealing their selves in the interviews and in the class. In general radical changes did not happen, but there was dynamicity in their reactions both explicitly and implicitly. Mohammad, for instance, was very explicit in his answer in the interviews, but did not diverged very much from the static models, exercises and the guidelines presented in the textbooks. He was not very attracted by the native culture and was not very much conscious of the national identities. Probably, he did not

care about them as he was very obsessed with his personal life. He was also persuasive in his discourse when teaching, but as he had a crowded class he was always trying to manage the class authoritatively by his loud voice, and threats. Following are some extracts of our case four, Mohammad:

The interviewer: Iranian television (channels)?
The interviewee: Boring.
The interviewer: What cultures more appeal to you for watching movies ?
The interviewee: I like European movies and countries like England and America.
The interviewer: Why?
The interviewee: Because I think they are more related to what I want to learn.
The interviewer: No, don't think of movies as a means of improving your English, suppose they are dubbed, why you like them?
The interviewee: Because their movies are more appealing in regard to special effects and other features.

Our next case, Sahriyar, was not very responsive to the project. He was not very comfortable to cooperate with the research project. We tried to video tape some parts of his class and then analyze her reactions and interactions with his students regarding national identities construction. Like our first and second cases he was not also conscious of this type of identity. His behavior was also indicative of his indifference in national talks and ideas. He wore sport clothes, liked both Iranian and foreign music and was busy solving the exercises and sticking to the teaching direction of the textbooks contents. He was not authoritative in his discourse. Here is an instance:

The interviewer: Do you pay attention to the content of the books?
The interviewee: Of course. But learning English is important for me and nothing else.. you know.
The interviewer: Do you like your nation?
The interviewee: Not completely; I like all nations.

Our last case, Farhad, was the most explicit and also persuasive teacher both in the interviews and in the class. He was free to reveal her

'self'. He did not like his native culture so much, but he was not detached from the Iranian culture as well. In fact, he was in the process of becoming and experiencing. The analysis of his talks showed that he had no definition of his identity yet. The following extracts are more revealing and telling:

The teacher: Right. Do you like Indian movies?
The student: No.
The teacher: but it's very nice.
The teacher: Could you please tell me about some personality traits and some specifications about people who are born in January? Christmas Day?
The student: Yes.
The teacher: You born on Christmas.
The student: Yes.
The teacher: Tell me what are you talking about. Don't speak Farsi. Don't speak Farsi in this class. It's a holy place. Farsi is very Anti-religion. ... Listen to me.

The Interviewer: What do like for the most part?
The interviewee: I like night clubs. I like being happy. I like being in concerts. I don't like to do do other people may… do… to evacuate the feelings outside. This is the way of . . . This is a very good way to tide your behaving. I would love to do that and I would say that's pretty prettiest things and I would love to go to this kind of places for having fun. You know I really love to go to[…..] this one time.
The interviewer: Do you like foreign music?
The interviewee: Yes, Armenian. And I used to like "Celine Dion" so much.
The interviewer: What about movies?
The interviewee: Movies…. "Patch Adams", "Awakenings", "American Beauty", "Green Miles" ….
The interviewer: You said identity. Talk a little about identity. Your identity. What makes your identity?
The interviewee: I really have no idea serious because I really don't know myself yet .I'm very […..] but complicated guy .Type of very easy things can make me happy but very easy things can make me angry too. I look at a lock [….]… I get angry but I want actually be fired off too early

and my identity is consisted by my name. When I say my name… actually it's gonna picture a roll of interests and dislikes. This is what I am I really have no idea to say about myself. I'm the way that you see just like that I have no double syntaxes.

4.3. Learners' national identities

Ali defined nationality as 'independence', and he noted that ' I know Iran from history books of school and I like it'. He liked cars and car factories very much and he desired to have a car factory and produces the type of car he liked. The analysis of her data showed that he was very religious. Even he had memorized Quran, the religious Muslim book. In his clothes, he observed the common rules of wearing religious clothes. In Iran, for instance, in Ashoora, the religious people try to wear black. He was not very concerned with the national clothes. None of the cases, both teachers and learners were meticulous in wearing national clothes. He knew the national anthem of Iran and the color of the national flag. He was not very sensitive to listen to music, even Irani music. He preferred traditional Iranian food. He liked the Persian language and he preferred Iran as a good place to continue his education:

Interviewer: Don't you like to go abroad?
Interviewee: I like to go and then come back. I want to go and buy a car.
Interviewer: Don't you want to go there to study?
Interviewee: No, I prefer Iran.

Farzad mostly talked of his foreign travels:

Interviewer: Do you travel?
Interviewee: Yes. I go to turkey every summer. I have gone to Europe, countries such as Australia, Poland. And my uncle studies in Italy, so we go there. I have only traveled to Esfahan.
Interviewer: Have you ever gone to some historical places?
Interviewee: I went to France.
Interviewer: What about Shiraz?
Interviewee: No.

His preferred programmers such as sport programs and his favorite singer was Rihanna, a North American singer. He also preferred traditional Iranian food and some other fast food. He did not care about

some special days to wear a particular kind of clothing. He mostly wore sport shoes and sport clothes.

Following are some other extracts showing his national preferences:

Interviewer: Do you like action movies?
Interviewee: No. I listen to Iranian music.
Interviewer: What about Michael Jackson?
Interviewee: I like him and listen to his music.
Interviewer: Have you ever gone to U.S.A?
Interviewer: No, but I have gone to Europe. I like USA because all important events happen there and there is updated technology, movie and music industry.
Interviewer: Do you want to live in U.S.A?
Interviewee: No, I like Iran, but I want to go to England.
Interviewer: Why do you like to go to USA?
Interviewee: To continue my education.

Mehdi did not watch TV very much. He did not spend his time watching movies or listening to music. They had a satellite TV receiver and he used his personal TV that was in his private room for playing the computer games. They had a TV in their hall. He said: 'It's downstairs; it's the main TV set, which is connected to the satellite dish. I watch BBC news and especially documentaries or short programs.' He liked to go abroad to continue his education. He liked fast food though the family provided traditional Iranian food as well. He also preferred sport shoes and sport clothes.

Narges seldom watched Iranian TV, but sometimes she watched some foreign programmes from the satellite TV services. Her favorite singer was Shakira, a Latin America singer and song writer. She used her mobile to listen to her favorite music. Generally, she was not familiar with Iran and its national places. She mentioned that her English books helped her to know some other countries such as England and America. She also noted that the English books did not mention anything about Iran. She also loved the English language more than the Persian language. None of the males' cases had this idea.

Maryam had travelled to Malaysia with her family and had lived them for some years and it had a dramatic impact on her identity. She

had good memories of that place and living here in Iran was almost unbearable for her:

Interviewer: Do you watch TV?
Interviewee: I would say I hate it! It doesn't show anything, nothing to attract me. I have a lot of English movies.
Interviewer: For example?
Interviewee: High school musical 1, 2, 3, Spider Man, Mummy, Crisis, and, hmm... Avatar and Alice in Wonderland, also 2010.
Interviewer: Do you like Persian names or foreign ones?
Interviewee: Both, I don't mind. I mean, I'm not prejudiced.

Her observation in the class showed that she wore simple clothes, which were colorful. She didn't like to wear black and she mentioned that she was freer in choosing the color when she was in Malaysia. She liked both fast food and home cooked meals.

Fatemeh wore religious clothes particularly chador as her dress code. This was due to her background. She came from a religious family like our first male case. Though wearing clothes as dress codes or markers of class dates back to an earlier time in the history of Iran (Mir-Hosseini, 1996) it seems that religious identity and national identity are still fused and related together. It seems that a religious family prefers to wear religious clothes and if asked for their national identity, they define their nationality as having religious identity. But, this is not general, particularly for the young generation. Mohammad, for instance, preferred to recite Quran or listen to Quranic verses than to listen to music in general, but Fatemeh was interested to April music and her favorite singer was Enrique, the Italian well-known singer. She preferred healthy food to fast food and she had little information on Iran. She had travelled to some religious places with her parents in Iran too.

The learners' data also showed some national identities influences in favor of what was presented and emphasized by the repetition style through different exercise used by the authors. The content analysis showed that 104 national names were related only to the American and British countries and out of 75 national topics, 26 topics were native. In three different intervals, the analysis of their projects showed that they preferred to choose western music which was emphasized in their textbooks, fast food and junk food repeated in their workbooks and America and British as their repeated favorite country names. Though,

almost all the learners had not done their workbooks excercse completely, and that was due to the fact that their teachers did not checked them and they were almost free to do them or not, some traces of national identity changes were noticed. Narges, for instance, filled a questionnaire in her workbook (In Contact 2, p. 5), and mentioned that she loved listening to western music. Her interviewed also showed that, but here doing the exercise seemed to strengthen her inclination toward the native culture priorities. Maryam, wrote in In Contact 1, p. 67 that she likes fast food such as hamburger, snack, and junk food. Fatemeh's answers were almost the same. She added sandwich to the list. These items were introduced by the authors and repeated in the exercises. Ali, however, was not very much influenced by the western national identities preferences. He was not very interested in music either Alien or Native. His data showed that he preferred traditional Iranian national food and customs. This may be due to his religious identities background and his family. He was apparently more Islamic rather than having Iranian national identities. In a project, they were asked to be syllabus designers of some English books. He preferred to design a book in which he could introduce some traditional food, such as Ghormeh Sabzi (meat and vegetable), Mahi Plow (fish and rice), and Abgoosht (water and meat), and advertise Iranian products particularly Iranian cars. However, in designing the reading texts, he liked to introduce some texts related to cars and he mentioned some American autos. Farzad, was very responsive to the authors' suggestions and he was in the ever change of the two culture priority choices. He added the Iranian cultural items and products in his syllabus, but America and England were more highlighted as his choices when thinking of doing something. Mehdi, on the other hand, was more like Farzad and a little different from Ali in his national identities changes. In his syllabus, he preferred the map of England, wrote some American artists, advertised some foreign products and did not mentioned Iran as one of his choice. He liked to name some fast food though in the interview he showed that he was served some traditional food by his family. And he liked to wear foreign clothes as he claimed to be more prestigious.

5. Concluding remarks

The content analysis of the textbooks shows that majority of the topics, dialogues and names are in favor of the British and American. While, there are some other countries mentioned in the texts, the word Iran even

as a name does not exist in the minds of the authors. It seems that by national identities, the authors only mean American and British identities. It seems that language is a tool for projecting their nationality. It seems that the authors are practicing what Greenfeld (1992, p. 23) theorized as he put it 'the birth of the English nation was not the birth of a nation; it was the birth of the nations, the birth of nationalism. England is where the process originated'.

The authors' discourse was more persuasive and this shows that they know that identity construction is a gradual process and takes time. There is no need for them to project their favorite national identities authoritatively. They just present the data and the analysis of the learners' data showed that they are influenced by the textbooks' contents in one way or another.

The teachers' determinants of national identities such as national media, native language preference, native clothes and music, and integrity or indifference to nation showed that teachers, even those who showed little interest at least explicitly to national identities issues were implicitly under the influence of the textbooks' national related contents.

It seems that a national identities awareness to all the people such as learners, teachers, syllabus designers, and policy makers who are involved and engaged in learning and teaching English is a necessity. This awareness should be an understanding in the two cultures, both the Native and the Alien. In the long run, they may choose an Alien culture and gradually lose their interest or even forget about their Native national preferences. We should consider the contents of the textbooks as a critical cognitive diet and create some centers for the analysis and supervision of the textbooks. Such a supervision is also recommended for the private English teachers who are teaching English at these centers.

In addition, it seems that the government has no control on the private language centers at least in supervising their textbooks, while in public schools the books are reviewed and monitored by the government policies and control. This does not mean, of course, that the contents of such public school books are satisfactory and need not to be critically analyzed.

This study was an attempt toward opening new and critical ways of looking at cultural issues and remain to be completed with more research in the future. Based on our case study, we can hardly generalize the findings and we need more population of books, learners, and

teachers in different regions to investigate the role of national identities or other types of identities and the ever construction of these identities.

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Dynamic Assessment of Writing: The Effect of Mediation on Rule Internalization

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ABSTRACT: This study aimed to investigate the effect of dynamic assessment of writing on rule internalization that was achieved by means of four types of implicit and explicit feedback. Feedback was provided to participants' written problems concerning different types of relative clauses. The participants of the study (*N*=32) were male university undergraduate students. To operationalize the feedback, a unique scoring scheme was developed on the basis of five stages of zone of proximal development. The analysis of the data showed that the learners had different zones of proximal development regarding noticing and developing ten forms of relative clauses and performed much better on grammar posttest than pretest exams. The results also showed a hierarchy of internalizing the relative clauses in which 'relative clause for people', 'relative clause for objects' and 'relative clause with whose' were hierarchically internalized respectively. Finally, it could be claimed that this study was a creativity with regard to the developed scoring scheme of dynamic assessment of writing and the unique instructor's mediation in terms of different kinds of implicit/explicit hints.

Key words: Corrective feedback, Dynamic assessment, Dynamic assessment of writing, Zone of proximal development

1. Introduction

In recent years, traditional standardized objective achievement tests have been criticized to be inappropriate and invalid way of measuring the students' academic competencies (O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996). However, Dynamic assessment (DA) as a performance based test along with the teacher's mediation during the assessment is considered as an alternative, which can reduce the learners' anxiety, create a positive attitude toward assessment and learning, and provide an authentic context to assessing as far as communicative era is considered. Therefore, DA is a shift in paradigm and a challenge in conventional views to both teaching and assessment. DA, as Lidz (cited in Poehner,

2008) defines, is ‘‘an interaction between an examiner-as-intervener and a learner-as-active participant, which seeks to estimate the degree of modifiability of the learner and the means by which positive changes in cognitive functioning can be induced and maintained’’ (P. 13). Teaching and assessment are not considered as separate activities in DA; instead, they are fully integrated, and this integration can be fulfilled when intervention is embedded within the assessment procedure so as to reinterpret learners’ abilities and guide them to a better level of functioning.

DA, as Poehner and Lantolf (2005) argue, has a theoretically explicit position in cognitive development that draws on the concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Much of DA is concerned with working with a person’s ZPD to develop his abilities in solving the target problem systematically. Additionally, it should be stated that the defining characteristic of DA is the negotiation of mediation aimed at development. In DA, mediation cannot be offered in a haphazard, hit-or-miss fashion, but it must be tuned to those abilities that are maturing.

Writing can be assessed in terms of grammar, vocabulary, content, and organization; however, the focus of this study was on the grammatical aspect of essay writing and more specifically, on different forms of relative clauses (RCs). This specification was due to the fact that the participants of this study were passing a General English course at university level in which one of the main grammatical points of their textbooks was different kinds of RCs. Therefore, it was decided to assess the learners’ comprehension and production in this regard. Further, a focused approach to error correction was adopted with the hope of making the learners reflect deeply on RC, which is one of the most important aspects of essay writing.

In this study, a quantitative approach to DA was adopted, and a scoring scheme containing four types of implicit/explicit mediation was designed for the administration of DA of writing. In addition, the approach applied to DA was interventionist; that is, the mediation offered was in the form of a graded set of standardized hints, ranging from implicit to explicit one.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of DA of writing on rule internalization that was achieved by means of four types of implicit and explicit feedback. To achieve the objectives of this study, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Does DA of writing through giving explicit and implicit feedback have any significant impact on rule internalization among the Iranian EFL learners?
2. Is there any statistically significant difference in learners' scores on pre and posttests of ten RC forms after DA procedure?
3. What kinds of feedback (i.e., implicit or explicit) through continuous learner/teacher interaction are more effective in the linguistic internalization of learners?

2. Review of literature

2.1. Dynamic assessment

DA, as Lidz (1997) defines, is an interaction between an examiner as intervener and a learner as active participant, which seeks to estimate the degree of modifiability of the learner and the means by which positive changes in the cognitive functioning can be induced and maintained. Therefore, the goal of DA as a social, interactive, and qualitative enterprise is to measure, intervene, and modify behaviors as well as to document the process of learning.

ZPD, as Vygotsky (1978) suggests, is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). To Vygotsky, psychological assessments usually are merely descriptive; they fail to illuminate developmental processes. However, Vygotsky (as cited in Minick, 1987) argued that by making an individual's ZPD the core of assessment procedure, "we gain the potential for directly studying that which most precisely determines the level of mental maturation that must be completed in the proximal or subsequent period of his age development" (p. 118).

Lantolf and Poehner (2004) suggested the terms *interventionist* and *interactionist DA* to describe the two general types of mediation. Interactionist DA follows Vygotsky's preference for cooperative dialoging. In this approach, assistance emerges from the interaction between the mediator and the learner and is therefore highly sensitive to the learner's ZPD. Interventionist DA, on the other hand, remains closer to certain forms of static assessment and their concerns over the psychometric properties of their procedures. Interventionist DA uses standardized administration procedures and forms of guidance to produce easily quantifiable outcomes that can be used to make comparisons

between and within groups. In addition, it can be contrasted with other measures and used to make predictions about performance on future tests. Interventionist DA, as Brown and Ferrara (1985) suggest, is concerned with quantifying as an "index of speed of learning" (p. 300). DA fails to demonstrate, in traditional terms, the reliability, generalizability, and the validity of its procedures. However, interactionists need to integrate the traditional testing constructs into their work and outline their own research methods to strike a balance between psychometric-based testing and development-referenced DA.

DA, as Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) describe, can be distinguished from nondynamic assessment (NDA) in three ways. In terms of assessment goals, NDA focuses on products formed as a result of preexisting skills. At the level of assessment administration, the nondynamic paradigm does not permit "feedback from examiner to test taker regarding quality of performance" during the test procedure. Finally, with regard to the examiner's orientation in NDA, it is important "to be as neutral and as uninvolved as possible toward the examinee" (p. 28–9). In addition, Lantolf and Pohner (2004) contrasted DA and Formative Assessment (FA), arguing that DA is not just a special type of FA. Rather, it is a pedagogical approach grounded in a specific theory of mind and mental development. FA, on the other hand, is not framed by a developmental theory; instead, it is based on teachers' intuitive classroom practice.

2.2. Dynamic assessment of writing

In the alternative era, writing performance can be assessed in a number of ways (e.g., self-assessment, peer assessment, portfolio assessment, etc). One of the innovative ways of assessing writing appears to be DA. Shrestha and Coffin (2012) investigated the value of tutor mediation in the form of text-based interaction about the assignments in the context of academic writing development among undergraduate business studies students in open and distance learning. Shrestha and Coffin (2012) found that (a) DA can help to identify and respond to the areas that students need the most support in and (b) a learning theory-driven approach such as DA can contribute to undergraduate students' academic writing development.

Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) produced a simple framework (i.e., dynamic mediation process) for English writing instruction that emphasizes three stages: (1) topic-choice stage, (2) idea generation and

structuring stage, and (3) macro-revising stage. Each stage is divided into three steps: (1) pretask, (2) mediation, and (3) posttask. In the process of DA, mediation in the form of either dialogues between teacher and students, or meditational tools (e.g., guidelines, reading materials, samples, etc) were presented to the learners. However, nothing was done regarding assessing the participants' performance. In other words, Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) focused only on the scaffolding aspect of DA in the process of writing instruction, and no assessment was done based on the participants' ZPDs. The findings of this study indicated that the dialogic way of teaching was useful in enhancing the participants' learning interest and improving the writing competence. It is believed that the implimentation of DA in writing requires more exploration in scoring the students' performance reflecting both the assessing and assisting aspects of DA. Therefore, in the present research, a unique scoring scheme was developed to operationalize these two aspects of DA.

2.3. Corrective Feedback

As noted previously, in this study, a scoring scheme in terms of five stages of ZPDs along with four types of implicit/explicit feedback was the basis for the DA procedure. Therefore, in this section some studies on different kinds of feedback are presented.

Feedback, as Gass and Mackey (2007) state, may help to make problematic aspects of learners' interlanguage salient and give them more opportunities to focus on their production or comprehension. Further, Schmidt (1990, 1993) and Robinson (1995, 2001, 2003) argue that learners must consciously notice input in order for it to become intake. This claim is generally referred to as the Noticing Hypothesis which is proposed by Schmidt (1990, 1993). It is argued that interaction leads learners to notice and results in the language development. Thus, feedback and noticing, as Long (1996) states, can be considered as the two crucial elements in the language development.

Given a sociocultural theory (SCT)-based approach to negative feedback, error correction, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) showed, proved effective to the extent that it was negotiated between the learner and the teacher and provided at the right point or within the learner's ZPD. Highlighting the assumptions underlying this approach, Nassaji and Swain (2000) argue that Vygotsky's sociocultural stance on error correction can provide new and important insights into the L2 learning

process. In other words, they assert that in this perspective both types of feedback, implicit and explicit, are assumed to be effective depending on the learner's ZPD in handling the linguistic feature in question. What distinguishes this perspective from the conventional perspective, as Nassaji and Swain (2000) state, is that "in this framework, error correction is considered as a social activity involving joint participation and meaningful transactions between the learner and the teacher" (p. 35). They emphasize that a crucial concept in understanding feedback in SCT-based interaction is the idea of scaffolding, which is different from merely helping the learner in a unidirectional way as typical of traditional teaching. In this vein, Lantolf and Poehner (2010) argue that an extremely important point in the error correction from Vygotskian perspective is that the mediation should be adjusted to the learner's performance, which entails "co-regulation whereby a learner's responsiveness to teacher mediation also regulates the teacher and her subsequent attempts at assisting the learner" and" it is in this process of co-regulation that learner agency and autonomy emerge" (p. 18).

In this study, a focused approach to correct learners' errors was adopted to make them reflect more on RCs. In addition, three types of implicit feedback (i.e., feedback in the forms of underline, example, and metalinguistic) and explicit corrective feedback were presented in the process of DA.

3. Methodology

The sampling, in this study, was not random but nonprobability convenient; that is, there was no selection or homogenization procedure, and the researchers had to work with those students the university provided them with. Therefore, the design carried out in this study was intact-group. In the following sections, a description of participants, instrumentation, and procedure is provided.

3.1. Participants

The participants in this study (*N*=32) were all Iranian male language learners aged between 18 and 20 studying at a B.S. level in the two technological universities, Sharif University of Technology and Amirkabir University of Technology. The participants' majors were Information Technology and Mechanical Engineering and nonprobability convenient sampling was used to select them as the researchers had to work with those learners attending the course. They were participating in

their General English course which was a compulsory subject offered them four hours of instruction per week. Their textbook was General English for Engineering Students and the grammatical points that were selected for this study were based on the points covered in this book.

3.2. Instruments

Three instruments and a set of materials were used in this study. A grammar test consisting of ten questions on any of the ten forms of RC was used as a pretest (Appendix A). To make the study manageable, the RCs were classified as RC for people, RC for objects, RC with whose, RC with where, RC with when, Reduced form 1, Reduced form 2, Nondefining RC, Participial phrase form, and Nondefining participial phrase. Reduced forms 1 and 2 were defined as: (Relative form 1= relative pronoun (RP) + to be → both the relative pronoun and the verb 'be' are dropped out) and (Relative form 2= RP + verbs other than 'be' → the relative pronoun is dropped out, and the verb is replaced with a verb + ing). The items of the pre/posttests were selected from the grammar section of a TOEFL exam. The purpose of administering the pretest was to investigate whether the participants were familiar with the RC forms.

The same grammar test was administered as the posttest at the end of the research to investigate if the feedback-based instruction employed in the process of DA had any effect on the participants' performance. The third instrument was a writing task entitled 'If you could invent something new, what product would you develop? Use specific details to explain why this invention is needed'. It was chosen from the writing section of a TOEFL exam.

A handout containing different forms of RC was distributed among learners. The content of the handout was the basis for the assessing and assisting in the DA procedure. Additionally, a scoring scheme for DA of writing, as appeared in Appendix B, was developed by the researchers. It consisted of 10 forms of RC as well as five ZPDs along with four types of implicit/explicit feedback. ZPDs were defined in terms of five zones ranging from score one to score zero.

3.3. Procedure

At the beginning of the study, a grammar test consisting of ten questions was administered. Each question in the grammar test was based on one of the ten forms of RC. The scoring of this test was done out of ten.

Given the purpose of this study, the learners were provided with seven sessions of instruction on the ten forms of RC. After seven sessions of instruction, the learners were asked to write an essay containing ten forms of RC. The essays were marked by the researchers based on the correct application of the ten forms of RC in the essays.

The feedback which offered ranged from implicit (in the form of metalanguage, example, and underline) to explicit error correction. The details of the procedure are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Scoring Scheme: Implicit to Explicit Feedback

ZPD1 (1 score)	If a learner applied the grammatical point correctly to his writing without the instructor's help, he took one score and did not need to move to DA procedure including different kinds of feedback; otherwise, he had to go to the next stage.
ZPD2 (0.75)	The instructor wrote a metalanguage or a formula regarding learner's errors on the bottom of their writing. If he could correct his errors, he would receive 0.75. In the case of an unsuccessful attempt, he was required to go through the next stage.
ZPD3 (0.5)	In this stage, the instructor tried to provide an example related to the learner's errors. If the learner could identify the error and edit his writing, he would receive 0.5. But if the error went unnoticed, the learner would have to go to the next stage.
ZPD4 (0.25)	In this stage, the instructor's mediation was in the form of underlining the sentence in which the error appeared. If the learner could recognize the problem, he would receive 0.25; otherwise, he needed to go through the next stage.
ZPD5 (0)	If the learner could not find his error, the instructor would explicitly write the correct form, and in this stage the learner received no score.

During the DA phase which took two hours, each learner received a direct or face to face instruction. The purpose of this activity was to avoid creating the test wiseness for the rest of the class who were waiting to be assessed. While learners were being assessed, they were

provided with mediation on the part of the instructor in different kinds of implicit and explicit feedback. It should be stated that different types of feedback were provided in consistent with the needs of the learners as defined in the different ZPDs. It is assumed that weaker learners would need more feedback to reach a well-formed performance. In order to examine the effect of DA on rule internalization, at the end of the research the same pretest was administered as the posttest. Comparing the scores of participants in the pre and posttests, the researchers sought to determine whether any significant difference was created in the learners' performance as the result of administering DA. Further, the scores obtained from each ten forms were analyzed to determine which RC form was internalized better during the process of DA.

To provide an answer to the research questions of the study, the following steps of statistical analysis were performed. A paired-samples *t* test was run to compare the learners' performance on pre and posttests. A comparison of the learners' performance on the posttest and the pretest could show how much improvement was made on the ten forms of RC. Further, descriptive statistics of the ten forms of RC in terms of different types of feedback were calculated.

4. Results

4.1. Comparing pre and posttests scores

This study aimed to investigate if any significant difference was created between the performances of learners in the pre/posttest as the result of administering DA of writing. To this end, a paired-samples *t* test was performed to evaluate the impact of DA of writing on the learners' pre/posttest scores with regard to the ten forms of RC. The learners' performance on the pre and posttests are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Comparing Pre & Posttests Scores

	M	*N*	*SD*	*Std. Error Mean*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Pretest	1.75	32	2.36	0.419	-12.52	31	.000
Posttest	7.53	32	3.06	0.543			

As Table 2 demonstrates, the mean in the posttest was greater than that of the pretest. It can be claimed that there was an improvement in the ten RCs after the DA procedure from pretest to posttest, M_{pre} =

1.75, M_{post}= 7.53. However, the scores were more heterogeneous in the posttest, SD_{pre}= 2.369, SD_{post} = 3.069. This implies that the DA did not have a similar impact on the learners. The results of *t* test showed a significant difference, $t_{(31)}$ =12.521, *p*=.000, in the learners' performance on the RCs. Therefore, it can be concluded that DA of writing was effective in improving the participants' performance concerning the internalization of ten forms of RC.

4.2. Comparing pre and posttests scores of ten forms of RC

The scores obtained from pre and posttests were compared to determine which of the ten forms of RC was improved through DA of writing.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of Pre and Posttests of Ten Forms of RC

Questions	*M*		*SD*	
	pre	post	pre	post
RC for people	0.31	0.96	0.47	0.17
RC for objects	0.25	0.93	0.44	0.24
RC with whose	0.21	0.87	0.42	0.33
RC with where	0.21	0.81	0.42	0.39
RC with when	0.25	0.78	0.44	0.42
Relative form1	0.09	0.71	0.29	0.45
Relative form2	0.15	0.68	0.36	0.47
Nondefining RC	0.12	0.62	0.33	0.49
Participial phrase	0.06	0.59	0.24	0.49
Nondefining participial phrase	0.06	0.53	0.24	0.50

As table 3 shows, the scores in the posttest increased for each RC. However, all the ten RCs were not improved equally. Needless to state that (*M* =1) represents a complete correct score in questions. 'RC for people' has increased from 0.31 in the pretest to 0.96 in the posttest. Additionally, 'RC for objects' was increased from 0.25 in the pretest to 0.94 in the posttest. 'RC for objects' received the highest increase in the scores compared to other RCs. Then, 'RC for people' and 'RC with whose' received the more increase both with 0.66 increase. The less increase is related to the 'Nondefining participial phrase' form. It can be claimed that 'RC for people' is the form which was internalized better and 'RC for object', 'RC with whose', and 'RC with when' were developed respectively.

4.3. ZPDs and feedback in DA procedure

Table 4

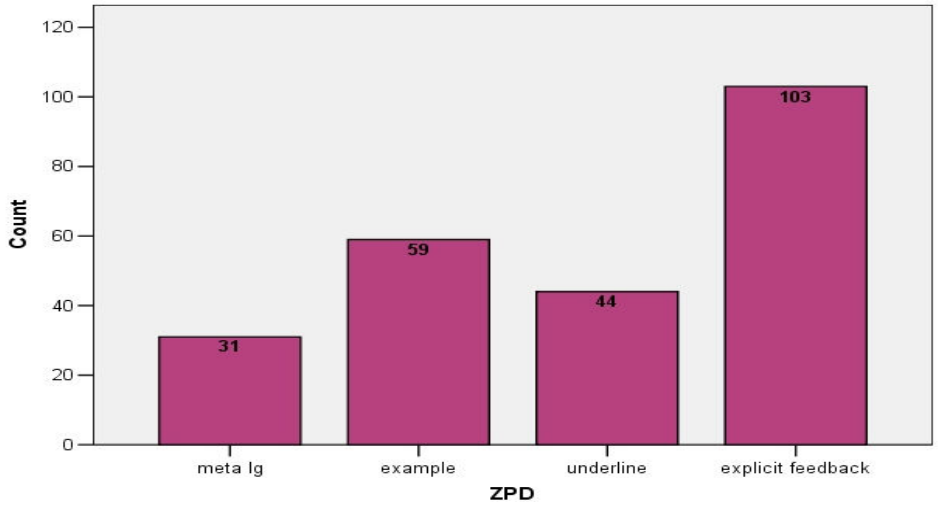
Frequency of the RC Forms in Terms of Five ZPDs

RC Forms	ZPDs & Feedback					
	ZPD1	ZPD2 Metalg	ZPD3 Example	ZPD4 Underline	ZPD5 Explicit feedback	Total
RC for people	14	4	10	3	1	32
RC for objects	12	4	12	3	1	32
RC with whose	8	3	8	6	7	32
RC with where	10	6	8	6	2	32
RC with when	11	5	9	4	3	32
Relative Form1	7	3	5	6	11	32
Relative Form2	7	2	3	5	15	32
Nondefining RC	7	2	3	6	14	32
Participial phrase	4	2	0	3	23	32
Nondefining participial phrase	3	0	1	2	26	32
Total	83	31	59	44	103	320

As can be seen in Table 4, most learners could apply 'RC for people, RC for object, RC with whose, RC with when, and RC with where' forms correctly and did not need to go through the DA procedure. Considering the 'RC for people' form, feedback in the form of example was more effective compared to other hints. Regarding this form, only one learner required explicit feedback to modify his erroneous sentence. Like the previous form, 'RC with object' was better developed by explicit feedback. This form had the same frequency with 'RC for people' with regard to metalanguage and explicit feedback. Considering 'RC for whose', instructor's mediation in the form of example and explicit feedback had the same frequency, while metalanguage was the least effective hint. With regard to 'RC with where', feedback in the form of example received more frequency, whereas explicit feedback was the least effective feedback. Learners were more successful in noticing their problems in 'RC with when' in the form of example hint while they required few explicit feedback to modify their problems in this regard.

Considering 'Relative form 1, Relative form 2, and Nondefining RC', the number of learners who modified their grammatical problems with receiving metalanguage hint was the same. Regarding 'Relative form 2, Nondefining RC, and Participial phrase', most learners were not able to spot the erroneous areas with implicit feedback and had to go through the last stage of feedback, requiring more mediation on the part of the instructor. Implicit feedback in the form of metalanguage was the least effective hint (f = 2) with regard to the internalization of these forms. With 'Participial phrase and Nondefining participial phrase' forms, most learners were capable in correcting the problematic aspects of their writing with explicit error correction. Further, there was the learners' total failure to modify their problems in 'Participial phrase and Nondefining participial phrase' forms with metalanguage and example hints, respectively. Figure 1 demonstrates the frequency of the three forms of implicit feedback (i.e., meta language, example, and underline) and explicit feedback.

Figure 1. *Comparing Four Kinds of Feedback in the Process of DA.*



As Figure 1 illustrates, the lowest frequency belonged to meta language (*f* =31), while explicit feedback received the highest frequency (*f* =103). It can be argued that some RCs were difficult for learners to be employed in that they could not notice their errors with implicit hints and had to go through more stages of mediation on the part of the instructor to effectively internalize the grammatical points.

5. Discussion

Based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that DA is effective in improving L2 learners' rule internalization. One possible explanation for such a result could be the positive effect of providing learners with a great number of opportunities to interact with the instructor in different forms of mediation in the process of DA. Given the theories behind DA, namely ZPD and sociocultural theory, this research could prove that the expert-novice interaction (here, the instructor's mediation through explicit/implicit feedback) can help learners reach beyond the current level of ability (i.e., rule internalization).

In addition, as far as sociocltural theory is considered mediation of assessor can help learners reach from other-regulation (i.e., doing a task by the help of the others) to self-regulation (i.e., doing a task independently). The findings of this study may lend further support to Lantolf (2006) that what is being done by the help and meditation of the

others is what can be done alone in the future. In this study, the mediation provided by the instructor could effectively transfer to the new context (i.e., posttest), indicating why the learners performed significantly better on this test. This could transfer to even more naturalistic contexts, those in real life, and help the learners use the forms authentically and independently.

The results of this study are also in line with what Nassaji and Swain (2000) argued regarding explicit feedback: the mediation provided through giving explicit feedback works better than that provided implicitly as implicit feedback engages the learner in a good deal of mental work and cannot locate the erroneous performance precisely. The findings that emerged from this study are similar to those in Shrestha and Coffin (2012) and Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010). Shrestha and Coffin found that DA can help identify and respond to the areas that students need the most support and can contribute to the undergraduate students' academic writing development. Xiaoxiao and Yan also suggest that DA was useful in the instruction of process writing, enhancing participants' learning interest, and improving their writing competence. The finding is also in line with that of Nassaji and Swain (2000); they reported that, given Vygotsky's sociocultural stance, implicit and explicit feedback were effective in improving learners' performance in linguistic features.

6. Conclusions

In this study, in order to make assessment and instruction as inseparable components, through the process of error correction, negotiation, and interaction, learners became aware of their errors when passing through ZPD1 to ZPD5. The results can reiterate that given the sociocultural theory, what the learner is able to do with the help of the instructor is what s/he can do in the future alone. Therefore, it can be argued that DA is not as an instrument of power, but as a democratic instrument of learning. The analysis of the data revealed that the mediation of the assessor through giving explicit/implicit feedback had statically significant effect on the rule internalization. Therefore, it can be argued that DA contributes to making cognitive development in learners and helps them reach from other regulation to self-regulation. Given that this way of assessment is communicative by nature, it is assumed that it can prepare learners for the real world communication.

The findings of this study may have implications for the classroom-based teaching and assessment in that this study suggested a

new approach to the instruction and assessment of L2 writing. For instance, instructors can use the designed framework as the basis for the assessment and instruction of RCs. Further, it is suggested that DA be used as a supplementary procedure to the conventional assessment in that it has a great potential to enhance learners' writing performance in the classroom context. Instructors could also administer DA as a supplement to other forms of assessment, particularly when learners have trouble internalizing the new learning items.

Some further researches can be done regarding this study. First, considering that this research was conducted focusing on one gender, it is suggested that similar study be conducted in a coeducational context, investigating if male and female learners perform differently as far as DA is concerned. Second, with regard to one of the theories behind DA (i.e., ZPD) the role of the capable peers can be considered as a kind of mediation too. Finally, other grammatical forms can be focused based on the problems the learners might have in their essay writings.

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Appendix A. Pre/posttests Items

Relative clause for people
1. A queen ……serves as a symbol of nobility and dignity is loved by her people.
(A) Whom
(B) Which
(C) Who
(D) Whose
Relative clause for object
2. At the end of the nineteen century, Alfred Binet developed a test for measuring intelligence ……..served as the basis of modern IQ tests.
(A) has
(B) it has
(C) and
(D) which has
Relative clause with whose
3. This old book ……..author is unknown had a great influence on me.
(A) Which
(B) Who
(C) Whose
(D) whom
Relative clause with where
4. We have reached a stage …….we now have more people applying than we have space for.
(A) when
(B) where
(C) who
(D) whose
Relative clause with when
5. That was a period …….everything was fine.
(A) Which
(B) Who
(C) Where
(D) When
Relative form 1

6. Small companies may take their goods abroad for trade shows without paying foreign value-added taxes by acquiring …….an ATA carnet.
(A) A document calls
(B) A document called
(C) Calls a document
(D) Called a document

Relative form 2

7. This dictionary is suitable for translators …….to translate economic texts.
(A) wanted
(B) wanting
(C) have wanted
(D) want

Nondefining relative clause

8. The Wasatch Range, ……..... extends from southeastern Idaho into northern Utah.
(A) which is a part of the Rocky Mountains,
(B) a part of the Rocky Mountains that
(C) is a part of the Rocky Mountains
(D) a part of the Rocky Mountains, it

Participial phrase

9. Anyone ……to him once will be convinced of his innocence.
(A) talking
(B) talked
(C) having talked
(D) has talked

Nondefining participial phrase

10. My best friend, ……, became very bored with life.
(A) achieved success early in life
(B) having achieved success early in life
(C) achieving success early in life
(D) has achieved success early in life

Appendix B. Scoring Scheme

Code	Kinds of RC	Score	ZPD1	ZPD 2 (Meta language feedback)	ZPD3 (Feedback in the form of Example)	ZPD4 (Feedback in the form of Underline)	ZPD5 (Explicit feedback)	Total
1	RC for people	1						
2	RC for objects	1						
3	RC with whose	1						
4	RC with where	1						
5	RC with when	1						
6	Relative form 1	1						
7	Relative form 2	1						
8	Nondefining relative clause	1						
9	Participial phrase	1						

10	Nondefining participial phrase	1

The Interplay between EFL Teachers' Self-reflection Enhancement and Their Students' Satisfaction Level

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ABSTRACT: Over the years in EFL domain, various methods have been utilized to promote reflective practice (Rodgers, 2002). However, the concept of reflective thinking as a precursor for incorporating critical thinking has not been adequately researched (Chee Choy and San Oo, 2012).This study focuses on analyzing the impact of using digital video recording as a means of self-reflection on novice teachers' performance; it also seeks to examine the effect of this process on the level of students' satisfaction toward their teachers. Four novice teachers and 120 EFL students participated in the study. The teachers' performances in the experimental group were recorded and, were passed to them at the end of each session. Teachers were asked to write diaries and reflect on their classroom performance. To find out the students' satisfaction level two questionnaires were distributed among them before and after the study. The results of the t-test analysis showed that the students of classes with video recording tool (experimental group) were satisfied more with their teachers than those in the control group ($t = -5.33$), $p < 0.05$). The findings suggested that the video-enhanced reflection process increases teachers' awareness and affected the students' level of satisfaction as well.

Key words: Reflective teaching, Self-reflection, Critical thinking, Teacher cognition

1. Introduction

One of the important goals of teacher development programs in the post-method era is to engage teachers in a process of critical reflection upon their current teaching beliefs and practices (Richards & Ho, 2000). In the post-method era, reflective teaching is developing as a dominant paradigm in teacher development programs around the world (Richards & Ho, 2000). One major point which teachers should be concerned about

is that, the modern world of teaching moves so fast with the use of reflection though the process of reflection happens so slowly. So according to a Chinese proverb in order to go fast, sometimes you have to go slow.

The dominant and most important theory of learning during this period was the transmission view of learning; believing that knowledge and information as an external phenomenon is transferable, from theorists to teachers in teacher training courses and from teachers to learners in the classrooms. Furthermore, a constructivist view of education that later replaced this view proposed that knowledge is instrumental, that is, it is used for practical purposes and is meaningless in isolation (Williams & Burden, 1997)

These shortcomings along with the fact that no best method could be found to account for successful second/foreign language teaching, paved the way for the evolution of a new era, known as post-method era with a shift of attention from methods to teachers, their cognition, experiences, and general development. (Kumaravadivelu, 1994)

These changes have brought up a new conception of teaching. Now teaching is seen as a process of active decision making informed by teacher's cognition- the beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes about all aspects of their work which teachers hold and which have a powerful impact on teachers' classroom practices (Azjan, 2005 as cited in Cole & Weinbaum, 2007). Increasing evidence suggests that a student's learning is linked with teacher's learning i.e., staff members learn and improve their instructional practice; as a result, students benefit and show an increase in learning (York Barr et al., 2001). In other words, learning is the foundation of individual and organizational improvement (Argyris & Schon, 1974 as cited in Williams & Burden, 1997).

In every classroom, some events happen which build the foundation of the teacher's experience, and of course can be served as the basis of critical reflection if teachers find ways to gather full information about the events themselves (Richards & Lockhart, 2005). It is more important to make teachers thoughtful and alert students of education than it is to help them get immediate proficiency (Dewey, 1933). As evidence by researchers, students may not be able to think critically because their teachers are not being able to integrate critical thinking sufficiently into their daily practice as it requires a certain amount of reflection (Chee Choy and San Oo, 2012). Reflective thinking refers to the process of making informed and logical decisions, then

assessing the consequences of those decisions (Tagart and Wilson, 2005, p. 11). Reflection tasks are common in teacher education field experience and seen by many as a tool that promotes professional development. (Cohen-Sayag and Fischl, 2012)

Reflection in teaching refers generally to teacher's learning to subject their own beliefs about teaching and learning to a critical analysis and taking more responsibility for their actions (Farrell, 1999).Dewey (1933) argues that reflection comprises several steps including:

1. Doubting and feeling perplexity in relation to a given situation
2. Tentatively interpreting the possible meanings of the situation or factors involved in it and their consequences
3. Examining/exploring/analyzing all considerations that might help clarify the problem
4. Elaborating the preliminary hypotheses and
5. Deciding a plan of action.

He suggests that an effective reflection experience includes three phases of description, analysis, and action. The description phase involves teachers being able to accurately describe the situation in which they find themselves. This depends on the teacher's ability to recall what happened during their performance. The success of the analysis phase depends on the accuracy and richness of the description phase. He suggests during this phase the teacher will "think the problem out" (p. 6), trying to fit it in within their personal approach to teaching, learning, who they are and who they feel their students should be. Finally the action phase involves testing the hypotheses developed during the analysis phase.

Inquiry, questioning, and discovery are the norms that are embedded in the reflective practitioners' ways of thinking and practice. Their inquiry focuses not only on the effectiveness of their instruction, but also on the underlying assumptions, biases, doubts, uncertainties and also values that bring to the educational process. Instead of blindly accepting or rejecting new information or ideas, the reflective practitioners carefully examine, analyze, and frame them in terms of specific context variables, pervious experiences, and alignments with desired educational goals. Reflective practitioners are decision makers who develop thoughtful plans to move new understanding into action so that improvements result for learners (York-bar et al, 2001). Therefore teachers who are able to use reflective practices will themselves be more

attuned to using these strategies to help students think critically (Chee Choy and San Oo, 2012).

Simple procedures such as audio and video recordings, observation, action research, teaching journals, lesson reports, survey and questionnaire are introduced that can be used to help teachers investigate classroom teaching (Richards and Lockhart, 2005). In the past, because many of these methods required teachers to use awkward and time consuming tools, they have proven to have a minimal impact on teaching performance (Rodgers, 2002).Loughran (2002 as cited in Pedro, Abodeeb-Gentile and Courtney, 2012) mentioned that reflection can be effective if it leads the teacher to make meaning of the situation that enhance understanding. Considering the potential benefits of reflective practice, there is a need to develop more effective and efficient tools and techniques that encourages reflective teaching in our country.

Video recordings of the class, as one of the reflective means of teacher development programs, received a great amount of attention recently. Video observation has been used recently, because it provides several instructional growth and development for teachers, and involve in constructivist collaborative experiences by engaging others in conversation concerning peer, personal, and expert teaching performances as seen on video (Wright, 2008).

In addition, Dye (2007 as cited in Wright, 2008) suggested that the video also provides tools for constructing a professional knowledge base similar to what exists in the business and law domains. Also, Eisenstein, M., Feknous, B., Loyet, D., & Zimmerman, S. (2004) describe the development and implementation of a series of videotapes of ESL classes for a pre-service teacher education program grounded in experiential learning theory, which is a primary characteristic of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching). Experiential learning theory has influenced second/foreign language teaching and second language/foreign teacher education. Furthermore, it involves active learner participation, often in cooperative small groups (Nunan 1999). Video is the best tool which has got the ability for language teachers to promote experiential learning. Sherin and Van Es (2003, as cited in Wright, 2008), further define the benefits and relationship video has on teacher reflective practices by suggesting that video improves teacher's ability to notice and interpret what is happening in their classroom.

Video recording according to (Lorenzo and Ittelson, 2005, p. 2) Enables educators to: enhance their instruction, increase their educational

technology skill, self reflects on and demonstrate their teaching capabilities and facilitate systems and processes whereby teacher educators and administrators can review the work of pre-service and in-service teachers in order to provide constructive feedback to improve their practice.

Also the value of video for teacher education has been attested by several sources. In the study which has been done by Eisenstein et al. (2004), they comment that; when learners are presented with experiences, rather than conclusions, they must actively construct personal knowledge. Their learning is self-directed because they can choose what to focus on, and when finally, learning through videos emphasizes process, because the process of observation actually occurs in the class (pp. 145-6).

A study of student teachers' reflection in videotaped performance suggests that the use of video-tape supports the development of reflective practice." Video-recording of the class permit teachers to collect, review, and manipulate video to show their growth as a professional and reflective practitioner. "Video gives us an additional dimension of information about characters' body language, gesture, facial expressions, stance, response and reaction. This information can be seen more precisely in a video than when it is seen directly in the classroom because you can see it any times you need and you can go back any time you want to see it again" (Blasco, M. Fenollosa, L. Garcia, E. Sanchis, P. Tortajada L.A. Lloret, J. 2008, p. 1) .

However, until relatively recently, there seems to have been not many studies, and none in the Iranian EFL context, focusing on the relationship of using video based observation of teachers didactic practice and the students' degree of level of satisfaction. This study aims to examine the function of this reflective tool, that seems not to have been examined in previous studies, i.e. whether recording classes can function as an awareness raising tool for the novice teachers, affect their classroom instruction. In other words it attempts to study the reflective practices of the teachers and how it influences their teaching.

2. Methodology

The study led us to the use of statistical analysis of the data obtained. Statistical analysis was used in our attempt to get a more generalized understanding of the data obtained and to look for general trends (Cohen et al, 2000) among the participants.

2.1. Participants

The subjects of the study were six nonnative novice teachers between the age ranges of 22 to 27, with no more than four years of teaching experience. They were all Iranian EFL teachers who during the study were teaching English at a foreign language institute in Babolsar. Table 1 describes these subjects. All of the teachers received training on teaching in T.T.C (teacher training course) before the whole process of research was started. A total of 120 students (both male and female) between the ages 12 to 23, from 6 different classes participated in this study. The ratio of male to female subjects was not controlled. They were all students at pre-intermediate and intermediate level.

Table 1
Matrix Detailing Participant Demographics

Individual	Years Teaching	Gender	Age	Grade Taught
Teacher 1	1	F	23	Pre-Intermediate
Teacher 2	2	F	27	Intermediate
Teacher 3	1	M	22	Intermediate
Teacher 4	3	M	26	Advanced
Teacher 5	2	F	24	Pre-Intermediate
Teacher 6	3	F	23	Pre-Intermediate

The reason why novice teachers were chosen to participate in the study was that usually it is assumed that changes in beliefs and subsequently in behavior is more likely to take place in novice rather than experienced teachers, since these teachers beliefs systems are not that rigid and may change or reform more easily during a time (Borg, 2003).

2.2. Materials

2.2.1. Video recording camera

Performance analysis is a term used recently which can be defined as using and enhancing video to analyze and understand a performance. The recent technological advancements have encouraged the development of several video-based tools for teacher training (Wright, 2008). Video is an integral part of the video-based reflection process which was used in this study. The camera which was used in this study to record each class's performance was small discreet digital video-camcorders which made taping easier. The camera was located at the back of the class while the focus was more on the teacher rather than students' behavior. The camera recorded the whole class period about 90 minutes without any pause. Then these recorded films were stored digitally and it was transferred to teacher's flash memory at the end of each session. The teachers were asked to watch the recorded film, analyze them and write their comments on what they have seen.

2.2.2. Teaching diaries or journals

In the study of second and foreign language teaching diaries, the teachers recorded their impressions or perceptions about teaching (Numrich, 1996). The power of writing journals as a learning tool is perceived as mediating between existing and new knowledge, "breaking habitual ways of thinking, enhancing the development of meta-cognition, increase awareness of tacit knowledge, facilitate self-exploration and work out solutions to problems "(Kerka, 2002, p. 1). In many studies, Journal reflective writing according to Cohen-Sayag and Fischl (2012) ranges from the open and free format to the structured one, assuming that different kind of journal affect reflective levels of thinking. Furthermore, Achieving higher levels of reflective thinking are one of the major aims of reflective writing (Cohen-Sayag and Fischl 2012). This form of data collection can thus make some insight and perspective into the language teaching process that may be inaccessible from the researcher's perspective alone.

2.2.3. Questionnaire

The pre-study and post-study questionnaire had to be developed so as to compare the student's level of satisfaction before and after the study and to see whether the process of self -reflection and the uses of video – recordings help teachers to improve their instruction. The questionnaire used in this study consisted of 11 questions including items about: Teachers power to convey the message, Teachers' knowledge and

information, Teachers desire to answer students' questions, The usefulness of the topics introduced by the teacher, Making and producing motivation for participating in class discussion, Student assessment, Teachers class management, Teachers punctuality, Teachers social encounter and etc.

The second group participants of the study (students) were asked to choose one of the 7 alternatives for each question: (Weak), (weak to average), (average), (average to good), (good), (good to excellent), (excellent)

The questionnaire was conducted in Persian language for better understanding on the part of the students. The participant's responses to questions were coded accordingly from 1 to 7. To check for the validity of the questionnaire, the items were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The result of the rotated solution revealed the questionnaire was valid.

3. Procedure

In each session the whole class period, was recorded by the means of digital camera transferred to teacher's flash memory at the end of each session. The teachers were asked to watch the recorded film, analyze them and then write their comments and diaries. The present study used diary writing after watching video–recording films as one of the means for investigating the teacher's thoughts and beliefs about their instruction and performance in the classroom. The teachers were divided into two groups, two in the control group and four in experimental one. In order to accomplish the aim, the 40 (10 + 10 + 11+ 9) diaries of four teachers were examined. These diaries were written by the participants during a summer term. The teachers were asked to reflect on their teaching in each session and write about it freely in their diaries in English. The participants wrote their diaries once or twice a week and delivered them to the researcher on a weekly basis. The diaries were compares and analyzed by the researcher each session in order to find any change. Moreover, the questionnaires were handed to students before and after the study in order to find out the level of satisfaction with their respectable teachers and the classroom environment.

4. Results

The scores of the students participating in the study on 11 questions of the questionnaire were computed. A preliminary glance at the mean

scores of the experimental group, the classes with video-recording tool, and control group, the classes without video-recorded tool, showed that the experimental group gave higher scores to their teachers. Table 2 represents the results of the scores.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Questionnaire Scores of the Experimental and Control Group

	Experimental group		Control group	
	Before treatment (B. V_B. R)	After treatment (A. V_B. R)	Before thestudy	After thestudy
Mean	6.17	6.65	6.54	6.56
Std. Deviation	0.75	0.50	0.55	0.53

The results of the t-test analysis showed that the students of classes with video recording tool were more satisfied with their teachers than those in the control group ($t = -5.33$), $p < 0.05$). Table 3 presents this result:

Table 3
Independent T-test Result of the Impact of Reflection Process On the Student's Level of Satisfaction

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Df	Sig.
Control	0.08	1.28	0.39	33	0.69
Experimental	-0.47	0.78	-5.33	79	0.00

Table 4 respectively shows the quality differences between the students' ideas before and after the study in each group. As you can see and the result of the t-test showed, the range of the quality in experimental groups increased more than the control groups.

Table 4
Descriptive Tabulation for Student's Satisfaction

	Control group		Experimental group	
Options	Before	After	Before	After
Weak	4 (0/011%)	2 (0/005%)	7 (0/79%)	2 (0/22%)
Weak to Average	5 (0/013)	7 (0/019%)	7 (0/79%	0 (0)

Average	1 (0 /002%)	2(0/005%)	15 (1/70%)	7 (0/79%)
Average to Good	9 (0/025%)	4(0/011%)	28 (3/18%)	8 (0/91%)
Good	26(0/072%)	29 (0/80%)	119 (13/55%)	44(5/01%)
Good to Excellent	76 (0/211%)	80 (0/222%)	247 149(16/97%)	(28/13%)
Excellent	238 (0/662%)	235 (0/654%)	455 (51/82%)	668 (76%)
Total	359 (100%)	359 (100%)	878 (100%)	878 (100%)

As it is illustrated in the above table, the questions and the choices are ranked. “Weak” is an indicative of the lowest grade and the highest grade is specified by “Excellent” in this ranking. In fact what the result of the study and data analysis show corroborate the point that the students’ scores decreased from “weak” and increased to “excellent” steadily regarding the experimental group before and after the study. Such a result suggests that the changes in this group are progressive in nature. According to the present table, the highest percentage goes to the “excellent” grade (76%) and the lowest percentage goes to the “weak to average” grade (0%); but the same improvement is not observed in the quality of students’ opinions in the control group.

Also based on the examination of the interview data, it was found that the teachers in the study requested video based self-observation tool rather than the class being observed by the supervisor because it provides additional perspectives, thereby increasing the quantity of the things teachers notice about their teaching as Abell and Liedtka 2003, (as cited in Wright, 2008) argued, video helps teachers to focus in on key elements of teaching by providing them more examples of teaching. In the following part, statistical analysis of the results are presented in order to provide the readers a better picture of the teacher’s attitude toward video-based self-reflection process. Seventy five percent of the answers to the interview questions were positive, i.e., teachers prefer using video over the traditional existence of the supervisor in the classroom domain, and in the rest twenty five percent, they mentioned that the use of the video-recorded films were not sufficient and it had to be completed by the help of the knowledgeable supervisor. None of the teachers denied their preference to continue this trend of observation for the next term.

The careful analysis of the teachers’ diary entries revealed that the entries could be divided into two general categories, (1) the entries which the teachers described their routine decisions and (2) the entries in which their reflective decisions were described (Dewey, 1973; Schon

1987). It should also be mentioned that because of using the video camera tool the majority of teacher's diary entries contained cases of reflective rather than descriptive mode of writing.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The world of ELT (English Language Teaching) has been witnessing great vicissitudes over the last half of the century. Various attempts have been made to provide a method, to equip teachers with the necessary tools for teaching. But since individuals are unique and even more unique at the level of reflection, it has not been feasible to provide one single method which could capture all the individuals' diversities. Moreover, methods were limited and limiting since they consisted of a set of specific activities and once those activities fell out of favor, they become unfashionable. These shortcomings along with the fact that no best method could be found to account for successful second/foreign language teaching, paved the way for the evolution of a new era, known as post-method era with a shift of attention from methods to teachers, their cognition, experiences, and general development. (Kumaravadivelu, 1994.

As a matter of fact, the post method era reconstructs the connection between theorizers as producers and teachers as consumers. Enlightened from the experiences of the method era, teachers knew that no best method accounts for different needs and demands of language learners all over the world. They found that the solution to language teaching problems does not lie in the courses offered in teacher training courses of the external world; actually it should be sought in the internal world of a teacher's knowledge, skills and awareness. "So empowered, teachers could devise for themselves a systematic coherent alternative to method". (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 27).

By taking advantage of video-recordings, teachers might achieve a higher level of awareness of how they teach, the kinds of decisions they do as they teach, and of the value and consequences of particular instructional decisions. "Video observation of teachers can be thought of as capturing, viewing, and reviewing a particular performance with the purpose of training, observing, evaluating and assessing."(Wright, 2008, p. 26). Lorenzo and Ittelson (2005) further mentioned that: video-recording, allows the teacher to observe his own action and the perception that students have of him, thus being able to reflect on his way to give the lecture.

The literature of using video-recording tool as a means of a reflective practice revealed several functions of this practice in the process of teacher reflection and development such as providing the teachers a sound opportunity to record their teaching instruction, and to reflect consciously on different aspects of their teaching practice. It also helps teachers to construct personal knowledge about gesture, facial expressions, stance, response and reaction (Blasco et al., 2008). Video-recordings assist teachers to think about significant aspects of the lesson or school events; it also helps educators to enhance their instruction, to increase educational technology skill, to self-reflect and facilitate the process of reviewing (Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2005). In the present study, it was attempted to examine the function of using video-recording based self-reflection, which was done probably for the first time in Iran, on the development of a teacher's practice and to see whether it had any influence on the level of students' satisfaction with their teachers. The analysis of the data revealed that the majority of the diary entries written by the teachers in their recorded classrooms were reflective in nature. The results showed that the teachers' classes with video recording tool were more satisfactory to their students than other classes without a video camera. The comparison confirmed that the teachers' rating scores were increased with the help of video as a means of self-reflection in comparison to the previous semester in which such was not present. And the teachers in the study requested video based self-observation tool rather than the class being observed by the supervisor.

This study attempted to open a new perspective for administrators and institute managers, that just having a supervisor in classroom for checking and observing the teacher is not sufficient since, in the context of our country, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, teachers often dread formal observations. Whether the evaluations are conducted by peers or administrators, bias has the potential to invalidate the results. An evaluator may impose his own beliefs about teaching of the teacher being observed. He may not personally like the teacher or may have unconscious biases related to the teacher's age, gender or ethnic or economic background. If an evaluator is friends with the teacher, this may be reflected in the evaluation as well. Furthermore, many teachers become nervous when being observed and their performance may suffer. If the evaluator is an administrator, student behavior may also change, as they will not want to suffer the consequences of misbehaving in front of that individual. The result of these observations can often be distorted

data. Therefore Reflective teaching can be considered as a way to critically improve teachers' instruction.

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An Investigation into the Semantic Opaqueness of English Euphemisms from the Perspective of Cooperative and Politeness Principles

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ABSTRACT: This study intended to probe into the semantic opaqueness of English euphemisms from the perspective of Grice's cooperative principle and Leech's politeness principle. The main aim was to investigate which maxims of CP and PP are flouted most and least during the use of euphemisms and direct expressions. For this purpose, data from 100 graduates of Translation Studies and TEFL on 60 bipartite English direct and euphemistic expressions were collected and analyzed. Considering the rate of flouting of the CP maxims in euphemisms, the manner maxim ranked first and the quantity maxim ranked last; and in the case of the PP maxims in direct expressions, the tact maxim ranked first and the generosity maxim ranked last. Still, concerning semantic opaqueness of euphemisms, the supremacy of flouting of the manner maxim revealed that interlocutors did frequently flout the CP maxims to avoid embarrassing issues and it supported the idea that EFL learners' recognition of English euphemisms could characterize the semantic opaqueness of euphemisms. The findings were hoped to be of use in uncovering the implications of English euphemisms in pedagogy and translation.

Key words: Cooperative principle, Euphemism, Maxim, Politeness principle, Semantic opaqueness

1. Introduction

It is almost obvious that in every culture there are a fair number of words labeled as frivolous, vulgar, or uncaring. Also, there are certain things that are not supposed to be mentioned directly. Such roundabout type of language is known as euphemism in linguistics, which comes in a variety of forms and is used for a variety of reasons.

According to Kenworthy (1991), the word euphemism "is taken

from Greek and means good speech" (p. 20). Also, Abrams (1999) holds that "euphemisms are devices to replace unpleasant words or expressions by conventionally more acceptable ones" (p. 83). Besides, Thomas (1989) believes that "euphemism can be figuratively called 'a whitewashing device' which is a mirror of morality, customs, lifestyle, and social psychology in everyday life" (p. 103).

The relationship between euphemism and culture is also largely noticeable. Euphemism, as a cultural-linguistic product, displays its multiple mapping relations with culture (Rawson, 1995). Likewise, as a social tool, it is widely used to show courtesy; to help to fit to the proper context; and to express the ideas more politely (Allan & Burridge, 2007). Meanwhile, conducting investigations into the euphemisms in view of the pedagogical and socio-pragmatic implications can be noteworthy, as at the educational level, learning euphemisms well means more than merely mastering the pronunciation, words, and grammar (Alkire, 2002). In the same vein, learning euphemisms could mean learning to see the world as the native speakers of language see and understand it (Allan and Burridge, 1991).

In brief, though euphemism can be defined from varied perspectives (Allan & Burridge, 1991, 2007; Rawson, 1995; Alkire, 2002), the definitions share some features, as follows:

1. Euphemism is a kind of polite, roundabout, and gracious mode of expression.
2. Euphemism is used to mitigate the unpleasantness of reality.
3. The main purpose of euphemism is to shun directly speaking out the unpleasant or taboo reference like death, illnesses, and the supernatural.

1.1. Chronological aspects in the study of euphemisms

In a valuable legacy, Mencken (1936) explained why hundreds of euphemisms were born and popularized based on the historical and sociocultural backgrounds. Besides, Enright (1985) put forward a collection of essays providing clues for a comprehensive study on English euphemisms in various fields. Later on, Dingfang (1989) expanded the study scope of euphemisms and proposed distant, relevant, sweet-sounding, and self-defending principles. Alternatively, Allan and Burridge (1991) studied euphemisms from a pragmatic perspective, assuming that a perspective on the human psyche was gained from euphemisms as a protective shield against the disapproval of natural

beings. On the other hand, Hodge and Kress (1993) investigated the dichotomy of 'euphemistic' and 'derogatory' and claimed it as one of the very effective techniques in naturalization of ideologies. More to the point, Rawson (1995) widely accounted for the characteristics, definition, classification, and scope of euphemisms. Also, Holder (1995) in the study of euphemisms endeavored to unmask the language of deceit and highlighted human tendency to use roundabout terms in preference to bluntly accurate words.

At the chime of the 21st century, Hong-hui (2000) indicated that euphemistic wording can meet the requirements and accomplish the communicative task. Alternatively, vanDijk (2004) resorted to social, cognitive and discourse analysis of the text to uncover ideology in discourse, and used 'euphemism' to elucidate 'positive self-representation' and 'negative other-representation'. Also, Ham (2005) studied euphemism formation by extracting examples from Austen's *Emma*, Lawrence's *Lady Chatterly's Lover*, and Walker's *Well Groomed*. Then, the rules by Warren (1992)'s model of classification were tested against euphemisms which transpired that improvements were required to account for deconstructing euphemisms.

In a more recent study, Jangjorn (2004) investigated the Internet users' techniques in avoiding impolite words on the Web boards, the most common ways of which were shown to be pausing, changing letters, clipping, spelling, employing loanwords, and using metaphors. Alternatively, Fernandez (2006) examined the euphemistic language on obituary pages from the 19th century, the results of which indicated a tendency to present sentimental obituaries in which the taboo of death could be accounted for by various conceptual metaphors. At the same time, Rahimi and Sahragard (2006) took vanDijk's framework in the analysis of euphemisms and investigated the discursive structures which lead to ideologically based prejudiced statements in emails addressing the death of the late Pope, John Paul II.

More recently, Hai-Long (2008) paid particular attention to the relationship between cross-cultural communication and euphemisms as well as the necessity of teaching euphemisms and argued that there were not enough instances of euphemisms in EFL textbooks and materials. In the same vein, Mirza Suzani (2009) paid attention to the translation of euphemism addressing issues of background, classification, and semantic equivalence, based on which euphemism study was not restricted to the lexicon, but extended to the level of sentence and discourse.

1.2. From cooperative principle to politeness principle

Grice (1975) considered verbal exchanges as oriented to a set of purposes, for achieving which the participants should cooperate with each other. Also, he described cooperative principle as "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (1989, pp. 26-27). For further explanation of the CP, he proposed four maxims as follows:

A. Maxim of Quantity: Give the right amount of information.
   a. Make your contribution as informative as is required;
   b. Do not make your contribution more informative as is required.
B. Maxim of Quality: Try to make your contribution one that is true.
   a. Do not say what you believe to be false;
   b. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
C. Maxim of Relation: Be relevant.
D. Maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous and specific.
   a. Avoid obscurity of expression;
   b. Avoid ambiguity;
   c. Be brief;
   d. Be orderly.

For the most part, the CP accounted for the relationship between the literal and actual meanings, but it could not explain why people violate the maxims so as to express themselves in an indirect way, so Leech (1983) proposed the PP from the pragmatic viewpoint based on which it was justified why speakers resort to such oblique methods as, for example, instead of saying tersely "Give me a light." they say "Could you give me a light?" He connected illocutionary acts with politeness in the verbal exchange wherein to be polite means to be tactful, modest and nice to others and the more indirect the illocution, the more polite it should be reevaluated. Leech's proposal of the PP (1983) included a set of maxims to go in pairs as follows:

A. Tact Maxim
   a. Minimize cost to other;
   b. Maximize cost for self.
B. Generosity Maxim
   a. Minimize benefit to self;
   b. Maximize praise of other.

C. Approbation Maxim
   a. Minimize dispraise of other;
   b. Maximize praise of other.
D. Modesty Maxim
   a. Minimize praise of self;
   b. Maximize dispraise.
E. Agreement Maxim
   a. Minimize disagreement between self and other;
   b. Maximize agreement between self and other.
F. Sympathy Maxim
   a. Minimize antipathy between self and other;
   b. Maximize sympathy between self and other.

1.3. Objectives of the study

Considering the semantic facet of euphemisms, a potential threat to the learners could be that they might be unenlightened about the implications of the shades of meanings of euphemisms when they are exposed to them, or when they are recognizing or producing discourse. This may be mainly due to an important feature of euphemisms called semantic opaqueness (or no compositionality) defined by Moon (1997) as "the degree to which a multiple-word item cannot be interpreted on a word-by-word basis, but has a specialized unitary meaning" (p. 44). Therefore, this study primarily aimed to probe into the semantic opaqueness as a part of the pragmatic function of euphemisms in English and investigate this feature through the maxims of CP and PP. It was also aimed to examine which maxims of CP and PP might be flouted most and least via the use of euphemisms and direct expressions. The results could provide the readers with a lucid idea about the euphemisms and direct expressions while flouting the CP and PP maxims, and hence, pave the way for further studies at discoursal and socio-pragmatic levels.

1.4. Research questions

In this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Do EFL learners observe or flout the maxims of CP while using social euphemisms in English?
2. To what extent do EFL learners observe or flout the maxims of CP while using social euphemisms in English?
3. Do EFL learners observe or flout the maxims of PP while using direct (non-euphemistic) expressions in English?

4. To what extent do EFL learners observe or flout the maxims of PP while using direct (non-euphemistic) expressions in English?
5. Which maxims of CP and PP are flouted most and least by Iranian Translation and TEFL learners?
6. Does Iranian learners' recognition of English euphemisms characterize the semantic opaqueness of social euphemisms in English?

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Following a quantitative research design, the data were collected from 100 participants ranging between 23 to 35 years of age in 2012. They comprised 68 M.A. Iranian students of Translation and 32 M.A. and Ph.D. students of TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch and Fars Science and Research Branch. The nonrandom purposive selection of participants from the graduate programs was based on the assumption that in comparison with undergraduates, they should hold and carry higher experiences and analytic abilities in their judgment, as well as detailed familiarity with linguistic and pedagogical issues. It was also expected that participants from the graduate programs could develop their potential insights into more effective procedures related to the recognition and appreciation of euphemisms.

2.2. Materials

In this research, instances of euphemistic expressions were taken from *Rawson's Dictionary of Euphemisms and Other Double talks* (1995), and Allan and Burridge's *Euphemism and Dysphemism* (1991). Likewise, Leech's maxims of PP (1983) in *Principles of Pragmatics* and Grice's maxims of CP (1975) in Logic and Conversation were employed as the frameworks for developing the questionnaire items. Also, some online data banks and relevant Internet sites were used, and for analyzing the data the SPSS software was employed.

2.3. Instruments

A questionnaire containing 60 paired items on euphemisms and direct expressions in view of the CP and PP maxims was designed and validated under the supervision of experts in the field (See Appendix 1). To improve the quality of the data, it was exceedingly attempted that the relevancy and clarity of the questions be taken into account. In the same

vein, to demonstrate the internal consistency of the items, the Cronbach's alpha reliability was calculated which yielded a reliability estimate of 0.86 for the questionnaire that was statistically satisfactory regarding the purpose of the study.

2.4. Data collection procedures and data analysis

To collect the data, a questionnaire comprising an inventory of 60 bipartite questions on English direct expressions and their counterparts in euphemisms together with the maxims of PP and CP was employed. The participants were put in a relaxing atmosphere and the necessary instructions on the items of questionnaire were given. The participants' options were based on their recognition of the observance or flouting of the six-fold maxims of PP and four-fold maxims of CP, respectively. They were required to decide on the matter of the observance or flouting of each expression, and tick one or more of the options in front of the respective item. Next, the participants' opinions were collected to investigate the mindset of the graduates about English euphemisms and direct expressions in view of the observance or nonobservance of the CP and PP maxims. The data gathered were sorted out and categorized and the results were analyzed.

3. Findings, Results and Discussion

3.1. Data analysis

Chi-square test was run to examine the significance of the differences between the frequencies of the *observance* or *flouting* of the multiple maxims of CP and PP.

3.1.1. Observance and flouting of the maxims of CP

Concerning the first two research questions, Chi-square was used to examine the significance of the differences between the frequencies of the *observance* or *flouting* of the maxims of CP. Thus, the observed frequencies of the *observance* and *flouting* of the maxims of CP together with the expected values of the *observance* and *flouting* of the maxims were given. Also, the modified values, based on the correction factor proposed by Hatch and Farhady (1981), were calculated and provided to the different frequencies. Then the χ^2 value obtained for each participant was compared with the critical value to decide if the null hypothesis could be rejected. In Table 1, χ^2 and the results of the observance and flouting of the CP maxims are represented:

Table1
Chi-square on the Obsrvance and Flouting of the CP Maxims for Each Individual Participants

Participant No.	Freq. of CP Maxims Observed (OUT OF 60)	Value (Modified) Based on Correction factor	Value (Expected)	Freq. of CP Maxims Flouted (OUT OF 60)	Value (Modified) Based on Correction factor	Value (Expected)	χ^2 (Obtained)	χ^2 (Critical) P=0.05	Result (Null Hypothesis)
	OBS	+/-0.5	*N/2*	FLT	+/-0.5	*N/2*		*df=1*	+/-
1	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
2	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
3	5	5.5	30	55	54.5	30	40.01	3.84	-
4	28	28.5	30	32	31.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
5	37	36.5	30	23	23.5	30	2.81	3.84	+
6	32	31.5	30	28	28.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
7	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
8	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
9	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
10	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
11	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
12	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
13	4	4.5	30	56	55.5	30	43.35	3.84	-
14	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
15	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
16	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
17	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
18	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
19	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
20	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
21	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
22	4	4.5	30	56	55.5	30	43.35	3.84	-
23	27	27.5	30	33	32.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
24	35	34.5	30	25	25.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
25	27	27.5	30	33	32.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
26	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
27	37	36.5	30	23	23.5	30	2.81	3.84	+
28	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
29	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
30	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
31	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
32	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
33	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-

34	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
35	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
36	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
37	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
38	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
39	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
40	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
41	29	29.5	30	31	30.5	30	0.01	3.84	+
42	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
43	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
44	36	35.5	30	24	24.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
45	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
46	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
47	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
48	6	6.5	30	54	53.5	30	36.81	3.84	-
49	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
50	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
51	32	31.5	30	28	28.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
52	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
53	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
54	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
55	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
56	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
57	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
58	5	5.5	30	55	54.5	30	40.01	3.84	-
59	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
60	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
61	6	6.5	30	54	53.5	30	36.81	3.84	-
62	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
63	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
64	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
65	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
66	4	4.5	30	56	55.5	30	43.35	3.84	-
67	28	28.5	30	32	31.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
68	35	34.5	30	25	25.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
69	26	26.5	30	34	33.5	30	0.81	3.84	+
70	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
71	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
72	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
73	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
74	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
75	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
76	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
77	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
78	18	18.5	30	42	41.5	30	8.81	3.84	-
79	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
80	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
81	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
82	6	6.5	30	54	53.5	30	36.81	3.84	-
83	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-

84	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
85	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
86	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
87	28	28.5	30	32	31.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
88	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
90	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
91	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
92	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
93	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
94	22	22.5	30	38	37.5	30	3.75	3.84	+
95	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
96	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
97	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
98	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
99	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
100	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
Total	1260	1259.5	3000	4740	4739.5	3000	2017.24	3.84	-

Since the critical value of χ^2 with 1 *d.f.* is 3.84 for the 0.05 level, so we can feel fairly confident that the null hypothesis claiming that the individuals may not observe or flout the maxims of CP is rejected. In other words, since there is a significant difference between participants in terms of their positions regarding observance and flouting of the CP maxims the data support the idea that the individuals may observe or flout the maxims of CP in specific occasions. To put it another way, in 81 cases out of 100 cases (i.e., 81%) the individuals held that the maxims of CP are either observed or flouted, and as a result, the difference between frequencies of observance and flouting appeared to be significant (since in 81% of the cases calculated, the value of Chi-square at the probability level of 0.05 was larger than the critical value). Alternatively, only in 19% of the cases the value of Chi-square at the probability level of 0.05 was smaller than the critical value. In Table 2, Chi-square and total frequency for observance and flouting of the CP maxims are illustrated:

Table 2
Chi-square and Total Frequency for Observance and Flouting of the CP Maxims

	Observed *f*	Expected *f*	*O-E*	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2/E$
Maxim Observance	1260	3000	-1740	$(1260-3000)^2$	$(1260-3000)^2/3000$
Maxim Flouting	4740	3000	1740	$(1740-3000)^2$	$(1740-3000)^2/3000$
					2017.24

Considering χ^2 in Table 2, the null hypothesis in a chi-square goodness-of-fit test states that the sample of observed frequencies supports the claim about the expected frequencies, so the bigger the calculated chi-square value is, the more likely the sample does not conform to the expected frequencies, and therefore we would reject the null hypothesis. Also, it could mean the data may deviate a large amount from the model or from what we thought. To verify the results obtained, the SPSS was employed to calculate the Chi-square for total frequencies, considering the number and opinion of the participants. The results are illustrated in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3
Chi-square Table from the Output (Number and Opinion)

		Opinion		Total
		1(OBS)	2(FLT)	
Number	1260.00	1260	0	1260
	4740.00	0	4740	4740
Total		1260	4740	6000

Table 4
Chi-Square Results for Number and Opinion

	Value	df	Asymp Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6000.000[a]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction[b]	5993.974	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	6167.480	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	6000				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 264.60.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

In Table 4, as P<.05, we can feel confident that the null hypothesis claiming that the individuals may not observe or flout the maxims of CP is rejected since the difference between frequencies of observance and flouting appears to be significant.

3.1.2. Observance and flouting of the maxims of PP

With regard to the third and fourth research questions, Chi-square was used to examine the significance of the differences between the frequencies of the *observance* or *flouting* of the multiple maxims of PP. For this purpose, the observed frequencies of the *observance* and *flouting* of the maxims together with the expected values of the *observance* and *flouting* of the same maxims were provided. Also, the modified values were calculated and provided to the different frequencies. Then the χ^2 value obtained for each participant was compared with the critical χ^2 to decide if the null hypothesis could be rejected. Chi-square and the results of the data on the obsrvance and flouting of the PP Maxims for each participant are illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5
Chi-square and the Results of the Data on the Obsrvance and Flouting of the PP Maxims for Each Individual Participant

Participant No.	Freq. of PP Maxims Observed (OUT OF 60)	Value (Modified) Based on Correction factor	Value (Expected)	Freq. of PP Maxims Flouted (OUT OF 60)	Value (Modified) Based on Correction factor	Value (Expected)	χ^2 (Obtained)	χ^2 (Critical) P=0.05	Result (Null Hypothesis)
	OBS	+/-0.5	*N/2*	FLT	+/-0.5	*N/2*		*df=1*	+/-
1	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
2	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
3	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
4	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
5	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
6	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
7	31	30.5	30	29	29.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
8	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
9	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
10	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-

11	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
12	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
13	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
14	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
15	51	50.5	30	9	9.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
16	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
17	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
18	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
19	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
20	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
21	26	26.5	30	34	33.5	30	0.81	3.84	+
22	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
23	36	35.5	30	24	24.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
24	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
25	36	35.5	30	24	24.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
26	52	51.5	30	8	8.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
27	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
28	48	47.5	30	12	12.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
29	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
30	48	47.5	30	12	12.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
31	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
32	3	3.5	30	57	46.5	30	46.81	3.84	-
33	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
34	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
35	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
36	26	26.5	30	34	33.5	30	0.81	3.84	+
37	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
38	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
39	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
40	3	3.5	30	57	46.5	30	46.81	3.84	-
41	33	32.5	30	27	27.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
42	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
43	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
44	18	18.5	30	42	41.5	30	8.81	3.84	-
45	27	27.5	30	33	32.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
46	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
47	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
48	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
49	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
50	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
51	7	7.5	30	53	52.5	30	33.75	3.84	-
52	30	30	30	30	30	30	0.00	3.84	+
53	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
54	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
55	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
56	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
57	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
58	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
59	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
60	50	49.5	30	10	10.5	30	25.35	3.84	-

61	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
62	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
63	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
64	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
65	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
66	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
67	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
68	35	34.5	30	25	25.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
69	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
70	35	34.5	30	25	25.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
71	51	50.5	30	9	9.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
72	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
73	46	45.5	30	14	14.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
74	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
75	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
76	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
77	23	23.5	30	37	36.5	30	2.81	3.84	+
78	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
79	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
80	3	3.5	30	57	46.5	30	46.81	3.84	-
81	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
82	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
83	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
84	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
85	27	27.5	30	33	32.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
86	18	18.5	30	42	41.5	30	8.81	3.84	-
87	0	05	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
88	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
90	33	32.5	30	27	27.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
91	3	3.5	30	57	46.5	30	46.81	3.84	-
92	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
93	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
94	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
95	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
96	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
97	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
98	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
99	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
100	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
Total	1500	1499.5	3000	4500	4499.5	3000	1499.00	3.84	-

As the critical value of χ^2 with 1 *d.f.* is 3.84 for the 0.05 level, so we can feel fairly confident that the null hypothesis claiming that the individuals may not observe or flout the PP maxims is most recurrently rejected. In other words, since there is significant difference between participants' options regarding observance and flouting of the PP

maxims, it supported the idea that individuals may observe or flout the PP maxims in some specific occasions. To put it another way, in 75 cases out of 100 cases (i.e., 75%) the participants held that the PP maxims are either observed or flouted, and hence, the difference between frequencies of observance and flouting appeared to be significant (since in 75% of the cases calculated, the value of χ^2at the probability level of 0.05 was larger than critical value. In Table 6, Chi-square and total frequency for observance and flouting of the PP maxims are illustrated:

Table 6
Chi-square and Total Frequency for Observance and Flouting of the PP Maxims

	Observed *f*	Expected *f*	*O-E*	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2/E$
Maxim Observance	1500	3000	-1500	$(1500-3000)^2$	$(1500-3000)^2/3000$
Maxim Flouting	4500	3000	1500	$(4500-3000)^2$	$(4500-3000)^2/3000$
					1499.00

Considering χ^2 in Table 6, as the null hypothesis in a chi-square goodness-of-fit test states that the sample of observed frequencies supports the claim about the expected frequencies, so the bigger the calculated chi-square value is, the more likely the sample does not conform to the expected frequencies, and, hence we would reject the null hypothesis. Alternatively, it could mean the data deviate a large amount from the model or from what we thought. To verify the results, the SPSS was employed to calculate χ^2 for total frequencies, considering the number and opinion of the participants. The results are illustrated in Table 7 and Table 8.

Table 7
Chi-square Table from the Output (Number and Opinion)

		Opinion		
		1	2	Total
Number	1500.00	1500	0	1500
	4500.00	0	4500	4500
Total		1500	4500	6000

Table 8
Chi-Square Results for Number and Opinion

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6000.000[a]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction[b]	5994.668	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	6748.022	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	6000				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 375.00.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

In Table 8, as P<.05, we can feel confident that the null hypothesis claiming that the individuals may not observe or flout the maxims of PP is rejected since the difference between the frequencies of observance and flouting appears to be significant.

3.1.3. Flouting of the maxims of CP

In regard with the last two research questions, particular attention was paid to the maxim of *manner* as it could be an illuminating factor in revealing the semantic opaqueness of euphemistic expressions. Likewise, due to the lack of mutual exclusivity in the participants' options as well as the existence of some overlaps in their options of flouting of the CP maxims, the application of Chi-square test was practically impossible that will be discussed later. Table 9 represents participants' comprehensive profile on the frequency of the flouting of the maxims of CP:

Table 9
Participants' Comprehensive Profile on the Frequency of the Flouting of the Maxims of CP

Participant No.	Freq. of *the Type(s)* of CP Maxims Flouted (OUT OF 60)				Result
	Quality (Ql)	Quantity (Qt)	Relation (R)	Manner (M)	
1	9	8	2	42	M>Ql>Qt>R
2	13	4	3	42	M>Ql>Qt>R
3	7	17	12	34	M>Qt>R>Ql
4	9	2	9	24	M>Ql=R>Qt
5	8	0	1	19	M>Ql>R>Qt
6	1	1	1	27	M>Ql=Qt=R

7	11	17	15	33	M>Qt>R>Ql
8	16	9	10	14	Ql>M>R>Qt
9	9	22	11	3	Qt>R>Ql>M
10	10	1	8	31	M>Ql>R>Qt
11	17	11	16	3	Ql>R>Qt>M
12	13	10	7	12	Ql>M>Qt>R
13	19	16	11	22	M>Ql>Qt>R
14	20	9	8	15	Ql>M>Qt>R
15	9	1	2	28	M>Ql>R>Qt
16	11	6	9	18	M>Ql>R>Qt
17	15	13	16	24	M>R>Ql>Qt
18	14	13	16	24	M>R>Ql>Qt
19	14	13	16	23	M>R>Ql>Qt
20	6	11	15	17	M>R>Qt>Ql
21	7	11	15	16	M>R>Qt>Ql
22	2	20	24	17	R>Qt>M>Ql
23	28	1	11	26	Ql>M>R>Qt
24	6	11	12	4	R>Qt>Ql>M
25	27	2	11	26	Ql>M>R>Qt
26	9	1	1	28	M>Ql>Qt=R
27	6	0	0	14	M>Ql>Qt=R
28	8	3	3	29	M>Ql>Qt=R
29	9	7	14	15	M>R>Ql>Qt
30	10	2	1	25	M>Ql>Qt>R
31	18	7	28	22	R>M>Ql>Qt
32	19	5	44	23	R>M>Ql>Qt
33	21	3	10	25	M>Ql>R>Qt
34	16	0	10	21	M>Ql>R>Qt
35	13	9	25	14	R>M>Ql>Qt
36	8	12	13	16	M>R>Qt>Ql
37	13	5	6	33	M>Ql>R>Qt
38	24	18	21	3	Ql>R>Qt>M
39	20	9	4	15	Ql>M>Qt>R
40	6	4	5	23	M>Ql>R>Qt
41	10	3	4	21	M>Ql>R>Qt
42	14	7	9	28	M>Ql>R>Qt
43	13	8	12	27	M>Ql>R>Qt
44	10	14	12	19	M>Qt>R>Ql
45	27	2	9	22	Ql>M>R>Qt
46	8	8	4	40	M>Ql=Qt>R
47	12	5	4	41	M>Ql>Qt>R
48	8	19	11	32	M>Qt>R>Ql
49	8	4	9	22	M>R>Ql>Qt
50	16	9	10	15	Ql>M>R>Qt
51	2	2	1	25	M>Ql=Qt>R
52	11	17	15	32	M>Qt>R>Ql
53	9	11	14	22	M>R>Qt>Ql
54	10	1	11	38	M>R>Ql>Qt
55	16	17	11	3	Qt>Ql>R>M
56	13	11	7	16	M>Ql>Qt>R

57	20	9	8	16	Ql>M>Qt>R
58	19	16	12	23	M>Ql>Qt>R
59	9	9	1	29	M>Ql=Qt>R
60	8	9	11	19	M>R>Qt>Ql
61	16	14	16	24	M>R=Ql>Qt
62	16	13	16	22	M>Ql>R>Qt
63	14	8	11	23	M>Ql>R>Qt
64	7	11	15	17	M>R>Qt>Ql
65	8	13	16	19	M>R>Qt>Ql
66	2	19	28	14	R>M>Qt>Ql
67	27	1	12	28	M>Ql>R>Qt
68	6	11	12	5	R>Qt>Ql>M
69	27	2	11	19	Ql>M>R>Qt
70	12	11	9	5	Ql>Qt>R>M
71	9	1	1	28	M>Ql>R=Qt
72	12	14	0	24	M>Qt>Ql>R
73	8	3	3	29	M>Ql>R=Qt
74	9	7	14	15	M>R>Ql>Qt
75	1	2	12	25	M>R>Qt>Ql
76	18	8	22	27	M>R>Ql>Qt
77	19	5	22	42	M>Ql>R>Qt
78	21	3	10	26	M>Ql>R>Qt
79	16	0	10	22	M>Ql>R>Qt
80	13	5	18	23	M>R>Ql>Qt
81	8	5	10	22	M>R>Ql>Qt
82	7	19	12	30	M>Qt>R>Ql
83	12	5	4	33	M>Ql>Qt>R
84	8	8	15	40	M>R>Ql=Qt
85	22	9	19	27	M>Ql> R>Qt
86	15	8	9	28	M>Ql> R>Qt
87	10	3	8	19	M>Ql>R>Qt
88	16	0	10	22	M>Ql>R>Qt
90	18	7	22	26	M>R>Ql>Qt
91	18	5	44	23	R>M>Ql>Qt
92	3	10	21	25	M>R>Qt>Ql
93	12	11	18	21	M>R>Ql>Qt
94	2	0	19	18	R>M>Ql>Qt
95	16	11	18	15	R>Ql>M>Qt
96	15	10	21	24	M>R>Ql>Qt
97	18	9	15	18	M=Ql>R>Qt
98	13	10	17	16	M>R>Ql>Qt
99	9	11	22	35	M>R>Qt>Ql
100	1	6	9	24	M>R>Qt>Ql
Total	1347	792	1193	2198	M>Ql>R>Qt

Based on the assumptions of χ^2 procedure, all the categories have to be considered mutually exclusive; that is, each observation could

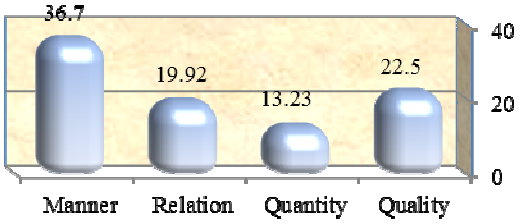
appear in one and only one of the categories in the table. For example, one participant could not concurrently give both a *Manner* and *Quality* answer for the CP maxims in the questionnaire survey. Nevertheless, as many participants had selected two or more of the categories simultaneously, this condition made it impossible to go on with the χ^2 procedure. Therefore, it was decided to analyze the data simply based on the descriptive statistics, as shown in Table 10 below.

Table 10
Descriptive Statistics of the Flouting of the Maxims of CP

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Number	5530	792	2198	1572.53	535.036
Valid N (listwise)	5530				

The minimum occurrence of the flouting of the CP maxims is 792, which belongs to the quantity maxim, whereas the maximum occurrence is 2198, which belongs to the manner maxim. Figure 1, shows CP maxims and the percentage of the frequencies of flouting for each maxim.

Figure 1
CP Maxims and Percentage of the Frequencies of Flouting



As shown above, the manner maxim ranks first in terms of flouting of the CP maxims, and 36.7% of the cases of flouting of the CP maxims allocate to this maxim. On the other hand, the quantity maxim with 13.23% ranks last among other maxims of CP. Also, it is noteworthy that due to Grice's (1975) four categories overlapping with each other, euphemisms may flout more than one maxim of the CP simultaneously, so when, say, the quantity maxim is flouted, the expression will be unclear by providing less or more information, and hence, the manner maxim is flouted immediately. From this view, almost

all the examples cited above primarily flout the manner maxim when they are placed under the flouting of other maxims**.**

3.1.4. Flouting of the PP maxims

Table 11 represents a comprehensive profile on the frequency of the flouting of the PP maxims.

Table 11
Participants' Comprehensive Profile on the Frequency of the Flouting of the Maxims of PP

Participant No.	Freq. of *the Type(s)* of PP Maxims Flouted (OUT OF 60)						Result
	Tact (T)	Generosity (G)	Sympathy (S)	Modesty (M)	Agreement (Ag)	Approbation (Ap)	
1	23	0	9	1	4	25	Ap>T>S>Ag>M>G
2	23	0	9	1	4	24	Ap>T>S>Ag>M>G
3	5	1	5	2	1	28	Ap>T=S>M>Ag=G
4	20	4	14	1	6	23	Ap>T>S>Ag>G>M
5	19	2	6	8	5	21	Ap>T>M>S>Ag>G
6	45	1	24	1	11	50	Ap>T>S>Ag>M=G
7	16	0	8	5	5	12	T>Ap>S>M=Ag>G
8	21	6	13	6	13	8	T>S=Ag>Ap>G=M
9	8	10	24	21	8	3	S>M>G>T=Ag>Ap
10	15	7	12	10	16	6	Ag>T>S>M>G>Ap
11	7	13	7	9	12	1	G>Ag>M>T=S>Ap
12	11	8	7	1	3	8	T>G=Ap>S>Ag>M
13	37	23	17	20	7	12	T>G>M>S>Ap>Ag
14	20	9	12	9	4	10	T>S>Ap>G=M>Ag
15	1	0	0	1	2	6	Ap>Ag>M=T>G=S
16	21	7	20	9	10	10	T>S>Ag=Ap>M>G
17	24	8	21	10	9	14	T>S>Ap>M>Ag>G
18	24	7	22	10	10	14	T>S>Ap>M=Ag>G
19	23	7	17	13	10	11	T>S>M>Ap>Ag>G
20	7	7	4	7	8	2	Ag>T=G=M>S>Ap
21	7	6	4	7	8	2	Ag>T=M>G>S>Ap
22	46	5	22	23	37	37	T>Ag=Ap>M>S>G
23	22	2	3	2	1	14	T>Ap>S>G=M>Ag
24	21	37	37	47	37	37	M>G=S=Ag=Ap>T
25	20	2	3	2	1	14	T>Ap>S>G=M>Ag
26	0	0	0	1	1	6	Ap>M=Ag>T=G=S
27	33	0	1	1	1	2	T>Ap>S=M=Ag>G
28	1	0	0	3	1	8	Ap>M>T=Ag>G=S
29	6	7	10	5	8	3	S>Ag>G>T>M>Ap
30	0	0	0	1	1	8	Ap>M=Ag>T=G=S
31	46	3	16	17	7	2	T>M>S>Ag>G>Ap

32	53	0	10	9	1	4	T>S>M>Ap>Ag>G
33	16	3	8	5	4	14	T>Ap>S>M>Ag>G
34	29	2	4	2	4	10	T>Ap>S=Ag>G=M
35	38	15	5	7	0	1	T>G>M>S>Ap>Ag
36	7	4	6	5	6	2	T>S=Ag>M>G>Ap
37	56	15	6	4	11	11	T>G>Ag=Ap>S>M
38	9	20	9	13	14	5	G>Ag>M>T=S>Ap
39	16	9	12	9	5	10	T>S>Ap>G=M>Ag
40	23	0	7	10	3	23	T=Ap>M>S>Ag>G
41	3	4	12	5	1	7	S>Ap>M>G>T>Ag
42	40	0	8	2	5	5	T>S>Ag=Ap>M>G
43	38	0	7	3	6	6	T>S>Ag=Ap>M>G
44	29	12	30	31	5	22	M>S>T>Ap>G>Ag
45	19	2	26	0	3	15	S>T>Ap>Ag>G>M
46	22	0	8	0	3	24	Ap>T>S>Ag>G=M
47	22	0	8	0	3	23	Ap>T>S>AG>G=M
48	4	0	4	1	0	27	Ap>T=S>M>G=Ag
49	19	3	13	0	5	22	Ap>T>S>Ag>G>M
50	18	1	5	7	4	20	Ap>T>M>S>Ag>G
51	44	0	23	0	10	49	Ap>T>S>Ag>G=M
52	15	0	7	4	4	11	T>Ap>S>M=Ag>G
53	20	5	12	5	12	7	T>S=Ag>Ap>G=M
54	7	9	23	20	7	2	S>M>G>T=Ag>Ap
55	14	6	11	9	15	5	G>Ag>M>T=S>Ap
56	6	12	6	8	11	0	G>Ag>M>T=S>Ap
57	10	7	6	0	2	7	T>Ap=G>S>Ag>M
58	36	22	16	19	6	11	T>G>M>S>Ap>Ag
59	19	8	11	8	3	9	T>S>Ap>G=M>Ag
60	0	0	0	0	1	9	Ap>Ag>T=G=S=M
61	20	6	19	8	9	9	T>S>Ag=Ap>M>G
62	23	7	20	9	8	13	T>S>Ap>M>Ag>G
63	23	6	21	9	9	13	T>S>Ap>M=Ag>G
64	22	6	16	12	9	10	T>S>M>Ap>Ag>G
65	6	6	3	6	7	1	Ag>T=G=M>S>Ap
66	6	5	3	6	7	1	Ag>T=M>G>S>Ap
67	45	4	21	22	36	36	T>Ag=Ap>M>S>G
68	21	1	2	1	0	13	T>Ap>S>G=M>Ag
69	20	36	36	46	36	36	M>G=S=Ag=Ap>T
70	19	1	2	1	0	13	T>Ap>S>G=M>Ag
71	0	0	0	0	4	5	Ap>Ag>T=G=S=M
72	32	0	1	1	1	9	T>Ap>S>M>Ag>G
73	3	0	0	3	4	8	AP>Ag>T=M>G=S
74	13	6	9	5	8	18	Ap>T>S>Ag>G>M
75	9	9	1	3	6	32	Ap>T=G>Ag>M>S
76	6	7	10	5	7	4	S>G=Ag>T>M>Ap
77	28	2	2	3	1	12	T>Ap>M>G=S>Ag
78	6	7	10	5	8	3	S>Ag>G>T>M>Ap
79	46	3	16	17	7	2	T>M>S>Ag>G>Ap
80	53	0	10	8	1	3	T>S>M>Ap>Ag>G

81	19	3	13	1	5	21	Ap>T>S>Ag>G>M
82	24	0	2	3	0	26	Ap>T>M>S>G=Ag
83	22	1	7	0	3	23	Ap>T>S>Ag>G>M
84	23	0	8	0	3	11	T>Ap>S>Ag>G=M
85	19	2	26	0	3	15	S>T>Ap>Ag>G>M
86	29	12	30	31	5	21	M>S>T>Ap>G>Ag
87	37	0	7	3	6	7	T>S=Ap>Ag>M>G
88	40	0	8	2	5	6	T>S>Ap>Ag>M>G
90	4	4	12	5	1	7	S>Ap>M>T=G>Ag
91	23	0	7	10	13	22	T>Ap>Ag>M>S>G
92	16	9	12	9	5	10	T>S>Ap>G=M>Ag
93	9	20	9	13	14	5	G>Ag>M>T=S>Ap
94	7	4	6	5	6	2	T>S=Ag>M>G>Ap
95	38	15	5	7	0	2	T>G>M>S>Ap>Ag
96	30	2	4	2	4	10	T>Ap>S=Ag>G=M
97	19	3	8	5	4	14	T>Ap>S>M>Ag>G
98	45	3	15	16	6	2	T>M>S>Ag>G>Ap
99	6	7	10	5	8	3	S>Ag>G>T>M>Ap
100	22	6	20	9	9	11	T>S>Ap>M=Ag>G
Total	2038	498	1040	739	673	1250	T>Ap>S>M>Ag>G

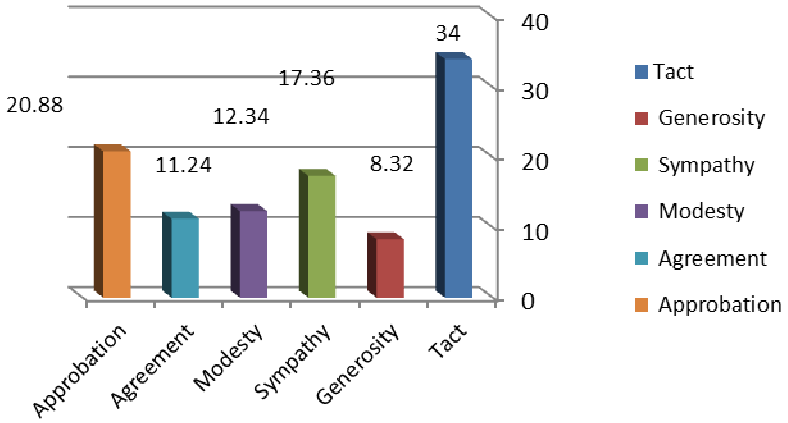
Based on the assumptions of $\chi 2$ procedure, all the categories have to be considered mutually exclusive, i.e, each observation could appear in one and only one of the categories in the table. For example, in the questionnaire survey on the flouting of PP maxims, one participant could not concurrently give both a *Tact* and *Approbation* answer for the PP maxims. Nevertheless, as lots of participants had selected two or more of the categories simultaneously, this condition made it impossible to go on with the $\chi 2$ procedure. Thus, it was decided to make the analysis of data simply based on the descriptive statistics in which the observations were measured as frequencies and reported in percentage, as shown in Table 12 below.

Table 12
Descriptive Statistics of the Flouting of the PP Maxims

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Number	6202	498	2038	1289.49	570.131
Valid N (listwise)	6202				

As represented above, the minimum occurrence of the flouting of the PP maxims is 498, which belongs to the generosity maxim, while the maximum occurrence of the PP maxims is 2038, which belongs to the tact maxim. In Figure 2, the PP maxims together with the percentage of the frequencies of flouting for each maxim are illustrated:

Figure 2.
PP Maxims and Percentage of the Frequencies of Flouting



Based on Figure 2, the PP maxims in the use of direct expressions can be occasionally flouted so that by flouting people could meet certain communicative needs. Thus, not all of the maxims are equally important, and the core objectives of the multiple pairs of PP might be as to minimize the expression of impolite beliefs and to maximize the expression of polite beliefs.

4. Conclusion

The percentage of frequencies of flouting of the CP maxims indicated that the manner maxim ranked first in terms of flouting of the CP maxims while using euphemisms. That is, 36.7% of the cases of flouting of the CP maxims allocated to the manner maxim, which, by far, put it in the first rank in comparison to the other maxims of CP. On the contrary, the quantity maxim with only 13.23% ranked last among the CP maxims. Considering the supremacy of the manner maxim one point is noteworthy. Since flouting of the manner maxim, by definition, refers to giving obscure and ambiguous information, under particular communicative conditions, the speaker may say something obscure to avoid mentioning something unpleasant and embarrassing directly. Thus, the hearer should carefully infer the conversational implicature of the speaker and his/her real intentions, according to the specific context. This is the reason why many euphemisms might tend to flout the manner maxim so as to achieve the mild, indirect and pleasant-sound effects. From this view, almost all examples cited in the study primarily flouted

the maxim of manner when they were placed under the flouting of other maxims, which could recurrently verify that EFL learners' recognition of euphemisms could characterize the semantic opaqueness of social euphemisms in English. Another point is that due to the maxims overlapping, euphemisms may flout more than one maxim simultaneously. For example, when flouting the quantity maxim, the expression would be unclear by providing less or more information, so the manner maxim would be flouted immediately.

Concerning the use of noneuphemistic expressions and flouting of the PP maxims, the results corroborated the Leech's (1983) claim that not all of the maxims are equally important. That is, the tact maxim appeared the most important maxim among other PP maxims, and ranked first in terms of flouting of the PP maxims, as 34% of the cases of flouting of the PP maxims allocated to the tact maxim. Alternatively, the generosity maxim with 3.32% ranked last among other maxims of PP. The results of the study also confirmed Leech's (1983) claim that of the maxims of tact, generosity, approbation, and modesty, the maxim of tact appeared to be a more powerful constraint on conversational behavior than the maxim of generosity, and the maxim of approbation more powerful than the maxim of modesty. This reflected a more general rule that negative politeness was a more weighty consideration than positive politeness. Moreover, it was revealed that politeness was most often focused more strongly on "other" than on "self".

5. Pedagogical implications

Linguists, translators, teachers, and educators can benefit a lot from studies on the linguistic dichotomy of euphemistic and non-euphemistic expressions as well as extensions of the multiple maxims of CP and PP. Theoretically speaking, the current study due to its concern with cultural qualities could provide readers with the ability to enhance comprehensiveness in detecting potential inculcations beyond idiomatic power of euphemistic expressions. Moreover, the semantic opaqueness feature of euphemisms can suggest criteria for classifying languages based on the strategies they provide for reality distortion. Another important insight gained is to unravel how language can be a strong device in distorting the unwelcome realities, and in covering social, cultural, and political taboos. The findings of the study can also give some insights into the linguistic, pedagogical, and sociopragmatic factors which determine the strategies applied in translation. In this vein, there

are a number of factors, including rhetoric, stylistic and contextual ones that affect the pragmatic inference of euphemism by its receiver and the expressive effect of it. Considering stylistic factor, translators should always remember the stylistic differences in rendering the same euphemism into different writing styles. With reference to rhetoric factor, one should try to employ the equivalent of euphemistic expression in target language. And concerning contextual factor, appropriateness to the occasion and contextual cohesion are major concerns to the translation of euphemisms.

Based on the above discussion the following pedagogical statements can be made:

1. Learners are advised to learn the contrast between the use of euphemism and direct expressions in language; they should also be able to distinguish the taboo subjects in English that give rise to most of euphemisms in language.

2. The students should recognize basic rules and principles of euphemisms' formation; likewise, they ought to identify different classifications of euphemisms based on the scope of source, scope of sense, and sphere of application.

3. Learners should learn euphemisms' chief properties including semantic opaqueness, beautification, politeness, and disguising; also, they should know why it is used, and what it connotes as compared to the original word it stands for.

4. EFL learners are advised to appreciate the use of CP and PP in euphemistic and direct language as primary principles guiding people's communication to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations between interlocutors.

5. As the field of translation would benefit from learners' awareness of euphemisms and the differences in SL and TL cultures, so it is evocative to put further emphasis on the cultural aspects of euphemisms in the translation works in future.

6. In order to develop their insights into effective learning techniques, learners are advised to become conscious of different aspects of the linguistic, historical and the cultural overtones in texts with euphemistic expressions.

6. Suggestions for further research

This study could set groundwork for further research on the linguistic, pedagogical, and sociopragmatic functions of euphemisms in EFL

context. In this vein, more detailed research could be done on the related issues such as adopting strategies for translating euphemisms in particular genres, employing other pragmatic or theoretical frameworks, and investigating the impact of euphemisms on language awareness and acquisition. Besides, the study could raise some more challenging questions for the continued research such as the following:

1. What is the role of euphemisms in enhancing 'critical thinking' as an important indication of cognitive competency?

2. How can learners' awareness of euphemism be reflected in everyday use of language?

Additionally, the following topics and issues are proposed as further suggestions:

1. Conducting a comparative study can reveal similar and/or different aspects of English and Persian euphemisms in use, means of formation, and communicative functions.

2. By performing a comparative study the cultural differences or the national characteristics reflected by euphemisms in Persian and English could be disclosed.

3. A comparative study may uncover the effect of euphemisms on the EFL learners' awareness of the English language skillfully in cross–cultural communication.

It should be mentioned that the research made is indisputably open to further discussions and hence,it is hoped that it could evoke more attention on the recognition, perception, and interpretation of euphemisms and direct expressions.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire on Direct Expressions and Euphemisms and Flouting of the PP and CP Maxims

No.	Direct Expression	Maxim(s) of PP Flouted						Euphemistic Expression	Maxim(s) of CP Flouted			
		T	G	S	M	Ag	Ap		Qt	Ql	R	M
1	Liz looks *fat*.							Liz looks *traditionally built.*				
2	Some office workers had to be *fired*.							Some office workers had to be *rightsized*.				
3	Bill is in his *old age.*							Bill is in his *golden years*.				
4	The immigrants came from a *poor nation*.							The immigrants came from an *emerging nation*.				
5	Her flat is a year *old*.							Her flat is a year *new.*				
6	The conscientious teacher attempted to push the *poor students*.							The conscientious teacher attempted to push the *underperformers*.				
7	He was working as an *illegal worker*							He was working as an *undocumented*				

	abroad.							*worker* abroad.				
8	Some soldiers were accused of *genocide*.							Some soldiers were accused of *ethnic cleansing*.				
9	The young man *failed* to meet the required qualifications for job.							The young man *fell short/went out of business* to meet the required qualifications for job.				
10	-Do you think she is pretty? -*No, she isn't.*							-Do you think she is pretty? -*She is quite knowledgeable.*				
11	Tom was *clumsy* in writing skills.							Tom was *gravitationally challenged* in writing skills.				
12	Where could I find some *toilet paper?*							Where could I find some *T.P./bath tissue*?				
13	The dishonest guy had a constant tendency toward *cheating*.							The dishonest guy had a constant tendency toward *peer homewo*				

								rk help.				
14	Sorry. *Your zip is down*							Sorry. *Your fly is undone*.				
15	The patient suffered from *simultaneous existence of mental and physical health issues.*							The patient suffered from *co-morbidity.*				
16	Unluckily, he fell into *drug addiction.*							Unluckily, he fell into *chemical dependency.*				
17	The *war* between the two opposing sides lasted for eight years.							The *peace process/* between the two opposing sides lasted for eight years.				
18	He had to confess under *torture*.							He had to confess under *persuasion*.				
19	For over 25 years, he has been working as a *bin man/garbage man.*							For over 25 years, he has been working as a *garbologist/ sanitation*				

								engineer /sanitation officer.				
20	Mary is a *picky eater*.							Mary is *specific about what she eats.*				
21	The doctors diagnosed her disease as *cancer*.							The doctors diagnosed her disease as *the big C*.				
22	He is interested in *used cars*.							He is interested in *pre-owned*.				
23	His main job is to work in a *garbage dump.*							His main job is to work in a *sanitary landfill.*				
24	The army officer banned soldiers from *killing of innocents*.							The army officer banned soldiers from *collateral damage*.				
25	The patient was *having both mental illness and drug problems*.							The patient was *dual-diagnosed*.				
26	The sick man enjoyed							The sick man enjoyed				

	benefits and treatments in times of sickness.							*wellness .*				
27	It was inconsiderate to show individuals *having sex* together.							It was inconsiderate to show individuals *acting like rabbits.*				
28	He was provided with some *bribe* to do the job right away.							He was provided with some *motivation* to do the job right away.				
29	She is known to be a *lesbian.*							She is known to be a *woman in sensible shoes*.				
30	It didn't appeal to her to look so *short*.							It didn't appeal to her to look so *vertically-challenged*.				
31	The poor man had to live in a *ghetto/ slum*.							The poor man had to live in a(n) *economically depressed neighborhood/ culturally-*				

								deprived environment.				
32	The imprisoned man could no more resist against *torture*.							The imprisoned man could no more resist against *enhanced interrogation technique*.				
33	The proposed suggestion was a *very poor/ bad* way to deal with the problem.							The proposed suggestion was an *ill-advised* way to deal with the problem.				
34	He had to be kept in a *mental illness center* for several years.							He had to be kept in a *mental health center* for several years.				
35	It is startling that *sex change* is on vogue in some communities.							It is startling that *gender reassignment* is on vogue in some communities.				
36	Jack met his *divorced* spouse							Jack met his *pre-loved* by accident				

	by accident .							.				
37	A new series of *attacking* was on track by military forces.							A new series of *active defending* was on track by military forces.				
38	Where can I *find a toilet*?							Where can I *powder my nose/meet john*?				
39	The passengers were informed how to use *vomit bags.*							The passengers were informed how to use *motion discomfort bags/ air-sickness bags.*				
40	Bev's friends surprised when they heard she was *pregnant*.							Bev's friends surprised when they heard she *was in the family way*.				
41	The newly-employed clerk proved to be *lazy*.							The newly-employed clerk proved to be *having a rather relaxed attitude to work.*				

42	Unfortunately, the number of *poor people* is increasing rapidly.							Unfortunately, the number of *under-privileged/economically deprived* is increasing rapidly.				
43	The doctor was a *supporter of woman's having abortion*.							The doctor was a *pro-choice*.				
44	Braille was suffering from *blindness*.							Braille was suffering from *visual impairment*.				
45	-Are these fruits luscious? -Some are, *but others are not.*							-Are these fruits luscious? -Some are, *but others could be better.*				
46	Don't be such a *liar*.							Don't be such *economical with the truth.*				
47	The children were banned from watchin							The children were banned from watchin				

	g *pornographic movies*.							g *adult movies.*				
48	My cousin is presently *unemployed/ jobless.*							My cousin is presently *between jobs.*				
49	She failed the test due to being *disruptive*.							She failed the test due to being *unable to concentrate.*				
50	Frank is *loud and arrogant*.							Frank is *having strong opinions about everything and not being afraid to voice them*.				
51	The natives were *killed/ massacred*.							The natives were *neutralized*.				
52	He is acting as a *spy*.							He is acting as a *source of information*.				
53	The murderer was sentenced to the *death penalty*.							The murderer was sentenced to the *capital punishm*				

								ent.				
54	The people protested against rising *taxes*.							The people protested against rising *user's fees.*				
55	She was so adamant that everybody knew *out of control*.							She was so adamant that everybody knew her *above critical*.				
56	The police accused the thieves of *burglary*.							The police accused the thieves of *covert operation*.				
57	The president was well-known for his *official lying*.							The president was well-known for his *plausible denial.*				
58	Some people collect huge wealth through *cleaning dirty money*.							Some people collect huge wealth through *launder*.				
59	The employee was given *death insurance*.							The employee was given *life insurance*.				
60	John's							John's				

	mother *has been dead* for five years.							mother *has gone the way of all flesh* for five years.				
Total												
Percentage (%)												

Assessing Syntactic Knowledge among Iranian EFL Bilingual and Monolingual Learners

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ABSTRACT: In surveys of third language acquisition (L3A) research, mixed results and findings demonstrate that there is no consensus among the researchers regarding the advantages and/or disadvantages of bilinguality on L3A. The main concern of the present study was to probe the probable differences between Iranian bilingual/monolingual learners of English regarding their syntactic knowledge. It was an attempt to investigate whether bilingual and monolingual learners of English differ significantly in learning embedded question, preposition stranding and pied piping knowledge. To carry out this study, a total of 399 male and female subjects at seven pre-university centers in Arak, Iran were randomly selected from among two groups of Turkish-Persian bilinguals and Persian monolinguals. A general English proficiency test, a questionnaire, and a syntactic structure test were administered to both groups. Statistical analyses including ANOVA, t-test and descriptive statistics revealed the following outcomes:1- Monolingual and bilingual learners did not differ in acquiring syntactic structure,2- No significant difference was observed between gender of monolinguals and bilinguals' performances in acquiring syntactic structure.

Key words: Bilingualism, Monolingualism, Syntactic knowledge, General English proficiency, Gender

1. Introduction

When we study language we study the manner in which human beings express themselves. We study a system of communication, which enables us to convey feelings and facts to one another, to react and comment, to agree or disagree, to accept or reject. It is in the nature of language systems to change and develop constantly, to adjust to changes in society. Language reflects the social structure, the correctness, and the accepted values of society. Language is therefore personal as well as

group-orientated, specific as well as universal. Language cannot be divorced from the context in which it is used. Language is not produced in a vacuum; it is enacted in changing dramas. Communication includes not only the structure of language (e.g. grammar and vocabulary) but also who is saying what, to whom, in which circumstances. One person may have limited linguistic skills but, in certain situations, be successful in communication. Another person may have relative linguistic mastery, but through developed social interaction skills or in a strange circumstance, be relatively unsuccessful in communication.

The ability to speak two languages is often seen as something of a remarkable achievement, particularly in the English-speaking countries. Since as Trask (1999), mentioned 70 percent of the earth's population is thought to be bilingual there is a good reason to believe that bilingualism is the norm for the majority of people in the world.

Answers to the questions "Who is bilingual?" and "What is bilingualism?" are not simple. Bilingual or bilingualism is the ability to speak, communicate, and understand two languages. It is not to be confused with biliteracy, which is the ability to read and write in two languages.

Dewaele et al. (2003) believe, the very elastic definition of bilingualism is, the presence of two or more languages, which reflect the awareness of the interdisciplinary nature of studies in bilingualism. It is said that no single definition of bilingualism is broad enough to cover all instances of individuals who are called "bilingual." The range can be from native-like control of two or more languages to possessing minimal communication skills in a second or foreign language.

Kandolf (1995) claims that a bilingual is someone who uses two languages on a regular basis. All bilinguals are more dominant in one of their two languages. In her view, the importance is that bilinguals are exposed to both languages regularly. The Oxford English Dictionary agrees with this claim and refers to bilingualism as "the ability to speak two languages; the habitual use of two languages colloquially." None of the above descriptions of bilingualism separate second language acquisition from bilingual language acquisition. Furthermore, bilingual language acquisition refers to 'the simultaneous intake of two languages beginning in infancy or before the age of three'.

Calling someone bilingual is therefore an umbrella term. Underneath the umbrella rest many different skill levels in two languages. Being bilingual is not just about proficiency in two languages.

There is a difference between ability and use of language. Someone may be quite competent in two languages, yet rarely or never use one of those languages. Such a person has bilingual ability but does not act or behave bilingually. A different case is a person who regularly uses both their languages, even though one language is still developing. Such a person may be hesitant in speaking, finding it difficult to speak with correct grammar or unable to use a wide vocabulary. In practice, that person may be bilingual, although ability in one language is lacking (but improving steadily). Such a distinction between ability in a language and use of a language again shows why the simple label bilingual hides a complex variety beneath its simplicity.

If you ask people in the street what 'bilingual' means, they will almost certainly reply that it is being able to speak two languages perfectly. Unfortunately, we cannot even describe exactly what speaking one language perfectly involves. No one speaks the whole of a language. Each of us speaks part of our mother tongue. The bilingual does too.

This problem, the fact that it is almost impossible to compare an individual's abilities in two different languages because we are not measuring the same things, is central to all discussion of bilingualism, and shows why the person in the street's 'definition' just will not do, except in very rare circumstances.

Some definitions, which researchers have suggested, are mentioned.

Lam believes bilingualism is the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages… A bilingual society is one in which two languages are used for communication. In a bilingual society, it is possible to have a large number of monolinguals…. provided that there are enough bilinguals to perform the functions requiring bilingual competence in that society. There is, therefore, a distinction between individual bilingualism and societal bilingualism (Lam, 2003).

Bilingualism is the ability to use two or more languages sufficiently to carry on a limited casual conversation, but we cannot set specific limits on proficiency or how much the speaker in question is speaking or demonstrating comprehension of another speaker (Myers-Scotton, 2006).

Researchers in the field have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of bilingualism or multilingualism. Most earlier studies suggest that bilingualism is associated with negative consequences (see, for example, Printer & Keller, 1922; Saer, 1923; Anastasi & Cordova, 1953; Darcy, 1953 and Tse, L. 2001). These studies support the idea that

bilingual children suffer from academic retardation, have low IQ and are socially maladjusted as compared with monolingual children and also believe that our brains are just like our stomachs: To have room for dessert, we can not overeat. Just like an expanding balloon, some believe, our brains can only hold so much, and if we fill it too fully with the heritage language, there will be no room for English. This misconception leads many parents and teachers to advocate arresting development of the native language to leave sufficient room for the new language.

Contrary to these claims, many researchers have found that bilingualism has a positive effect on foreign language achievement (Lerea & Laporta, 1971; Cummins, 1979; Eisenstein, 1980; Ringbom, 1985; J. Thomas, 1988; Valencia & Cenoz, 1992; Zobl, 1992; Klein, 1995; Sanz, 2000; Hoffman, 2001; Richard-Amato 2003, and Flynn 2006). J. Thomas (1988) for example compared the acquisition of French by English monolinguals and English-Spanish bilinguals. Her study yielded striking differences between the two groups, with the bilinguals outperforming the monolinguals. She concluded: Bilinguals learning a third language seem to have developed a sensitivity to language as a system which helps them perform better on those activities usually associated with formal language learning than monolinguals learning a foreign language for the first time.

Mixing results of studies on the consequences of bilinguality caused some scholars to conduct experiments with more controlled variables. The findings of some of these studies led to a neutral attitude toward bilingualism. In their studies, Lambert & Tucker (1972) and Barik & Swain (1978) examined the performance of large samples controlled for sex and age, and found no significant difference between monolinguals and bilinguals in terms of their intelligence, mental development and school achievements. Nayak et al. (1990), comparing the acquisition of a grammatical point by monolingual, bilingual and multilingual students, reported that although the multilinguals showed superior performance under certain conditions, they generally showed "no clear evidence that they were superior in language learning abilities" (p.221).

The aim of the present research is to shed some light on he blurred issue of the bilingualism in learning an additional language. Therefore, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H1: There will be a significant difference between monolingual and bilingual learners in syntactic structure scores.
H2: Gender of mono/bilingual learners has impact on their performance in acquiring syntactic structure.

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Based on consensus among researchers regarding, the larger the size of the sample, the greater its precision or reliability, the present researcher invited 399 pre-university students both male and female with the age range of 17 to 19 at 7 pre-university centers from different distracts of Arak (one of the industrial cities of Iran) to participate in present study. The researcher had to exclude 11 participants from this study because they were not involved in this range of age and the remainders (N=388) were categorized through a background questionnaire as follows:

-89 Turkish / Persian female bilinguals
-101 Persian female monolinguals
-93 Turkish / Persian male bilinguals
-105 Persian male monolinguals

All the participants were from the families who had taken residence in Arak more than 5 years. Some of them had acquired both languages (Persian and Turkish) simultaneously at home whereas some others had learned their second language, Persian, at later age in their schooling years.

The researcher elicited some demographic information about the participants through a background questionnaire in order to match them as closely as possible for socioeconomic status to minimize the effect of social class. Accordingly the participants were classified as middle class.

2.2. Materials

2.2.1. A background questionnaire

In order to elicit information about participants, a background questionnaire was developed by the researcher. It covered issues such as the subjects' age, gender, linguality status, number of members in each family, the subjects' parents' socio-educational status, occupations, monthly income, their levels of education and duration of their residency in Arak. No standard instrument for determining SES (socio-economic status) in Iran was available, so after consultation with a sociologist, subjects were categorized into three classes, upper, middle and lower,

based on a set of socially made indices of the type commonly used in social science research. This comprised issues as, subjects' parents' socio-educational background, occupation, their monthly income and finally the number of members in a family. These characteristics have been elicited in order to determine the social position of the students in that particular society, because according to Michell Maiese (2004), social position is the position of an individual in a given society and culture. That is, these features can be at play in determining one's social status. Accordingly, from SES point of view the participants were classified as:

-*High*
-*Middle*
-*Low*

To have homogeneous participants and to prevent the effect of some interval variables such as social class just those who have been categorized as middle class have been invited to participate in the present research.

2.2.2 General English proficiency test

English Nelson test, (series 400 B) was utilized as the pedestal for assessing the participants' level of proficiency in English. This test comprised 50 multiple-choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items.

The researcher piloted the test with 15 students with the same level and similar characteristics to those of participants of this study and then it was correlated with an Achievement Test developed by the Ministry of Education for pre-university centers. The correlation coefficient calculated between these two (Achievement Test and General English Proficiency Test) appeared to be .67. Hence, the General English Proficiency Test was found to be appropriate for the participants performing level.

For ensuring the participants homogeneity, having administrated General English Proficiency Test, the researcher included those students in this project who scored between one standard deviation below and above the mean score.

It is worth noting here that the reliability of General English Proficiency Test estimated by KR-21 (Kudar Richarson) formula appeared to be.63.

2.2.3. The grammatical judgment test

The Grammatical Judgment Test (GJT) is one of the most widespread data-collection methods that researchers use to test their theoretical claims. In these tasks, speakers of a language are presented with a set of stimuli to which they must react. The elicited responses are usually in the form of assessments, wherein speakers determine whether and / or the extent to which a particular stimulus is correct in a given language.

In order to examine the participants' syntactic structure and to find out the probable differences in their performances in this area a Grammatical Judgment Test was developed by the current researcher. The test was found on two of the grammatical points covered in English textbook designed for pre-university level. One grammatical point is related to what Radford (2004) calls *Preposition Stranding and Pied piping,* and the other grammatical point is related to what Adger at el., (2001) calls *Embedded knowledge.*

3. Procedure

In the process of carrying out the study, the researcher took the following procedures to achieve the objectives of the current study. All the procedures including the development of the background questionnaire, grammatical judgment test, general English proficiency test and their administration are explained in details below:

At the first step of the research, the researcher developed *a background questionnaire* in order to elicit some personal information about participants such as: their bi / monolinguality status, gender, age, educational qualification of parents, parents' monthly income and the number of members in their family.

In order to prevent any possible misunderstanding or confusion on the part of the participants and to ensure maximum understanding, the background questionnaire was developed in English along with its translation in Persian. After doing the sampling procedure and choosing subjects randomly 388 students (89 female bilinguals, 101 female monolinguals, 93 male bilinguals and 105 male monolinguals) were initially requested to participate in this study. Then testing was conducted in the respective schools by the researcher with the help of the school staffs. The conditions for testing were strictly followed as far as possible. The administration of the tests has been completed in two phases:

Phase 1: The background questionnaire and General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) in 55 minutes (the first 15 minutes was allotted to fill up the background questionnaire and the rest was allotted to GEPT); and
Phase 2: Grammatical Judgment Test (GJT) in 25 minutes.

Subjects' scores based on General English Proficiency and Grammatical Judgment Tests range from 0 to 50 and 0 to 30 respectively. It is important to mention that prior to the administration of the General English Proficiency Test it was piloted with 15 students of the same grade with similar characteristics to those of subjects of this study and it was found to be appropriate for the subjects' proficiency level in that particular given time. That is, the reliability of General English Proficiency Test estimated by KR-21 (Kudar Richarson) formula appeared to be .63, which was appropriate enough to go on.

After collecting the background questionnaires, the General English Proficiency Test was conducted and before the start of this test, the researcher cleared the participants' doubts. The way of answering the question was made clear to the participants and in case of any difficulty they were encouraged to ask questions and they were provided with help. The researcher did the best endeavor to draw the participants' attention to take part in the research stage by giving them necessary information about the nature and purpose of the research.

In the present study the most endeavor was done to ensure the students that their responses will be kept full secrecy and also will not be used for performance evaluation. After collecting the papers of General English Proficiency Test and background questionnaire, those students who had done haphazardly were discarded. Then on the basis of scores, which they received in GEPT, those subjects whose scores fell between 1 standard deviation above and below the mean score were selected to participate in the next stage of the project. The reason behind selecting just this group was to include those who were proficient enough to participate in the next stage, which was the vital stage of the study and also to ensure of the homogeneity of the students in terms of English language proficiency. Therefore, these numbers of subjects were students with average knowledge in general English proficiency.

Accordingly the researcher had to exclude 85 participants from this study, therefore, the number of all participants who were allowed to enter the next stage was 303 (64 female bilinguals, 73 female monolinguals, 77 male bilinguals and 89 male monolinguals)

The next stage was to administrate the Grammatical Judgment Test. This test comprised 30 multiple-choice items containing 15 items on the basis of Preposition Stranding and Pied Piping (7 out of 15 items observed in interrogatives and the other 8 items observed in relative clause) and 15 items on the basis of Embedded Questions (7 out of 15 items were in interrogative forms and the rest were in declarative forms). Before administrating this test the researcher made strong effort to ensure of the reliability of the test. The following table provides KR-21 formula (one of the reliability measurements) for Grammatical Judgment Test, that is, Embedded Questions (EQ); preposition stranding (PS) and pied-piping (PiP) and also. SPSS for Windows (version 14-evaluation version) has been employed for calculation of reliability coefficients for Embedded Questions, Preposition Stranding and Pied-Piping and total questions.

It is evident that KR-21 formula obtained for embedded questions, preposition stranding and pied piping and also total questions ranged from .6431 to .6871, which are highly significant. We can definitely say that instruments used in this study are highly consistent. Having ensured of the reliability of the Grammatical Judgment Test, the researcher administrated the test and had to discard 79 subjects' result from data analysis because they had skipped answering most of the questions thoroughly.

The result of remaining, 224 subjects, (49 female bilinguals, 61 female monolinguals, 54 male bilinguals and 60 male monolinguals) were tabulated and codified for the computer analysis.

4. Results

The independent't-test' was employed in order to analyze the collected data. The statistical representation of analyzed data is given in the following tables:

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics For Bilingual And Monolingual Learners In Syntactic Structure With The Results Of Independent Samples T-Test

Questions	Type	Mean	Std. Deviation	't' value	P value
EQ	Bilingual	4.8846	2.4188	.650	.516 (NS)
	Monolingual	5.1443	2.7810		

PiP and PS	Bilingual	3.0577	1.5938	.262	.793
	Monolingual	3.1443	1.6535		(NS)
Total	Bilingual	6.8077	3.8035	.590	.556
	Monolingual	7.0581	4.0175		(NS)

As shown in table 1, there is a difference between the bilinguals and monolinguals mean scores on '*EQ'* and '*PiP and PS'* (6.80 and 7.05 respectively). However, the difference is not statistically meaningful. That is, even though the mean scores of monolinguals on these structural areas were higher than that of bilinguals, indicating that monolinguals outperformed the bilinguals on this structural knowledge. The result of this hypothesis is to some extent a support for Keshavarz et al.'s study (2006). They attempted to investigate whether bilingual and monolingual learners of English differ significantly in learning lexical items and syntactic knowledge. The study aimed further at examining whether bilinguality was an enhancement to learning a third language or a hindrance to it. To carry out this study, they have selected subjects from among two groups of Turkish-Persian bilinguals and Persian monolinguals. Statistical analyses revealed that monolinguals outperformed bilinguals in areas, vocabulary and syntax.

By referring to table 1 and considering the mean scores of bilinguals and monolinguals (6.8077 and 7.0581 respectively) on 'embedded questions' and 'pied piping and preposition stranded', it is obvious that the difference was so small that it could be neglected. In other words, monolingual and bilingual did not differ significantly in mean scores on embedded question, preposition stranding and pied piping as well as in total scores. The obtained t values for embedded (t=. 650; P<. 516), stranded and pied piping (t=. 262; P<. 793) and total scores (t=. 590; P<. 556) were all found to be statistically non-significant. In a short term, monolingual and bilingual learners had statistically equal scores in embedded, stranded and pied piping and also total scores. H1 is rejected, as there were no significant differences among monolinguals and bilinguals in embedded question, preposition stranding and pied piping scores including total scores.

The result of this hypothesis may be well understood by taking the *Threshold Theory* into concern. According to this hypothesis many studies have suggested that the further the child moves towards balanced bilingualism, the greater the likelihood of cognitive advantages (e.g. Cummins & Mulcahy, 1978; Clarkson, 1992; Cummins, 2000b and Bialystok, 2001a). Thus the question has become 'under what conditions

does bilingualism have positive, neutral and negative effects on cognition?' How far does someone have to travel up the two language ladders to obtain cognitive advantages from bilingualism?

One theory that partially summarizes the relationship between cognition and degree of bilingualism is called the *Threshold Theory*. This was first hypothesized by Cummins (1976) and by Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977). They suggested that the research on cognition and bilingualism is best explained by the idea of two thresholds. Each threshold is a level for a child to avoid the negative consequences of bilingualism. The second threshold is a level required to experience the possible positive benefits of bilingualism. It also suggests that there are children who may derive detrimental consequences from their bilingualism.

As Baker, (2006) expresses the *Threshold Theory* may be described in terms of a house with three floors. Up the sides of the house are placed two language ladders, indicating that a bilingual child will usually be moving upward and will not usually be stationary on a floor. On the bottom floor of the house will be those whose current competence in their both languages is insufficiently or relatively inadequately developed, especially compared with their age group. When there is a low level of competence in both languages, there may be negative or detrimental cognitive effects. For example, a child who is unable to cope in the classroom in either language may suffer educationally. At the middle level, the second floor of the house will be those with age-appropriate competence in one of their languages but not in both. For example, children who can operate in the classroom in one of their languages but not in their second language may reside in this second level. At this level, a partly bilingual child will be little different in cognition from the monolingual child and is unlikely to have any significant positive or negative cognitive differences compared with a monolingual. At the top of the house, the third floor, there resides children who approximate 'balanced' bilinguals. At this level, children will have age-appropriate competence in two or more languages. For example, they can cope with curriculum material in either of their languages. It is at this level that age-appropriate ability in both their languages; they may have cognitive advantages over monolinguals.

Most of the earlier studies suggested that bilingualism was associated with negative consequences (see, for example, Anastasi & Cordova, 1953; Darcy, 1953; Printer & Keller, 1922; Saer, 1923). These

studies supported the idea that bilingual children suffered from academic retardation, had a lower IQ and were socially maladjusted as compared with monolingual children.

Ziahosseiny and Mozaffari (1996) investigating the role of transferring the linguistic habit of the two languages (Turkish and Persian) to English, reported that in the area of system, the bilinguals tended to rely heavily on Persian rather than on Turkish, while in the area of vocabulary they relied on their mother tongue. Ziahosseiny and Mozaffari (ibid) justified that bilinguals used Persian as medium of instruction at schools and other academic settings, whereas, they utilized Turkish only at home. Therefore, in academic setting they gave more value to Persian as a sophisticated language, a more prestigious on more over, and the language of Turkish is subconscious, whereas that of Persian is learnt consciously through books, with the help of an instructor describing the rules (cited in Bahrainy, 2003).

The finding of this study however didn't present evidence of language transfer because neither Persian nor Turkish permits *preposition stranding*. This is a crucial factor for arguing that learners in both groups (monolinguals versus bilinguals) had an equal chance to acquire the target construction (Preposition stranding). This requirement pre-supposed that learners in neither group have yet had experience in setting the relevant parameter at the value. Prior language (in this particular case Turkish and Persian) permits *pied-piping* and *embedded knowledge*. This has affected the result as a consequence of transferring. Therefore, both bilinguals and monolinguals in this regard had sufficient experience about them, and the learners' rate of acquisition of these two syntactic structures is presumed to be enhanced hence, in this particular case similar findings are reported among bilinguals and monolinguals. That is, both groups, bilinguals versus monolinguals, indicated nearly the same rate of acquiring these target constructions in English as a foreign language. Finally it can be concluded that bilinguals and monolinguals performed more or less equally on these domains (6.80 vs. 7.05 respectively) with no significant difference.

Another reason behind such an unexpected finding may be that Turkish / Persian bilinguals had acquired their L1 (Turkish) only orally in a naturalistic setting. They did not receive schooling in Turkish and their vehicular language was Persian, which is the language of instruction and the official language of the majority linguistic group. So it can be argued that Persian is the more dominant language among the

bilingual learners of English. Therefore, receiving no-academic instruction on L1 (in this case Turkish) may have hindered learning an additional language. Consequently, as mentioned above the bilingual learners did not perform as well as monolingual learners did in syntactic structure but the difference was statistically too negligible to be considered.

Regarding the second research hypothesis *(Gender of monolingual and bilingual learners has impact on their performance in acquiring Syntactic Structures),* the present researcher applied two-way ANOVA for scores of male and female mono and bilingual learners in syntactic structure which are indicated in tables 2 and 3.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics For Male And Female Bilingual And Monolingual Learners In Embedded Knowledge And Preposition Stranding And Pied Piping

Linguality	Type	Mean	Std. Deviation
Monolingual	Male	8.23	3.37
	Female	7.60	3.11
	Total	7.94	3.25
Bilingual	Male	7.96	3.21
	Female	8.68	3.78
	Total	8.29	3.49
Total	Male	8.05	3.26
	Female	8.31	3.59
	Total	8.17	3.41

Table 3
Results Of Two-Way Anova For Scores For Male And Female Mono And Bilingual Learners In Embedded Knowledge And Preposition Stranding And Pied Piping

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (P value)
Questions	11.126	1	11.126	.960	.328 (NS)

Linguality	.137	1	.137	.012	.913 (NS)
Questions * Linguality	30.811	1	30.811	2.660	.104 (NS)

As it is indicated in table 2 and 3, no significant difference was observed between monolinguals and bilinguals' *syntactic structure* mean scores as the obtained F value of .960 was failed to reach the significance level criterion (P<. 328). From the mean values it is evident that scores of monolingual and bilingual learners were statistically similar (means 7.94 and 8.29 respectively). Gender wise comparison also revealed a difference between male (mean 8.05) and female learners (mean 8.31). However, this difference was so small that it could be neglected and regarded as non-significant along the same line, two- way ANOVA was conducted to compare male and female bilingual EFL learners' mean scores on *syntactic structure*. As tables 2 and 3 display the interaction effect between linguality and gender was found to be non-significant (F= 2.66; P<. 104) indicating that pattern of scoring was the same for male and female learners irrespective of their linguality background. Therefore, H2 is rejected as there was no significant difference between male and female learners in their total scores (embedded knowledge and preposition stranding and pied piping).

4. Discussion and conclusion

Multilingual acquisition considered as 'the acquisition of languages other than the first or second' is becoming a common process in the world. In fact, the increasing links among all countries in world as the result of historical, political, economic and technological development have produced the need to use languages of wider communication, mainly English, which are not always the language or languages of one's own community. Social phenomena such as immigration also contribute to the development of minority communities who need to acquire more than two languages.

Multilingualism and multilingual acquisition are often considered as simple variations of bilingualism and second language acquisition and 'second language acquisition' (SLA) tends to be used as a cover term to refer to 'any language other than the first' without taking into

consideration the number of other non-native languages known by the learner.

Due to the increased number of immigrants to large cities of Iran, we confront a great deal of bilingual learners in our educational system. In this regard the present study was conducted to investigate whether Turkish / Persian bilinguals could be helped in their learning a L3 (English in this case) by their first and second languages. An attempt was made to examine the impact of bilinguality on L3 learning and to investigate whether bilinguality does enhance learning subsequent nonnative languages.

The main concern of the present study was, thus, to probe the probable differences between Iranian bilingual/monolingual learners of English regarding their syntactic knowledge. It was an attempt to investigate whether bilingual and monolingual learners of English differ significantly in learning embedded question, preposition stranding and pied piping knowledge. The study aimed further at examining whether bilinguality was an enhancement to learning a third language or a hindrance to it. To carry out this study, an ex post facto design was employed. A total of 399 male and female subjects at seven pre-university centers in Arak were randomly selected from among two groups of Turkish-Persian bilinguals and Persian monolinguals. A general English proficiency test, a questionnaire, and a syntactic structure test were administered to both groups. Statistical analyses including ANOVA, t-test and descriptive statistics revealed that there were non-significant differences in the performance of the two learner groups, i.e. monolingual and bilingual participants.

The results and findings of the statistical analyses may be summarized as follows:

1) Hypothesis 1 was rejected, indicating that monolingual and bilingual learners did not differ in acquiring syntactic structure.

It is often believed that early exposure to two languages, either simultaneously or sequentially, is detrimental to language acquisition. This belief rests on an implicit assumption that learning more than one language in early childhood necessarily produces on one hand, confusion and interference between the languages and on the other hand, hindrance to learning a third language.

This hypothesis is in line with results of studies by some scholars who conducted experiments with more controlled variables. The findings of some of these studies led to a neutral attitude toward bilingualism. In

their studies, Barik and Swain (1978) and Lambert and Tucker (1972) examined the performance of larger samples controlled for sex and age, and found no significant difference between monolinguals and bilinguals in terms of their intelligence, mental development and school achievements. More recently, Nayak *et al*. (1990), comparing the acquisition of an artificial grammar by monolingual, bilingual and multilingual students, reported that although the multilinguals indicated superior performance under certain conditions, they generally revealed 'no clear evidence that they were superior in language learning abilities' (1990: 221).

Magiste (1984) reported an investigation by Balke-Aurell and Lindbad (1982) on the differences between monolingual and bilingual immigrants of varied L1s with Swedish as L2 in learning English as a foreign language. The results indicated no difference between the bilinguals and monolinguals in standardized tests of English comprehension and grammar performance (cited in Keshavarz, 2003).

2) Hypothesis 2 was rejected, showing that no significant difference was observed between gender of monolinguals and bilinguals' performances in acquiring syntactic structure.

This hypothesis supports the findings of Talebi et al, (2007). They concluded that male and female learners have to some degree similar performance in reading comprehension and syntactic structure of an additional language. That is, the interaction effect between bilinguality and gender is found to be non-significant. Indicating that the pattern of reading comprehension scores are similar for male and female students irrespective of the linguality background they have.

One pedagogical and policy implication is that in order to help the bilinguals to learn English, they should be encourage by educators to develop their linguistic capacities and keep informing and advising the parents with the charismatic impact of bilingualism on additional language acquisition if the first two languages are acquired academically, therefore, it may enable them to promote the first language at home.

Therefore, it is suggested that Turkish should also be introduced in formal education in Iran in order to make the learners aware of the differences and similarities between their first and target language and also providing them with the linguistic knowledge of their first language. Therefore, the level of learners' L1 is very important for the further language learning process. Clearly, the more aware learners are of the similarities and differences between their mother tongue and

the target language, the easier they will find it to adopt effective learning and production strategies. In order for the pupils to achieve the best results, on one hand, it seems that it is very important for language teachers to be aware of the learners' linguistic starting point in order to give them the best instruction possible on the other hand it is essential for language learners to be familiarized with the strategies and linguistic knowledge of their own first language in order to compare and contrast it with target language while they are acquiring an additional or target language. Because as it was mentioned elsewhere in the current section it is believed that learner's awareness of similarities and differences between their mother tongue and additional language will pave the way for effective learning.

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Attention to Indications to Embedded Ideologies in Discourse across Translation Educational Levels and Gender

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ABSTRACT: In a world with a complex and multifaceted socio-political agenda, translators as intercultural mediators need to be equipped with a critical eye for implicit ideologies in linguistic and symbolic discourses which are the main instrumentation in shaping and reshaping mental and cognitive frameworks of the public through which they conceive of the world and act accordingly. In the context of Iranian translator education, the study investigates the effeteness of educational levels in addition to gender on the attentiveness and priorities of prospective English translators as for exploring various levels which are apt to accommodate power relations and ideological representations in socio-political discourse in translation. The study uses an empirically validated questionnaire instrument (Khoshsaligheh, 2012) which draws on ideological square and ideological discourse structures advocated by van Dijk (1998, 2000, 2009). Using inferential statistics, the analysis of the data indicates that the educational exposure currently is not an effective variable for improving the attentiveness of prospective English translators, and neither is the variable of gender.

Key words: ST discourse, Ideological representations, Analysis of variance, Translation students, Iran

1. Introduction

Critical discourse analysis is a multidisciplinary research perspective through which ideological representations and power relations integrated in discourse, as contextualized text or talk, are investigated, while such research is not limited to a certain method or discipline (Fairclough, 1995; Reisigl & Wodak, 2001; van Dijk, 1998, 2001, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2008; Wodak & Chilton, 2005; Wodak & Meyer, 2001).

The significance of critical recognition and comprehension of ideology in original or translated texts and its crucial role for English and Persian translation students and prospective and fledgling translators in the current and upcoming socio-political context of Iran in the international agenda indicate to the paramount significance of the

application of principles and functions of critical discourse analysis in English translator education so as to prepare the candidates to be qualified to honor their social and professional responsibilities.

> In geographical areas where conflict and war are rife, translators may be engaged in circulating texts designed to further the goals of one side or the other. In such contexts, translators may well feel that their job of furthering 'intercultural communication' is at odds with the task of mediating texts which explicitly propagate violent 'clashes of civilizations'. Politically sensitive environments such as Guantanamo Bay, Iraq, Iran, Israel/Palestine … are relevant examples …. Ideological skewing – however ethically justified it may be – is clearly the results of an imposition of the translator's views on the intercultural medication process, and it must be recognized as such. (House, 2009, p. 74)

It appears imperative for translator training programs to improve the sensitivity of recognition and critical comprehension of their prospective translators in order to make critical readers and alert intercultural communicators. It is significant to raise and improve the awareness of students in terms of the various dimensions and levels of discourse where implicit indications to assumptions about the ideological stances of the text producer and hidden representations of power relations can be embedded in a charged discourse.

Iran's undergraduate program in English translation offers courses in Reading Comprehension, Reading Journalistic Texts, Translation of Political and Journalistic Texts; in addition, at the master's level English translation students study a plethora of language, translation, and intercultural theories. The first objective of this study was to examine whether or not the instruction and practices the translation students receive in different years of study and different programs have any effective influence on the way they tend to approach exploring implied ideologies and power relations during the translation of socio-politically charged discourse.

Moreover, the variable of gender in many language practices and translatorial strategies has proved to be a source of discrepancy. Several studies have shown that the gender is a pivotal influence on the choices and strategies of the translator (e.g., Chamberlain, 1992, 2004; Simon, 1996; von Flotow, 1999, 2007). On the other hand, some studies have pointed out that gender sometimes does not function as a variable of

change concerning the choices and strategies of the translator (e.g., Farahzad & Faridzadeh, 2009). Thus, the second objective of the study was to determine if the junior, senior and MA students' choices and priorities about what discourse levels to explore for implicit ideological representations were different across genders during the translation of social or political discourse from English to Persian. To address the objectives of the study, the following research questions were designed.

I) Is there a significant difference between the priorities of Iranian junior, senior, and master's students of English translation about the critical analysis of various discourse levels when seeking indications to assumptions about the ideologies of the source text producer during translation?

II) Is there a significant difference between the priorities of Iranian male and female students of English translation about the critical analysis of various discourse levels when seeking indications to assumptions about the ideologies of the source text producer during translation?

And accordingly, the corresponding null hypotheses were developed to be tested.

H_o1 There is not a significant difference between the priorities of Iranian junior, senior, and master's students of English translation about the critical analysis of various discourse levels when seeking indications to assumptions about the ideologies of the source text producer during translation?

H_o2 There is not a significant difference between the priorities of Iranian male and female students of English translation about the critical analysis of various discourse levels when seeking indications to assumptions about the ideologies of the source text producer during translation?

2. Theoretical Framework

A theory is typically defined as an organized body of interrelated concepts, assumptions and generalizations that systematically explain or describe certain phenomena (Lunenburg & Irby, 2007, p. 122).

As part of his socio-cognitive approach to critical study of discourse, van Dijk (1998) offers a conceptual explanation on how

various discourse structures like euphemism, event order, contrast, lexicalization, fallacy, nominalization, repetition, local coherence, metaphor, consensus among numerous others can be potential discursive devices to accommodate indications to assumptions about the ideological standing of the discourse producer. He clarifies that whenever a discourse producer has a choice in terms of the way to use language or other sign systems to express themselves in more than a single way, there is a potential chance for an ideological exercise. Stating that some discourse structures are more apt to accommodate ideological representations in a charged discourse, he calls them ideological discourse structures, which he tentatively categories into a number of more comprehensive categories (see Figure 1).

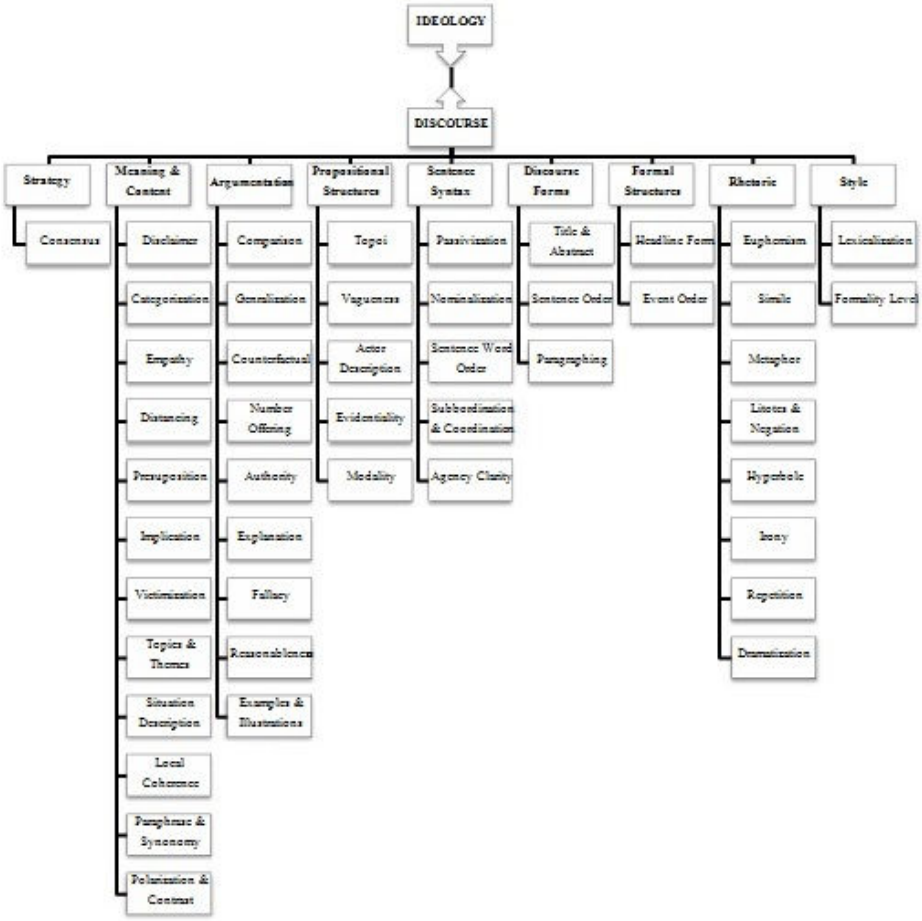
Likewise, van Dijk (1998, p. 267) introduced ideological square, an overall strategy of ideological communication that consists of four major moves including the following:

- Emphasize positive things about Us;
- Negative things about Them;
- De-emphasize negative things about Us;
- Positive things about Them.

Within the framework of ideological square and its self-positive and other negative presentation, ideological discourse structures can be/are advised to be examined to reveal the embedded power relations and ideological orientations of the discourse producer. Nevertheless, the membership of some of the structures to the categories according to van Dijk's conceptual framework is not exclusive, and some of the ideological discourse structures are introduced to belong to two or exceptionally more categories. The lack of a hard and fast distinction in terms of the classification of ideological discourse structures is a hindering problem for any multivariate, quantitative study which would be based on such framework. As such, following the objectives of the current investigation, the study uses an empirically supported model of categorization of ideological discourse categories which draws on and eventually confirms the categorization of ideological discourse categories in the context of Iran.

Figure 1
Illustration of van Dijk's (1998, 2000, 2009). Categorization of Ideological Discourse Structures

by Khoshsaligheh (2012)



Khoshsaligheh (2012) in an extensive survey study, as part of a larger project, uses exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on the data obtained from a self-designed questionnaire instrument (IDSI Inventory) which draws on the ideological discourse structures advocated by van Dijk, (1998, 2000, 2006, 2009). The findings of the study provided evidence for the reliability (estimated by scale reliability function on SPSS 19.0, see Appendix B), construct validity (achieved by Exploratory Factor Analysis using Principal Component Analysis on Equamax with Kaiser Normalization on SPSS 19.0, see Appendix A) and generalizability (achieved through Confirmatory Factor Analysis using Structural Equation modeling on LISREL 8.0, see Appendix C) of the results obtained through the instrument.

3. Method

Following Chesterman's (2009) suggestion to investigate the human agent in translation, this quantitative study is a deductive, participant-oriented investigation (Saldanha & O' Brien, 2013) which is based on a cross-sectional, comparative research design (Dörnyei, 2007). The details of the study are enumerated in the following sections.

3.1. Participants

The data from a purposive, cluster sample of 469 Iranian English translation students from ten universities in seven towns in six provinces in Iran was used in the study. The sample consisted of male and female students of English translation which included seven clusters of junior students (*n*=185), seven clusters of senior students (*n*=186), and six clusters of master's students (*n*=98).

3.2. Instrument

The IDSI Inventory (see Appendix D), psychometrically validated by Khoshsaligheh (2012), was the instrument through which the required data was accessed to address the two designed questions of the study. Since the same pool of data which was used for investigating the construction and psychometric features of the instrument, is also used in this study, further validation study is not necessary.

3.3. Data Collection

Using the IDSI Inventory (Khoshsaligheh, 2012), the students' degree of attention to the discourse structures which are apt to accommodate indications to ideological orientations of the text producer was obtained. Provided with introductory examples, the participants were asked to specify the importance of each of the ideological discourse structures by rating them on a semantic scale of 1 to 5, how attentively and frequently they would critically explore each item for implicit ideological representations of the text producer when they read an English passage which is assumed to be socio-politically charged.

3.4. Data Analysis

In response to the first research question, relating to the effect of current training program on the critical attentiveness and approach of English translation students to ideological discourse in translation, it was necessary to compare the participants' mean rating scores of the nine categories across the three subgroups of junior, senior and MA students.

When there is a single dependent variable and one independent variable with two or more levels, one-way-ANOVA allows for the comparison of several group means concurrently.

In this study, the researcher would like to test the effect of instruction in three stages in English and Persian translator training (the independent variable) on the choices of discourse categories (the dependent variable) by the translation students at nine levels (i.e., discourse categories). A one-way ANOVA procedure was used to test the said pedagogical effect on the extent of reference to each of the discourse categories for possible indications to assumptions about the ideologies of the source text producer. The probability level of significance was set at 0.05. Additionally, when the required assumption of equality of variance, in the three groups under comparison, regarding one of the discourse categories was not met, another alternative test of variance, Welch Test was used instead of the one-way ANOVA.

After the main analyses of variance showed that there were significant differences between some of the groups in terms of approaching a number of discourse categories and accordingly the relevant null hypotheses were rejected, the Games-Howell Test and Hochberg's GT2 Test were employed to specify exactly between which of those groups of translation students, junior, senior, and MA students, the difference of the mean scores was significant.

3.2. Research Question II

In response to the second research question, multiple *t*-tests were used to compare the rating mean scores of the male and the female students regarding their degree of attention to the different discourse categories when seeking ideological representations in source discourse in the English to Persian translation of social or political texts. In this part of the study, mean rating score by the subgroup of female English translation students had to be compared with that of the male subgroup to determine the probability of the effect of the variable of gender.

Independent samples *t*-test was computed in terms of every discourse category, comparing the mean rating scores of the male and the female participants. The level of significance was set at 0.05. However, prior to the main tests, Leven's Test was used to determine the equality of variance of the two groups of male and female participants in terms of

each of the discourse categories to help decide which result to consider in the *t*-test output for rejecting or retaining the null hypothesis.

4. Results

4.1. Research Question I

To address the first research question, a one-way ANOVA was used which is a robust analytical technique which can compare the mean scores of more than two groups. This technique involves an independent variable (Pallant, 2001, p. 186).

4.1.1. Preliminary Analysis

One-way ANOVA was run for each of the nine discourse categories (i.e., the dependent variables) across the three levels of the independent variable (i.e., different pedagogical levels during translation education). In the beginning, the results were reviewed to examine the rating mean scores of each of the three subgroups (see Table 1).

The review showed that as would normally be the case, the mean scores of every subgroup were different even though some were very close. ANOVA is known as a robust statistical test in terms of violations of some of its assumptions, but to ensure determination of the statistical significance of the differences, the assumptions of ANOVA were checked before interpreting the results of the main analysis, because the results of a one-way ANOVA can be considered reliable as long as the main assumptions are met.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variables across the Three Educational Levels

						95% Confidence			
Variable	Levels	N	M	SD	SE	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min	Max
Text Organization	Junior	176	2.29	.50	.03	2.21	2.3653	.80	3.19
	Senior	169	2.27	.58	.04	2.18	2.3632	.64	3.19
	MA	89	2.45	.46	.04	2.36	2.5558	.96	3.19
	Total	434	2.31	.53	.02	2.26	2.3688	.64	3.19
Rhetoric	Junior	176	1.97	.45	.03	1.90	2.0402	.84	2.98
	Senior	169	1.93	.44	.03	1.86	2.0006	1.04	2.98
	MA	89	2.10	.40	.04	2.02	2.1891	1.02	2.98
	Total	434	1.98	.44	.02	1.94	2.0263	.84	2.98
Meaning & Content	Junior	176	2.10	.48	.03	2.03	2.1801	.62	3.10
	Senior	169	2.08	.51	.03	2.00	2.1629	.75	3.10
	MA	89	2.29	.45	.04	2.19	2.3891	1.12	3.10

	Total	434	2.13	.49	.02	2.08	2.1836	.62	3.10
Argumentation	Junior	176	1.67	.40	.03	1.61	1.7335	.78	2.72
	Senior	169	1.62	.44	.03	1.55	1.6929	.57	2.84
	MA	89	1.71	.47	.04	1.61	1.8110	.78	2.74
	Total	434	1.66	.43	.02	1.62	1.7036	.57	2.84
Evidential Support	Junior	176	1.96	.50	.03	1.8931	2.0438	.63	3.14
	Senior	169	1.94	.53	.04	1.8598	2.0229	.78	3.14
	MA	89	2.11	.49	.05	2.0094	2.2199	.63	3.14
	Total	434	1.98	.52	.02	1.9388	2.0370	.63	3.14
Lexical Choice	Junior	176	1.95	.42	.03	1.8960	2.0209	.56	2.80
	Senior	169	2.02	.41	.03	1.9607	2.0874	.75	2.80
	MA	89	2.09	.39	.04	2.0094	2.1749	.97	2.80
	Total	434	2.01	.41	.01	1.9722	2.0506	.56	2.80
Sentence	Junior	176	2.23	.56	.04	2.1517	2.3200	.85	3.15
	Senior	169	2.27	.54	.04	2.1937	2.3580	.63	3.15
	MA	89	2.33	.54	.05	2.2178	2.4460	.63	3.15
	Total	434	2.27	.55	.02	2.2191	2.3231	.63	3.15
Generality	Junior	176	1.80	.43	.03	1.7394	1.8700	.56	2.82
	Senior	169	1.77	.44	.03	1.7110	1.8455	.74	2.82
	MA	89	2.10	.47	.05	2.0004	2.2019	.73	2.82
	Total	434	1.85	.46	.02	1.8113	1.8990	.56	2.82
Unclarity	Junior	176	1.82	.42	.03	1.7611	1.8863	.69	2.70
	Senior	169	1.79	.44	.03	1.7231	1.8594	.54	2.70
	MA	89	1.95	.39	.04	1.8671	2.0342	1.14	2.70
	Total	434	1.83	.43	.02	1.7965	1.8777	.54	2.70

As for normality, according to Field (2005, p. 288), "if the samples contain more than about 50 scores, the sampling distribution will always be normally distributed." As can be seen in Table 1, the subgroups under the study include 178, 169, and 89, respectively. It is also given that the samples are independent as another requirement. One final assumption is that the variances of the subsets are equal. Levene's test can test the homogeneity of variances. The test could check whether the variance of scores in each of the three subgroups was the same or not. Given that the null hypothesis in this test assumes the equality of variances, Pallant (2001, p. 190) explains that if the significance value for the Levene's test is greater than 0.05, the test fails to reject the null hypothesis and the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not violated. The results of the test on the data show that the variances in all three subgroups for the analysis of all the dependent variables, except for

Text Organization, are equal, and all can be examined using one-way ANOVA, except for Text Organization (see Table 2).

Table 2
Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene's test	df1	df2	Sig.
Text Organization	5.378	2	431	.005
Rhetoric	2.228	2	431	.109
Meaning & Content	1.545	2	431	.214
Argumentation	1.679	2	431	.188
Evidential Support	.560	2	431	.572
Lexical Choice	.150	2	431	.861
Sentence	.172	2	431	.842
Generality	.803	2	431	.449
Unclarity	.500	2	431	.607

Given that the important assumption of equality of variances was violated for the first dependent variable, an alternative statistical solution should to be used. SPSS offers two alternative tests which can be used in such conditions, where variances of the groups in comparison are unequal: the Welch test and the Brown-Forsythe test. According to Field (2005, p. 348) Welch test is the better of the two procedures in terms of power; that is, detecting an effect when it exists, so Welch test was used to examine Text Organization, whereas one-way ANOVA is employed for the rest of the variables.

4.1.2. Welch Test

The mean differences of the three subgroups with regard to exploring Text Organization were examined using Welch test. The test distinguished a significant difference with the resulted significance value smaller than 0.05. According to the results of Welch test, there was a significant difference in the degree of attending to Text Organization level during translation between the three subgroups, $F(2, 244.58) = 4.76$, $p < 0.01$ (see Table 3).

Table 3
Welch Test Results for Means for Text Organization Dependent Variable

Variable	Tests	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig.

Text Organization	Welch	4.76	2	244.58	.009

a Asymptotically F distributed

4.1.3. One-way ANOVA

The results of One-way ANOVA for the remaining eight discourse categories as the dependent variables across the three levels of the independent variable (i.e., levels of education) are reported in Table 4. As can be seen in the table, the significance values for two of the eight dependent variables are greater than the criterion value 0.05, indicating that the test failed to reject the null hypothesis for Argumentation and Sentence categories. In other words, no statistically significant difference between the rating means of the three subgroups of junior, senior and MA students in exploring the two mentioned categories were determined.

Table 4, on the other hand, reports the *F* ratios for the rest of the six dependent variables as in the following. The results for Rhetoric [$F(2, 431) = 4.56$, $p < 0.05$], Meaning & Content [$F(2, 431) = 5.77$, $p < 0.01$], Evidential Support [$F(2, 431) = 3.48$, $p < 0.05$], Lexical Choice [$F(2, 431) = 3.22$, $p < 0.05$], Generality [$F(2, 431) = 16.97$, $p < 0.001$], and Unclarity [$F(2, 431) = 4.20$, $p < 0.05$] show that the null hypothesis regarding each of the aforementioned variables is rejected and a statistically significant difference between the mean rating scores of the participants in the three subgroups are identified (at various confidence levels of 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001).

Assuming that it was found that there were differences between the subgroups' mean score of their rating about exploring some of the discourse categories, in order to exactly determine which subgroup means were different with others, the results of the relevant post hoc tests are presented in the following two sections.

Table 4
One-way ANOVA Results for the Remaining Dependent Variables

		Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Rhetoric	Between Groups	1.749	2	.875	4.561	.011
	Within Groups	82.652	431	.192		
	Total	84.401	433			
Meaning & Content	Between Groups	2.811	2	1.405	5.765	.003
	Within Groups	105.068	431	.244		
	Total	107.879	433			
Argumentation	Between Groups	.467	2	.234	1.236	.292

	Within Groups	81.419	431	.189		
	Total	81.886	433			
Evidential Support	Between Groups	1.863	2	.932	3.480	.032
	Within Groups	115.375	431	.268		
	Total	117.238	433			
Lexical Choice	Between Groups	1.100	2	.550	3.218	.041
	Within Groups	73.692	431	.171		
	Total	74.792	433			
Sentence	Between Groups	.552	2	.276	.908	.404
	Within Groups	130.945	431	.304		
	Total	131.497	433			
Generality	Between Groups	6.835	2	3.417	16.972	.000
	Within Groups	86.784	431	.201		
	Total	93.619	433			
Unclarity	Between Groups	1.535	2	.768	4.205	.016
	Within Groups	78.659	431	.183		
	Total	80.195	433			

4.1.4. Post hoc Tests

When conducting analysis of variance on several group means, it is possible to test the predetermined hypotheses based on a theory or previous research. If no aprior hypotheses were formulated, post hoc tests would follow up after any significant effect is determined in the main analysis of variance.

> Planned comparisons are used when you wish to test specific hypotheses, concerning the differences between a subset of your groups …. Post hoc comparisons are used when you want to conduct a whole set of comparisons, exploring the differences between each of the groups or conditions in your study. If you choose this approach, then your analysis consists of two steps. First, an overall *f*-ratio [for every dependent variable] is calculated which tells you whether there are any significant differences among the groups in your design. If your overall f-ratio is significant, you can then go on and perform additional tests to identify where these differences occur. (Pallant, 2001, p. 174)

4.1.4.1. Games-Howell Test

Several post hoc tests are available on SPSS to choose from. They are basically divided into two main classifications. Most of them can be used when the variance of all the data sets in comparison is equal; others can

be employed when variance equality is not assumed. One of the post hoc tests available on SPSS which can function when the assumption of homogeneity of data variance in the groups is violated is Games-Howell.

Table 5
Multiple Comparisons of Group Means Games-Howell Post hoc Test

Dependent Variable: Text Organization						
Games-Howell					95% Confidence Interval	
(I) Studentship	(J) Studentship	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Junior	Senior	.01653	.05918	.958	-.1228	.1558
	MA	-.16838(*)	.06196	.020	-.3147	-.0220
Senior	Junior	-.01653	.05918	.958	-.1558	.1228
	MA	-.18491(*)	.06670	.017	-.3423	-.0275
MA	Junior	.16838(*)	.06196	.020	.0220	.3147
	Senior	.18491(*)	.06670	.017	.0275	.3423

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As Table 5 shows, post hoc comparisons using Games-Howell test indicate that at the significance level of 0.05, the mean score for junior students (M = 2.29, SD = 0.50) is significantly different from that of MA students (M = 2.46, SD = 0.46). Also the mean score for senior students (M = 2.27, SD = 0.59) is found to be significantly different from that of MA students (M = 2.46, SD = 0.46). Groups of senior students and junior students do not differ significantly.

4.1.4.2. Hochberg's GT2 Test

There are several post hoc tests when the variance is assumed homogeneous in all the data groups under analysis of variance. Despite the greater popularity of some tests like Tukey HSD, Field (2005, p. 357) recommends using Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test, when the design of the study entails group sizes which are considerably unequal.

As the table of related descriptive statistics show the junior, senior, and MA student subgroups consists of 176, 169, and 89, respectively (see Table 1). Since the first two subgroups are each almost twice as large as the third subgroup in this study, Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test was employed for the comparisons. The results of multiples comparisons for every dependent variable that in the main analysis of ANOVA above received a significant value of smaller than 0.05, and a significant difference was determined.

In terms of exploring the Rhetoric discourse category for implicit indications to the ideologies of the source text producer by the participating translation students, according to Table 6, the post hoc comparisons using Hochberg test at the significance level of 0.05 indicated that the rating mean score for senior students (*M* = 1.93, *SD* = 0.44) was significantly different from that of MA students (*M* = 2.10, *SD* = 0.40). The rating mean score for junior students (*M* = 1.97, *SD* = 0.45) was not significantly different from that of MA students. Also, the mean scores of senior students and junior students did not differ significantly.

In terms of exploring Meaning & Content discourse category for implicit indications to the ideologies of the source text producer by the participating translation students, according to Table 6, post hoc comparisons using Hochberg's test at the significance level of 0.05 indicated that the rating mean score for junior students (*M* = 2.11, *SD* = 0.49) was significantly different from that of MA students (*M* = 2.29, *SD* = 0.45). Also, the rating mean score for senior students (*M* = 2.08, *SD* = 0.59) was significantly different from that of MA students. But the rating mean scores of senior students and junior students did not differ significantly.

In terms of exploring Evidential Support discourse category for implicit indications to the ideologies of the source text producer by the participating translation students, according to Table 6, post hoc comparisons using Hochberg test at the significance level of 0.05 indicated that the rating mean score for senior students (*M* = 1.94, *SD* = 0.54) was significantly different from that of MA students (*M* = 2.11, *SD* = 0.50). The rating mean score for junior students (*M* = 1.97, *SD* = 0.51) was not significantly different from either that of senior or MA students.

Table 6
Multiple Comparisons of Group Means by Hochberg Post hoc Test

Dependent Variable	(I) Studentship	(J) Studentship	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	Sig.	95% Confidence Lower Bound	95% Confidence Upper Bound
Rhetoric	Junior	Senior	.03914	.04716	.791	-.0739	.1522
		MA	-.13202	.05696	.061	-.2685	.0045
	Senior	Junior	-.03914	.04716	.791	-.1522	.0739
		MA	-.17116(*)	.05735	.009	-.3086	-.0337
	MA	Junior	.13202	.05696	.061	-.0045	.2685
		Senior	.17116(*)	.05735	.009	.0337	.3086
Meaning	Junior	Senior	.02308	.05317	.962	-.1044	.1505

& Content							
		MA	-.18638(*)	.06422	.012	-.3403	-.0325
	Senior	Junior	-.02308	.05317	.962	-.1505	.1044
		MA	-.20946(*)	.06466	.004	-.3644	-.0545
	MA	Junior	.18638(*)	.06422	.012	.0325	.3403
		Senior	.20946(*)	.06466	.004	.0545	.3644
Evidential Support	Junior	Senior	.02709	.05572	.948	-.1065	.1606
		MA	-.14623	.06730	.088	-.3075	.0151
	Senior	Junior	-.02709	.05572	.948	-.1606	.1065
		MA	-.17332(*)	.06776	.032	-.3357	-.0109
	MA	Junior	.14623	.06730	.088	-.0151	.3075
		Senior	.17332(*)	.06776	.032	.0109	.3357
Lexical Choice	Junior	Senior	-.06557	.04453	.367	-.1723	.0412
		MA	-.13368(*)	.05378	.039	-.2626	-.0048
	Senior	Junior	.06557	.04453	.367	-.0412	.1723
		MA	-.06811	.05416	.505	-.1979	.0617
	MA	Junior	.13368(*)	.05378	.039	.0048	.2626
		Senior	.06811	.05416	.505	-.0617	.1979
Generality	Junior	Senior	.02645	.04833	.928	-.0894	.1423
		MA	-.29648(*)	.05837	.000	-.4364	-.1566
	Senior	Junior	-.02645	.04833	.928	-.1423	.0894
		MA	-.32294(*)	.05877	.000	-.4638	-.1821
	MA	Junior	.29648(*)	.05837	.000	.1566	.4364
		Senior	.32294(*)	.05877	.000	.1821	.4638
Unclarity	Junior	Senior	.03245	.04601	.860	-.0778	.1427
		MA	-.12698	.05557	.067	-.2602	.0062
	Senior	Junior	-.03245	.04601	.860	-.1427	.0778
		MA	-.15943(*)	.05595	.014	-.2935	-.0253
	MA	Junior	.12698	.05557	.067	-.0062	.2602
		Senior	.15943(*)	.05595	.014	.0253	.2935

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In terms of exploring Lexical Choice category for implicit indications to the ideologies of the source text producer by the translation students, according to Table 6, post hoc comparisons using Hochberg test at the significance level of 0.05 indicated that the rating mean score for junior students (M = 1.96, SD = 0.42) was significantly different from that of MA students (M = 2.09, SD = 0.39). The score of the seniors (M = 2.02, SD = 0.42) was not significantly different from neither that of the juniors nor MA students.

In terms of exploring the Generality discourse category for implicit indications to the ideologies of the source text producer by the participating translation students, according to Table 6, post hoc

comparisons using the Hochberg's test at the significance level of 0.05 indicated that the rating mean score for junior students (*M* = 1.80, *SD* = 0.44) was significantly different from that of MA students (*M* = 2.10, *SD* = 0.48). Also the rating mean score for senior students (*M* = 1.78, *SD* = 0.44) was significantly different from that of MA students. But the rating mean scores of senior students and junior students did not differ significantly.

In terms of exploring Unclarity discourse category for implicit indications to the ideologies of the source text producer by the participating translation students, according to Table 6, post hoc comparisons using Hochberg test at the significance level of 0.05 indicated that the rating mean score for senior students (*M* = 1.79, *SD* = 0.49) was significantly different from that of MA students (*M* = 1.95, *SD* = 0.40). The rating mean score for junior students (*M* = 1.82, *SD* = 0.42) was not significantly different from either that of senior students or MA students.

4.2. Research Question II

In this section, the results of another statistical test addressing the second research question are reported. This part of the study involved examining the probable effect of gender as an independent variable on the dependent variables of rating scores for exploring each of the discourse categories for hidden ideological implications. Since there were nine discourse categories at issue, multiple independent *t*-tests were conducted.

4.2.1. Preliminary Analysis

Before conducting the test and interpreting the results, it was imperative to check the relevant assumptions of the test. There are two types of *t*-Test: paired samples *t*-Test and independent samples *t*-Test. In independent samples *t*-Test, as the name speaks for itself, the first thing to consider is that the two groups should be independent. It was given that since participants of opposite sex were involved, this criterion was already met. Approximately or perfectly normal distribution of the data is another assumption which was also met in the present case. As mentioned earlier, Field (2005, p. 288) writes, "If the samples contain more than about 50 scores, the sampling distribution will always be normally distributed". As can be seen in Table 7, the number of

participants in the two subgroups under the study, male (*n*=133) and female (*n*=301) fulfilled this assumption.

Table 7
Descriptive Statistics of the Rating Scores of Male and Female per Category

Dependent Variables	Gender	N	M	SD	SE of Mean
Text Organization	Male	133	2.2763	.50156	.04349
	Female	301	2.3369	.54872	.03163
Rhetoric	Male	133	1.9579	.43816	.03799
	Female	301	1.9965	.44318	.02554
Meaning & Content	Male	133	2.1281	.49572	.04298
	Female	301	2.1403	.50142	.02890
Argumentation	Male	133	1.7024	.44483	.03857
	Female	301	1.6449	.42997	.02478
Evidential Support	Male	133	2.0099	.51332	.04451
	Female	301	1.9782	.52397	.03020
Lexical Choice	Male	133	2.0061	.39453	.03421
	Female	301	2.0138	.42521	.02451
Sentence	Male	133	2.2369	.57821	.05014
	Female	301	2.2863	.53895	.03106
Generality	Male	133	1.8741	.47127	.04086
	Female	301	1.8468	.46272	.02667
Unclarity	Male	133	1.8015	.42276	.03666
	Female	301	1.8528	.43343	.02498

One final consideration was determining whether the variances in the two subgroups were or were not equal. In independent samples *t*-Test which produces two alternative *t*-values for either of the situations (equality assumed or not) would be calculated. When assuming or violating the assumption of equality of variances is determined, either of the relevant *t*-values would be considered. With regard to the variances of the two groups, the Levene's test was conducted by default when independent samples *t*-Test was run. As can be seen in Table 8, the results show that the significance value for each group with respect to all the dependent variables is greater than the criterion value of 0.05. That is, the assumption of homogeneity of data variance for both groups was met (Pallant, 2001, p. 179). Therefore, based on the results achieved, the corresponding significance value at a 95% confidence level was examined for each of the dependent variables of the study.

Table 8
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances for t-Test

Dependent Variable	F	Sig.
Text Organization	1.377	.241
Rhetoric	.003	.957
Meaning & Content	.496	.482
Argumentation	.000	.983
Evidential Support	.068	.795
Lexical Choice	1.638	.201
Sentence	1.482	.224
Generalization	.227	.634
Unclarity	.004	.947

4.2.2. Independent Samples *t*-Test

The results of *t*-Test demonstrated in Table 9 demonstrate that the independent variable of gender did not have a significant effect on the choices of exploring ideological discourse categories. In other words, the larger significance values compared to the criterion value of 0.05 for each of the dependent variables failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference between the choices and priorities of male and female students when seeking ideological representations in the source text during translation, at 95% confidence level.

In terms of exploring the Text Organization discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=2.28, SD=0.50) and the female (M=2.34, SD=0.55), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -1.09$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Rhetoric discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=1.96, SD=0.84) and the female (M=2.00, SD=0.44), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -0.84$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Meaning & Content discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=2.13, SD=0.50) and the female (M=2.14, SD=0.50), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -0.23$, $p > 0.05$.

Table 9
Independent Samples t-Tests Results across Gender

Dependent Variable	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	M Dif.	SE Dif.	95% Confidence Upper	95% Confidence Lower

Text Organization	-1.088	432	.277	-.06057	.05568	-.17001	.04886
Rhetoric	-.840	432	.402	-.03861	.04598	-.12899	.05177
Meaning & Content	-.233	432	.816	-.01212	.05203	-.11438	.09014
Argumentation	1.270	432	.205	.05745	.04525	-.03148	.14638
Evidential Support	.585	432	.559	.03170	.05422	-.07487	.13826
Lexical Choice	-.177	432	.859	-.00768	.04332	-.09283	.07747
Sentence	-.861	432	.390	-.04939	.05740	-.16220	.06342
Generality	.563	432	.574	.02726	.04845	-.06797	.12250
Unclarity	-1.146	432	.253	-.05132	.04479	-.13936	.03672

In terms of exploring the Argumentation discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=1.70, SD=0.44) and the female (M=1.64, SD=0.43), there was no significant difference $t(432)=1.27$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Evidential Support discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=2.00, SD=0.51) and the female (M=1.98, SD=0.52), there was no significant difference $t(432) = 0.59$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Lexical Choice discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=2.00, SD=0.39) and the female (M=2.01, SD=0.43), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -0.18$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Sentence discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=2.24, SD=0.58) and the female (M=2.29, SD=0.54), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -0.86$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Generality discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=1.87, SD=0.47) and the female (M=1.85, SD=0.46), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -0.56$, $p > 0.05$.

In terms of exploring the Unclarity discourse category, between the rating scores by the male (M=1.80, SD=0.42) and the female (M=1.85, SD=0.43), there was no significant difference $t(432) = -1.15$, $p > 0.05$.

5. Discussion

The first research question concerned the potential effect of instruction in different pedagogical stages during English and Persian translation

education (i.e., junior year courses, senior year courses, and MA coursework) on the priorities of students about discourse categories when seeking ideological representations in the source text during translation.

Initial findings in response to this question suggested that the degree of attention of junior, senior and MA students to two of the discourse categories, Argumentation and Sentence, did not differ significantly. That is, the slight difference between their mean rating scores could only be due to chance and did not illustrate any meaningful variation. In other words, translation students of English and Persian translation either in the final half of the undergraduate program or after passing the graduate courses of MA in English translation considered these two discourse categories of equal propriety and explored similarly for accommodating embedded ideologies of the source text producer.

Therefore, it was understood that an MA student of English and Persian translation does not explore the source discourse at Argumentation and Sentence levels any more than a junior student of English Persian translation, and that passing several undergraduate and graduate courses of approximately fifty credit points including Translation of Political Texts, Translation of Journalistic Texts, Advanced Translation Practice, Theoretical Principles of Translation in BA, and Models and Theories of Translation, Applied Translation Criticism, and Applied Linguistics in Translation in MA did not have any influence on how they critically approach Argumentation and Sentence discourse categories in a social or political text during translation. As specified in the model, the category of Argumentation consisted of the ideological discourse structures of Disclaimer, Victimization, Litotes & Negation, Counterfactual, and Authority. The category of Sentence consisted of Passivization, Subordination & Coordination, and Sentence Order.

Nevertheless, the findings suggested that there were significant differences between the mean rating scores of junior, senior and MA students concerning the remaining discourse categories of Text Organization, Rhetoric, Meaning & Content, Evidential Support, Lexical Choice, Generality, and Unclarity.

Subsequent findings suggested that the mean rating scores of junior and senior students regarding the category of Text Organization, Meaning & Content, or Generality did not differ significantly. However, the mean rating scores of the two subgroups were significantly lower

than that of the MA students and the difference was significant. In other words, MA students seemed to examine the source discourse at Text Organization category (including the ideological discourse structures of Title & Abstract, Event Order, Paragraphing, and Formality Level), Meaning & Content category (including the ideological discourse structures of Reasonableness, Topics & Themes, Situation Description, Local Coherence, and Categorization) and Generality category (including the ideological discourse structures of Generalization, Examples & Illustrations, and Presupposition) significantly more frequently than junior or senior students do.

In comparison to the undergraduate students, deeper and more frequent examination of a source discourse during translation and being more cautious of the ideological representations in the source text are to a large extent expected from MA students of English and Persian translation for a number of reasons. Given that there is a fairly limited capacity for admission into Master's programs in Iranian higher education, and there is only less than one percent chance for every graduate of BA in English and Persian translation to be admitted to the MA in English and Persian Translation through a nationwide examination, typically the stronger students can carry on to graduate studies in Iran. So, aside from passing several graduate courses on translation theories and practice, MA students have been typically the stronger students during their first degree.

The findings also suggested that the mean rating scores of senior students and MA students during searching for indications to concealed ideologies in a journalistic, social, or political text for translation, regarding the discourse categories of Rhetoric (including the ideological discourse structures of Metaphor, Comparison, Irony, Simile, and Polarization), Evidential Support (including the ideological discourse structures of Evidentiality, Topoi, Explanation, and Consensus), and Unclarity (including the ideological discourse structures of Euphemism, Fallacy, and Vagueness) were significantly different. But, those of junior and MA student did not have a meaningful difference. In other words, junior students tended to examine the discourse of a journalistic, social or political text at the levels of Rhetoric, Unclarity, and Evidential Support significantly more frequently than the senior students did during translation, and MA students did so more frequently than the junior students. Yet, unlike the significant difference between the degrees of attention of senior and MA students, the difference between the degree of

attention of Junior and MA students was slight and merely due to chance. So, unexpectedly, junior students seemed to pay as much attention to the discourse levels of Rhetoric, Evidential Support and Unclarity as MA students when translating an English social or political text into Persian.

It readily makes sense why MA translation students should tend to examine the source discourse and its levels more frequently than the undergraduate. However, the reason why junior students with less training tended to explore the categories of Rhetoric and Unclarity more frequently than senior students did tend to can be due to the immediate – and apparently transient – effect of the higher density of literature related courses in the junior (i.e., third) year of the undergraduate English and Persian translation in Iran. In comparison, in the senior year, specialist translation courses are in majority, while the first two years of the training program are more focused on EFL skills. Typically in the third or the junior year in BA English and Persian Translation in Iran, the students take the following course among others with an expected emphasis on rhetorical devices and figurative language: Introduction to Modern Literature of Iran, Samples of Simple (English) Prose, Introduction to English Literature I and II, Idioms and Metaphorical Expressions in Translation, and Translation of Literary Texts. Still, it barely explains for the case of more attention to the discourse category of Evidential Support by junior students than by the senior students.

Furthermore, the findings suggested that the mean rating scores of MA students was significantly higher than that of junior students when seeking hidden ideologies in a social or political text for translation, regarding the discourse category of Lexical Choice (including the ideological discourse structures of Synonym & Paraphrase, Lexicalization, Repetition, Hyperbole, and Word Order). And the mean rating scores of MA students and senior students did not have a meaningful difference. In other words, MA and senior student tended to explore discourse in terms of the choice of words considerably more than junior student of English and Persian translation when delving into a social or political text during translation into Persian.

Among the results for exploring the discourse at various levels, the result about the category of Lexical Choice was the closest to the reasonable. Namely, the degree of attention and the extent of examination of discourse at this level increased along with the advancement in the course of training of the translation students – senior students tended to pay attention to the Lexical Choice slightly more than

the junior students, and MA student did so slightly more than senior students, but their degree of attention was significantly higher than that of junior students. So, it could be concluded that training of the students positively correlated with the development of students' critical attentiveness to the level of Lexical Choice in the source discourse in translation.

According to the findings, as anticipated, MA students tended to pay mostly the highest attention to the most levels of discourse for embedded ideologies. Nevertheless, the same results demonstrated that their attention in terms of two discourse categories of Argumentation and Sentence was not any higher than that of neither senior nor junior students. The curious fact, however, was that the discourse category of Argumentation was shown to be the least examined and the category of Sentence to be the second most examined levels of discourse according to the entire sample population of English and Persian translation students.

The most unexpected finding related to the results that the junior students in comparison to those of the senior students tended to explore the categories of Rhetoric, Unclarity, and Evidential Support at a higher frequency. Given that the subgroups of junior (n=176) and senior (n=169) students comprised of approximately the same valid number of participants who were selected through an identical sampling technique from the same institutions of higher education, the unanticipated finding could barely be due to a problem from the lack of the representativeness of the data.

Additionally, the results showed that the senior translation students in terms of seven discourse categories (i.e., all except for categories of Lexical Choice and Sentence) had the lowest mean rating score indicating to the lowest attentiveness and frequency of examination. This relatively low attention of senior students in exploring discourse at most levels was especially curious by considering that English and Persian students in the senior (i.e., fourth and final) year of their undergraduate training pass courses including Advanced Translation, Individual Translation Project, Translation of Economic Texts, Translation of Islamic Texts, Translation of Journalistic Texts, and Translation of Political Texts among others.

The above results about the discourse categories explored by students in various stages of training were so diverse and erratic that hardly any meaningful pattern could be depicted. Expect for the category

of Lexical Choice, no consistent development of the extent of examination and degree of attention to any of the other discourse categories, as the translation students progressed in their training was noted.

Therefore, it was safe to infer that instruction in the English translator training in Iranian universities, particularly in the undergraduate program, did not have any constant and consistent influence on the development of how trainee translators approached an ideologically-charged discourse critically during translation, and the fairly irregular variations in the priorities and choices of the students about different discourse categories could be suspected to be due to different reason(s) other than the impact of current translation pedagogy.

The second research question of the study examined the potential effect of the variable of gender on the tendencies and priorities of students about exploring discourse categories when seeking ideological representations in the source text during translation.

The findings in response to this question concerning the effect of gender as a possible intervening variable suggested that the male and the female translation students of English and Persian translation did not differ significantly in their priorities and degrees of attention to any of the categories of ideological discourse structure when exploring any of the nine discourse categories of Text Organization, Rhetoric, Meaning & Content, Argumentation, Evidential Support, Lexical Choice, Sentence, Generality, and Unclarity, in the text to be translated. In other words, the female and the male translation students tended to pay similar attention to each discourse category, and every level in discourse was of equal priority to the two subgroups for finding indications to the embedded ideologies and world views of the source text producer.

Unlike a number of translatorial strategies (e.g., Simon, 1996; von Flotow, 2007), the findings of this study suggested that the variable of gender was not the source of any significant difference between the priorities and choices of the male and the female prospective translators when approaching the source discourse in search of ideological representations.

Likewise, a study examined the role of gender on the choices of strategies in translation of metaphors in the Persian context. The researchers found that the choices of the strategies were gender-free, and therefore, they concluded that gender discussion in translation studies seem to be a rather non-linguistic issue (Farahzad & Faridzadeh, 2009).

However, they admitted that the verification of such a conclusion required further and more elaborate research, and so does the conclusion of the present study on the lack of intervention of gender variable on the critical approach of prospective translators of English and Persian towards the source discourse.

6. Conclusion

The study provided evidence that English translation students in Iranian universities generally either in the final years of undergraduate training or in master program tended to explore the source discourse at more concrete and visible levels of discourse such as Textual Organization level (or as originally described in van Dijk's categories, the levels of Formal Structures, and Discourse Forms), Sentence and Lexical Choice categories, and the more abstract levels such as the category of Argumentation among others are less attended to and explored.

The study could provide evidence that whereas the choices of the MA students about which discourse structures to explore the most with highest priority did not vary much from the choices of the junior and senior students in undergraduate training for an ideological analysis of the source text, the MA students tended to examine the relevant discourse structures at a relatively higher frequency.

The study could provide evidence that the representing selection of students in English and Persian translator training explore the source discourse critically during translation at fairly low frequency, which can be of concern for the translator trainers and curriculum designers of the current English and Persian translation programs in Iranian higher education.

The study provided evidence to conclude that the current nationwide curricular and pedagogical approach to English translation in Iranian institutions of higher education did not have a constant and consistent influence on the critical approach of English and Persian trainee translators towards the ideological analysis of the source discourse during translation.

The study empirically demonstrated that the English and Persian translation students' choices and priorities of exploring various categories of ideological discourse structures in a critical analysis of the source text in translation were not gender specific. In other writing, how the male and the female English and Persian translators approached the

source discourse during exploring any of the nine discourse categories for ideological representations did not differ significantly.

The study indicated that the lexical choices of the source text producer was of the highest priority to explore for the trained English and Persian translators when seeking ideological representations in the source discourse during translation.

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Appendix A

Rotated Factor Solution of the Ideological Discourse Structures (Khoshsaligheh, 2012)

Variables	Factors								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Paragraphing	.652								
Formality Level	.580								
Event Order	.521								
Title	.499								

Irony	.708					
Metaphor	.642					
Simile	.595					
Comparison	.472					
Polarization & Contrast	.441					
Topics & Themes		.694				
Situation Description		.640				
Local Coherence		.521				
Categorization		.447				
Reasonableness		.405				
Counterfactuals			.699			
Disclaimer			.594			
Litotes & Negation			.537			
Victimization			.459			
Authority			.413			
Evidentiality				.683		
Topoi				.666		
Explanation				.553		
Consensus				.522		
Paraphrase & Synonym					.712	
Repetition					.555	
Word Order					.484	
Hyperbole					.435	
Lexicalization					.409	
Examples						.701
Generalization						.647
Presupposition						.507
Passivization						.678
Sub & Coordination						.660
Sentence Order						.559
Euphemism						.746
Fallacy						.586
Vagueness						.442

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 19 iterations.

Appendix B

Internal Consistency Reliability and Item-Total Statistics (Khoshsaligheh, 2012)

Sub-set	IDSI Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Text Organization		0.70		
	Paragraphing		.494	.624
	Formality Level		.485	.630
	Event Order		.487	.629

	Title		.457	.648
Rhetoric		0.70		
	Irony		.508	.626
	Metaphor		.474	.643
	Simile		.483	.638
	Comparison		.389	.677
	Polarization & Contrast		.424	.663
Meaning & Content		0.73		
	Topics & Themes		.544	.667
	Situation Description		.608	.641
	Local Coherence		.444	.704
	Categorization		.452	.703
	Reasonableness		.427	.712
Argumentation		0.67		
	Counterfactual		.498	.591
	Disclaimer		.448	.612
	Litotes & Negation		.398	.635
	Victimization		.378	.645
	Authority		.417	.627
Evidential Support		0.69		
	Evidentiality		.462	.631
	Topoi		.476	.622
	Explanation		.500	.608
	Consensus		.454	.635
Lexical Choice		0.58		
	Repetition		.347	.519
	Word Order		.422	.459
	Hyperbole		.275	.574
	Lexicalization		.406	.472
Generality		0.54		
	Examples		.392	.371
	Generalization		.343	.452
	Presupposition		.320	.488
Sentence		0.62		
	Passivization		.396	.571
	Subordination & Coordination		.495	.423
	Sentence Order		.403	.560
Unclarity		0.52		
	Euphemism		.287	.481
	Fallacy		.380	.326
	Vagueness		.322	.426

Appendix C

SEM Goodness of Fit Statistics (Khoshsaligheh, 2012)
Degrees of Freedom = 593
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 1837.89 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 1751.69 (P = 0.0)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 1158.69

Appendix D

Ideological Discourse Structures Inventory (IDSI Inventory)

90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (1036.95 ; 1288.02)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 4.20
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 2.65
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (2.37 ; 2.94)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.067
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.063 ; 0.070)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.00

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 4.50
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (4.22 ; 4.80)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 3.21
ECVI for Independence Model = 13.75

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 666 Degrees of Freedom = 5947.35
Independence AIC = 6021.35
Model AIC = 1971.69
Saturated AIC = 1406.00
Independence CAIC = 6209.47
Model CAIC = 2530.98
Saturated CAIC = 4980.40

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.69
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.74
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.62
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.76
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.77
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.65

Critical N (CN) = 162.11

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.066
Standardized RMR = 0.066
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.82
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.79
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.69

- اطلاعات فردی

الف. سال سوم کارشناسی (۱) سال چهارم کارشناسی (۲) دانشجوی کارشناسی ارشد (۳) -
ب. مرد / زن

- توضیحات

خواهشمند است مقدار توجه خود را نسبت به هر یک از اجزا و زیر مجموعه های ساختار متی اجتماعی یا سیاسی مورد مطالعه برای درک و استنباط دیدگاه های پنهان و ایدئولوژی غیرعلنی نگارنده متن، پیش از ترجمه مشخص فرماید. درخواست می شود برای تعین سطح توجه خود یکی از گزینه ها را درمورد هر یک از موارد علامت بزنید. در صورت نیاز به توضیحات اضافه یا درج نظرات از پشت صفحه استفاده فرمایید.

- پرسش ها

		0% Never	25% Seldom	50% Sometimes	75% Often	100% Always
۱	بررسی (metaphor) موارد استفاده از آرایه ادبی استعاره یا استفاده از واژه ای بجای واژه دیگری بدلیل شباهت بین آن دو.	1	2	3	4	5
۲	بررسی (comparison) چگونگی مقایسه های انجام شده در متن ونحوه بررسی شباهت های گروه ها، شخصیت ها ویا حوادث مختلف در متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۳	بررسی (passivization) فعل های مجهول که مفعول در جایگاه نهاد و قبل از فعل قرار می گیرد.	1	2	3	4	5
۴	بررسی (subordination & coordination) چگونگی و نحوه ترکیب جملات ساده در تشکیل جملات مرکب و یا پیچیده.	1	2	3	4	5
۵	بررسی (sentence order) چیدمان و ترتیب جملات درمتن.	1	2	3	4	5
۶	بررسی (title form) اندازه و شیوه نگارش عنوان یا سرخط متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۷	بررسی (euphemism) استفاده از تعابیر مودبانه تر و عباراتی که از لحاظ اجتماعی پذیرفته می باشند بجای واژگانی که در اذهان عمومی نهی شده می باشند.	1	2	3	4	5
۸	بررسی (fallacy) موارد عدم رعایت قواعد معمول و پذیرفته شده در مباحثه همچون ارتباط ضعیف بین دلایل مطرح شده و نتیجه گیری نهایی وغیره.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۰	بررسی (topoi) نحوه استفاده از مفاهیم ومباحثی که درستی آنها توسط اکثریت بدیهی فرض می شوند. مفاهیمی مانند اهمیت دفاع از وطن، ضرورت تلاش برای رفاه خانواده و یا برابری انسانها که درستی آنها برای عموم مخاطبان متن واضح به نظر می رسد.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۱	بررسی (explanation) توضیحات و دلایل توجیه کننده افعال و وقایع مطرح شده در متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۲	بررسی (consensus) مواردی در متن که به بیان خواست و مطالبات اکثریت مردم پرداخته می شود.	1	2	3	4	5

۱۳	بررسی (generalization) چگونگی تعمیم دادن صحت نمونه های مطرح شده به دیگر موارد و عمومیت دادن مثال ها درمقیاس وسیعتر.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۴	(example & illustration) استفاده از مثال ها ونمونه ها برای تایید دیدگاه ها ونظرات مطرح شده.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۵	بررسی (presupposition) بکارگیری مفاهیم و اطلاعاتی در متن که آگاهی از آنها توسط مخاطب متن بدیهی فرض می شوند.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۶	بررسی (irony) موارد استفاده از آرایه ادبی کنایه یا جملات و عباراتی که منظور نگارنده متن از استفاده از آنها چیزی مخالف یا غیر از معنی ظاهری و معمول آنهاست.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۷	بررسی (categorization) نحوه دسته بندی افراد وگروه ها به مجموعه ها و یا زیرمجموعه های مختلف درمتن.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۸	بررسی (lexical choice) انتخاب واژگان و عبارات برای انتقال مفاهیم و حوادث و افعال و ارجاع به گروه ها و شخصیت های مطرح شده در متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۱۹	بررسی (reasonableness) مواردی در متن که منطقی بودن بحث و یا منطقی بودن موافقان بحث مطرح می گردد.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۰	بررسی (repetition) موارد تکرار واژگان و یا مفاهیم در متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۱	بررسی (victimization) مواردی در متن که فرد یا گروهی قربانی اعمال یا تصمیمات گروهی یا فردی دیگر معرفی می شوند.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۲	بررسی (topics & themes) موضوعات و درون مایه های مطرح شده در قسمت های مختلف متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۳	بررسی (situation description) مقدار ارائه جزئیات و چگونگی توصیف موقعیت ها و حوادث مطرح شده در متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۴	بررسی (local coherence) نحوه ایجاد ارتباط و انسجام بین حوادث، وقایع و موقعیت های مختلف در قسمت های مختلف متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۵	بررسی (simile) موارد استفاده از آرایه ادبی تشبیه، که تشبیه کردن دو مورد بر پایه اشتراکی و شباهتی که در صفت یا ویژگی دارند می باشد.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۶	بررسی (polarization) موارد نمونه هایی که مفاهیم، اشخاص و یا گروه ها در تقابل ومتضاد یکدیگر معرفی و یا توصیف می شوند.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۷	بررسی (paraphrase & synonym) کلمات و عبارات مترادف و واژگان با معانی نزدیک.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۸	بررسی (authority) چگونگی و مقدار ارجاعات به افراد مانند متخصصان، مراجع دینی و موسسات مانند سازمان های بین المللی و یا رسانه ها.	1	2	3	4	5
۲۹	بررسی (hyperbole) موارد استفاده آرایه ادبی اغراق یا برجسته نشان دادن صفتی در مورد فرد یا پدیده ای که درعالم واقع امکان دست یابی به آن صفت در آن حد نباشد.	1	2	3	4	5

۳۰	بررسی (word order) اولویت بندی ترتیب و چیدمان واژگان و عبارات در یک جمله یا جمله واره.	1	2	3	4	5
۳۱	بررسی (event order) چیدمان وقایع و ترتیب بیان بخش های حوادث و توصیف موقعیت ها درمتن.	1	2	3	4	5
۳۲	بررسی (disclaimer) مواردی که مسئولیت یا وابستگی نگارنده متن را در قبال مسئله یا مواردی مطرح شده ا انکار می شوند مانند، این راه حل مناسبی می باشد ولی در این موقعیت عملی نمی باشد.	1	2	3	4	5
۳۳	بررسی (paragraphing) تقسیم بندی مطالب متن به پاراگراف ها و یا بندهای مختلف و چیدمان محتویات در پاراگرافها.	1	2	3	4	5
۳۴	بررسی (formality level) سطح رسمیت واژگان و ساختار جملات در متن.	1	2	3	4	5
۳۵	بررسی (litotes) ساختارهایی که برای انتقال مفهومی از عبارت متضاد معنی مدنظر به همراه فعل منفی استفاده می شود. مانند : بد نبود بجای خوب بود.	1	2	3	4	5
۳۶	بررسی (counterfactual) بیان موقعیت ها و یا نتایجی در متن که هنوز تحقق پیدا نکرده اند ولی می توانسته اند در گذشته و یا احتمال دارد در آینده تحقق پیدا کنند.	1	2	3	4	5