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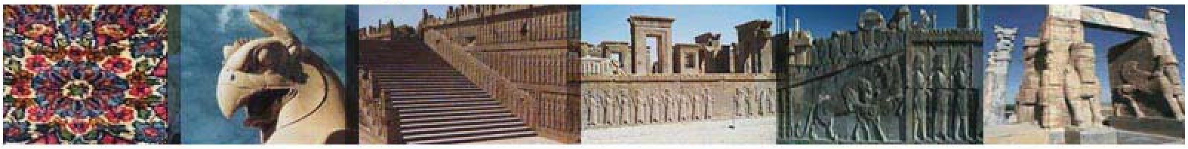

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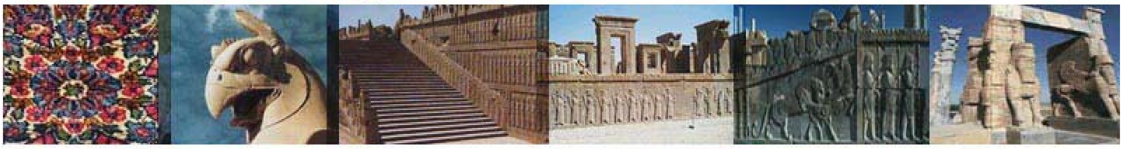

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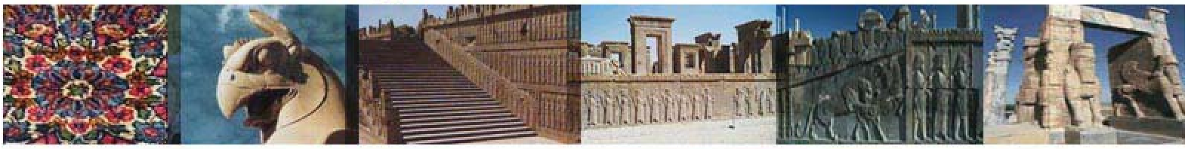

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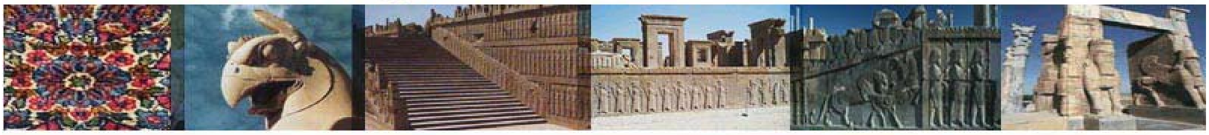

Foreword

Welcome to volume tenth and the special edition of 2014. We are happy to announce that our readership is increasing day by day. For a journal examining the topics of EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies, the growth and readership has been pleasing. Our bi-monthly Journal has attracted many readers not only from the Middle East but also from different parts of the world. In this special edition, we have presented forty articles, discussing different issues of EFL/ESL, literature and translation studies. In the first article of the issue, An Investigation of Discoursal Errors of Iranian EFL Learners is studied by Ali Akbar Khomeijani Farahani and Mahboobe Sadat Tabatabaei Far. In the second article of the issue, Kourosh Akef and Zainab Moosavi have studied Iranian EFL Teachers’ and Students’ Textbook Evaluation. In the third article of the issue, Tooba Mardani has presented Assessment of Marked thematic Structures in the Translated and Non-Translated Persuasive Texts. In the next article, Students’ perception of teachers’ attitudes and learning environment and its relation to risk-taking is presented by Behzad Nasirpour and Elham saed. In the fifth article of the issue, Akbar Azizifar, Ebrahim fariadian and Hoda Gheitasy have presented Analysis of the content of different testing books Based on Iran MA university entrance examination. The next article which is Manipulation in Translation: A Case Study of Milan Kundera’s Three Novels is done by Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh and Ghazaleh Javad. In the seventh article of the issue; Kamran Shakiba Rad has studied Some notes on English learning anxiety in classroom: an Iranian study. In the eighth article of the issue ESP Students' use of Reading Strategies and the Effects of Strategy Training on their Reading Proficiency is studied by Narges Sotoudeh. In the next article, Moslem Zolfagharkhani, Ehteram Tabasi and Omid Etemadi have presented Political Cognition and the Novel. In the tenth article, An Intercultural Rhetoric Investigation: The Effect of Linear and Non-Linear Paragraphs on Students’ Comprehension and Recalling is done by Mohamad Sadegh Tamri and Sajad Yaseri Moghadam.

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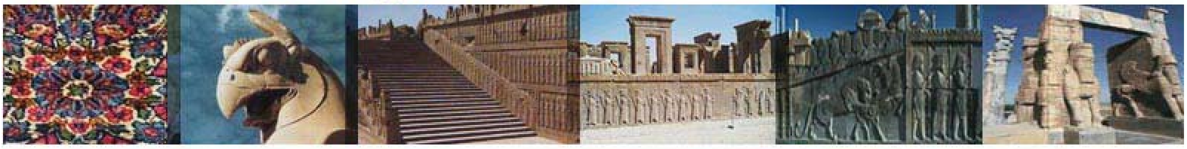

Title

An Investigation of Discoursal Errors of Iranian EFL Learners

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Biodata

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Abstract

As most of the students and teachers are not fully aware of the common properties between target languages (TL) and their mother tongue, it is helpful if the teachers or materials developers have good knowledge not only of the learners' TL but also of their mother tongue. As a result, the reviewing of two approaches, CA and EA, in order to reanalyze and investigate them and finally evaluate their predictive power, can be a vital help for both teachers and learners of a second language. So, the purpose of this study is to examine and evaluate the capacities of contrastive analysis and error analysis in prediction of English errors of Iranian learners. Besides, it was attempted in this study to determine the degree of the mother tongue influence on the TL learning among Iranian EFL learners. This qualitative study has been carried out to investigate the most common discoursal errors in writings of 60 Iranian English students from an institute in Tehran. As the results of this research shows, the most common errors of learners are caused by the mother tongue interference (interlingual), so it can be concluded that CA and EA can help both the teachers and the learners in the learning of a second language through the prediction of their probable discoursal errors.

Keywords: Contrastive analysis, Error analysis, Interference, Interlingual error, intralingual error

1. Introduction

One of the major problems in the process of learning a second language is the interference from the learners' mother tongue. Assuming interference from the first language as a preventing factor for learning a new language, many researchers and teachers are highly interested in the field of contrastive studies of the two languages; mother tongue and target language. Since, until the late sixties, the prevailing theory concerning the second language learning problems was behaviouristic, Contrastive Analysis theory became the ultimate help for the language teaching problems (Corder, 1981).

However, it has been mentioned by the majority of linguists like Filipovic (1975) that the full application of Contrastive Analysis in foreign language teaching can be obtained only if, it is combined with Error Analysis.

According to most studies, in any language learning situation, the learning strategy to reduce speech to a simpler system is employed by every learner and consequently the over-application of these generalization strategies causes the emergence of potential errors in learners 'utterance (Richards, 1974).

As claimed by most of the researchers, the study of English learners ' errors is a facilitator factor for teachers, researchers and learners in overcoming the existing problems in the learning procedure. In addition, as Corder (1981) observes, the learners ' errors are indicative both of the learners ' knowledge state and the ways which are applied to the learning the second language (cited in Richards, 1974). Besides, a survey of error analysis study of some oral interactions showed that the five common discoursal errors made by the learners were, preposition, question, article, plural form of nouns, subject-verb agreement and tense (Ting, Mahadhir & Chang, 2010).

The purpose of this paper is therefore to firstly determine the most common discoursal errors among Iranian EFL learners and then the percentage of discoursal errors which are related to mother tongue (Persian) and finally to investigate if the percentage of Iranian EFL learners' errors supports the claims of C.A for predictability of errors.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The notion that learners‘errors reflect some information about the learner's knowledge of second language is strongly supported by the majority of researchers. According to Richards (1974), the study of the learners' errors does throw light on the kinds of cognitive and linguistic developments of learners which are essential parts of learning process.

According to the existing situation of English learning in Iran it seems that conducting an investigation on discoursal errors of learners in order to find the most frequent errors made by them and finally discovering the most probable reasons for producing such erroneous utterances can make an effective change in the world of the second language learning. Besides, the learners ' errors suggest the strategies the learners employ to work out the rules of the new language and the rules they have developed at given stages of their language development (Richards, 1974).

Considering all these factors, it can be concluded that it is helpful if the teacher or the materials developers has good knowledge not only of the learners' target language but also of their mother tongues, so contrastive studies on discoursal errors of English learners are providing these kinds of assistance for teachers and material writers in order to design syllabuses and prepare teaching materials (Fisiak, 1981).

1.2 Research Questions

To achieve the goals of the present study, the following questions were raised:

$Q_{1:}$ What type of discoursal errors are mostly made by advanced Iranian EFL learners?

$Q_{2:}$ What percentage of Iranian EFL learners' discoursal errors are related to the mother tongue interference

$Q_{3:}$ Does the percentage of Iranian EFL learners' errors support the claims of CA for predictability of errors?

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1 Contrastive Analysis

Until the late sixties, the most common theory concerning the problem of second language learning was behaviorism and it considered the learning as acquiring a set of new language habits. So, as the result of maintaining of mother tongue habits in the new language, the errors were predicted. A major part of applied linguistic research was devoted to comparing the mother tongue and the target language in order to predict or explain the errors made by learners of different language backgrounds. So, the errors which could not be explained in this way were overlooked (Corder, 1981).

In the support of this idea we can refer to the work of Tushyeh (1985) who did a study on the role of language transfer in the acquisition of English as a second language as indicated in the production of relative clauses. Analysis of adult Arab students' written responses to a variety of test types revealed that firstly language transfer is a significant factor in second language acquisition; secondly, there is a distinction between inferencing transfer and non-inferencing transfer; and thirdly, in addition to strategies already known in the field such as transfer, simplification, and overgeneralization, the Arab students employ various perceptual and production strategies. The responses of these learners indicate that both interlingual and intralingual errors are found in their interlanguage. As a result, an adequate account of the process of second language acquisition has to include a multifactor approach in which the first and second languages, transfer, other production and perceptual strategies, and language universals play complementary roles (Tushyeh, 1985).

Finally, it should be taken into account that predictability of interference and errors is not the sole purpose of contrastive studies and it has never been claimed that interference is the only source of errors (James, as cited in Fisiak, 1981).

2.2 Interference

The Contrastive Analysis is based on the assumption that second language learners will tend to transfer the formal features of their L1 into their L2 utterances as Lado says, "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture" (Lado, 1957, as cited in James, 1980).

Indeed he says that CA is effective in the diagnosis and remediation of learner's errors, if it focuses on areas of slight relative difference which may tempt the learner to transfer from L1 (Lado, 1957). Besides, George (1972) supports this view by claiming that approximately one third of all errors made by target language learners can be traced to native language interference. In other words the main rationale for the theory of C.A can be the phenomenon of transfer which refers to the hypothesis that the learning of a task is either facilitated (positive transfer) or impeded (negative transfer) by the previous learning task (Sridhar as cited in Fisiak, 1981).Considering both aspects of the L1-L2 relationship or positive and negative interference, some studies attempt to investigate learners ' errors and finally concluded that in view of mixed research results and the limitations of existing knowledge, it is best to view L1 as a contributing factor in L2 development (Noor,1994). Additionally, Lott (1983) says that mother tongue does not interfere though it does not give any guide to the learner and Nickel (1971) says that in some cases direct and indirect interferences can be distinguished from each other. Dulay and Burt (1974) define interference as the automatic transfer of the structures of the source language due to habit (as cited in Ranganayaki, 1984).

2.3 Significance of Errors

According to Corder, errors are significant and beneficial to teachers, researchers and learners. Keshavarz (2008), in line with Richards (1971), remarks that errors are beneficial to both linguists and psycholinguists. Jain (1974) also says that errors are significant for two reasons:

1) Understanding the process of second-language acquisition

2) Planning courses incorporating the psychology of second-language learning

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The respondents of this study include 60 advanced female Iranian English learners studying in some English institutes of Tehran. All had similar educational background, i.e., all in advanced level.

3.2 Instrumentation

In order to provide the quantitative data for the study, the students were requested to write compositions in their intended subjects.In order to show the real competence of students, they were unaware of details of this research study but after the writings were gathered, they were informed of the whole of the study, besides, before starting, the students were asked about their intention about taking part in the research study.

3.3 Procedure

As stated, the purpose of this study was to create a better understanding of the interplay between the mother tongue (Persian) and errors which are made by advanced Iranian learners in English. Such a focus leads to the gathering writings from some advanced learners in order to investigate their errors. The writings were collected from students of several institutes during a three-month period course. In order to instruct the teachers and then the learners about the research procedure, the researcher at first explained to the teachers what the study process is and then the teacher should give a writing assignment to students in writing class according the purposes of the study. As mentioned before, the students from which the data were collected were all female and were studying in advanced level. After finishing the data gathering (the writings), they were collected three times by three teachers in order to homogenize the results. Then, errors were classified into several categories as mentioned in following tables in this chapter. The discoursal errors were classified at first into global and local errors and then they were divided into omission, addition, substitution and permutation or wrong ordering.

The main and only material used in this study was the students' writings.

4. Results and Discussion

As the figure 1 shows, the highest percent of the learners' errors (58%) is allocated to the interlingual category. Moreover, it should be noted that since the main aim of this study is determining the amount of mother tongue interference on learners 'errors, " transfer of training" as a source of errors, has been ignored intentionally.

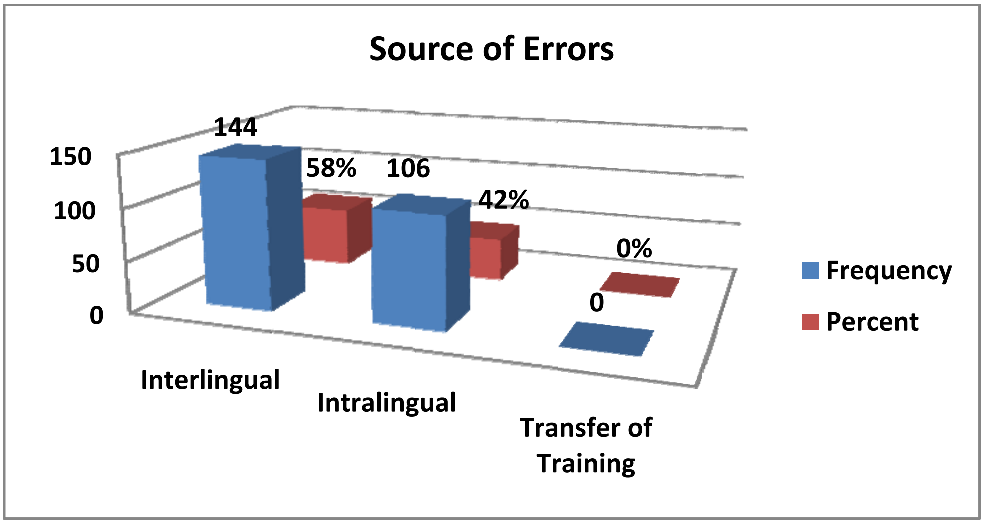

Figure 1: Sources of Errors

As it is clear in the figure 2, most of the discoursal errors committed by advanced Iranian EFL learners are included in the local part (91/2%).

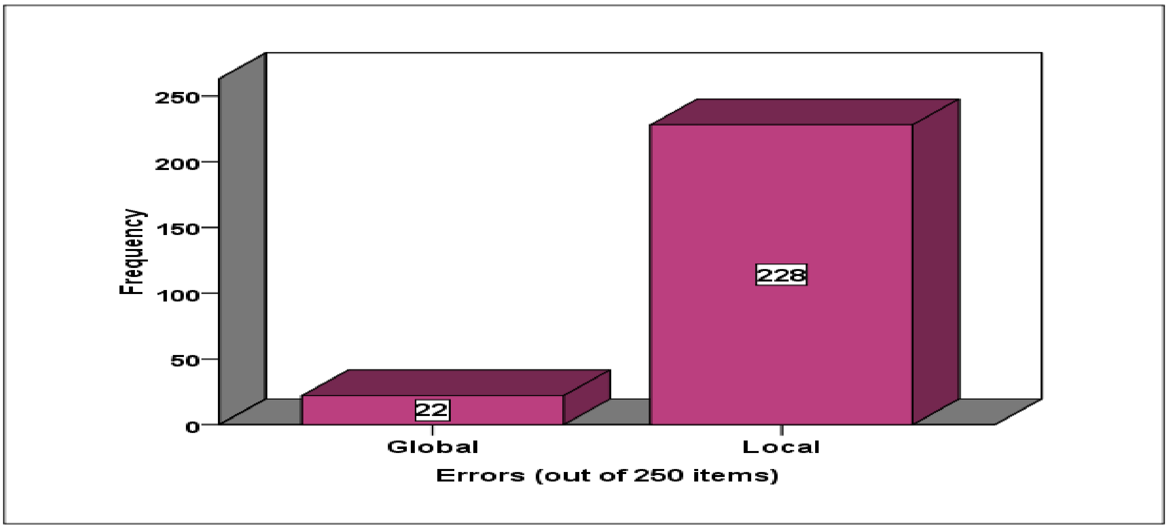

Figure 2: *Global Errors versus Local Errors*

It can easily be found from the figure 3 that the most common interlingual errors produced by Iranian EFL learners are grammatical (49%) and the least common are the morphological ones(4%).

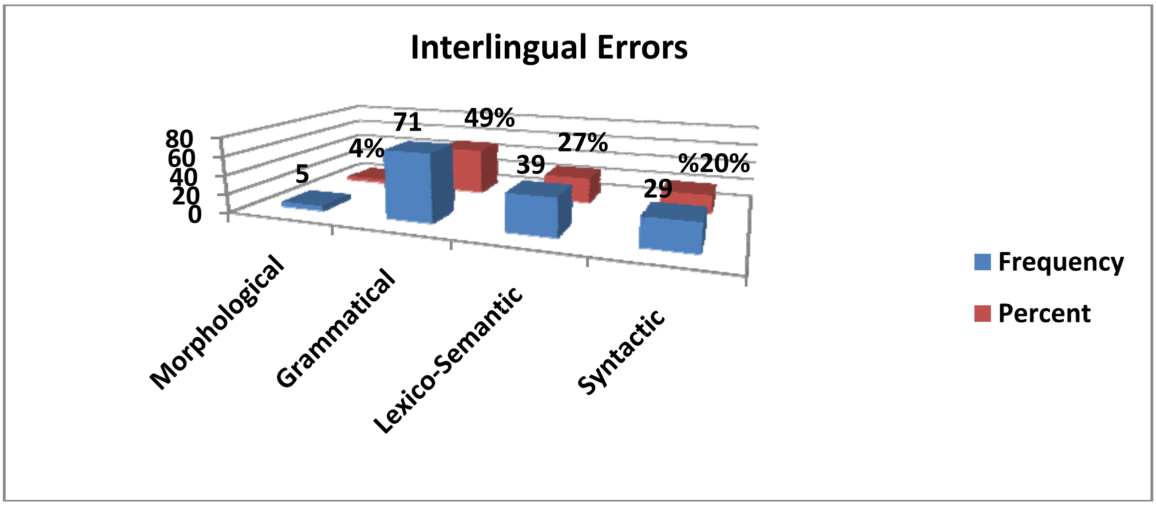

Figure 3: Interlingual Error

According to figure 4, the majority of intralingual errors are attributed to the overgeneralization(51%) and the ignorance of rule resstriction (1%)allocates the least percent itself.

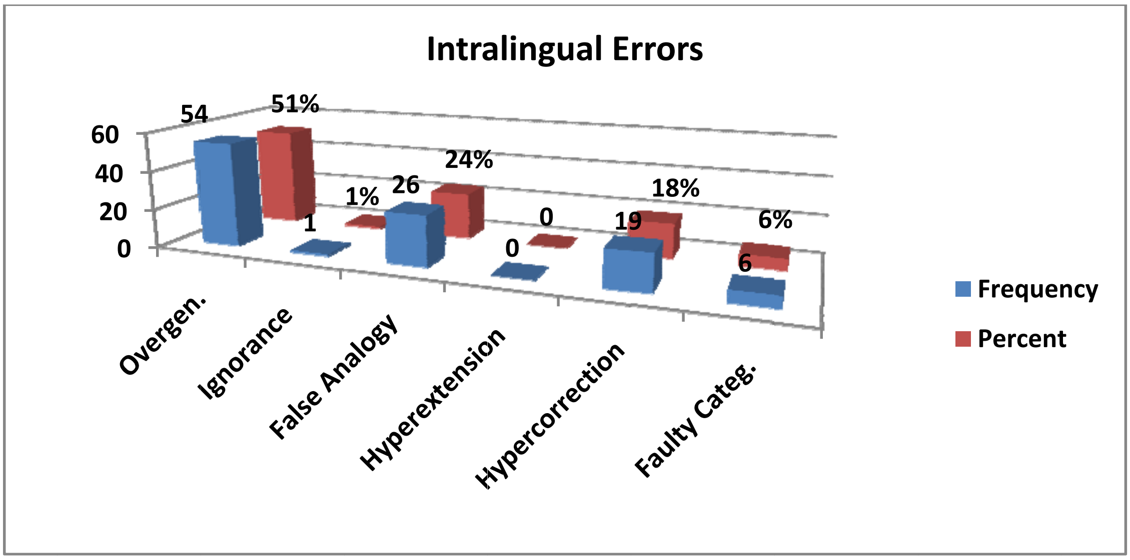

Figure 4: Intralingual and Developmental Errors

Regarding the figure 5, it is obvious that syntactico-morphological (70%) errors are the most prevalent and the lexico-semantic(30%) errors are the least common ones.

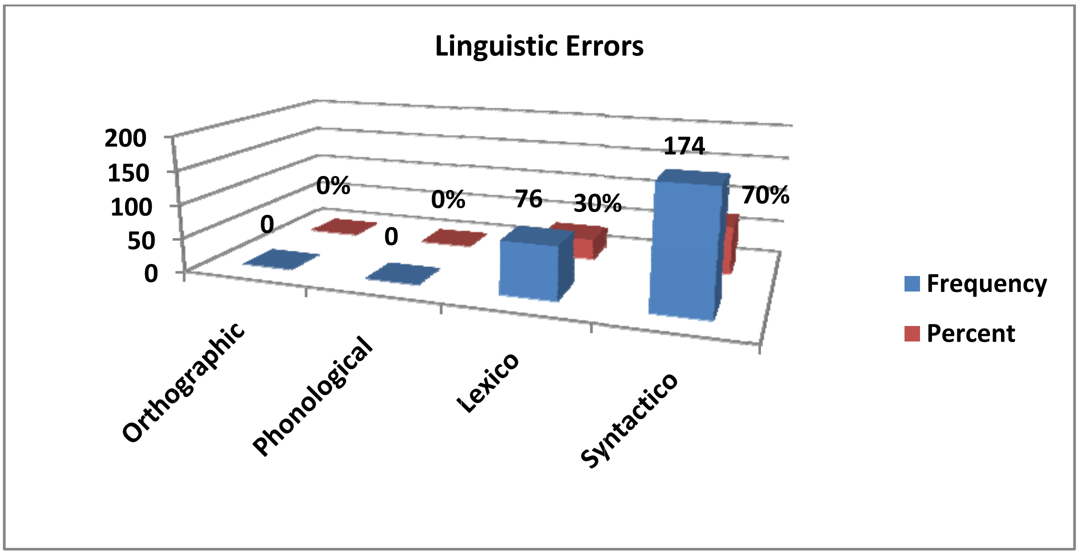

Figure 5: Linguistic Taxonomy of Errors

According to the figure 6, most of the discoursal errors are included in the "substitution"category (61%) and on the other hand the permutation or wrong ordering(2%) includes the least errors.

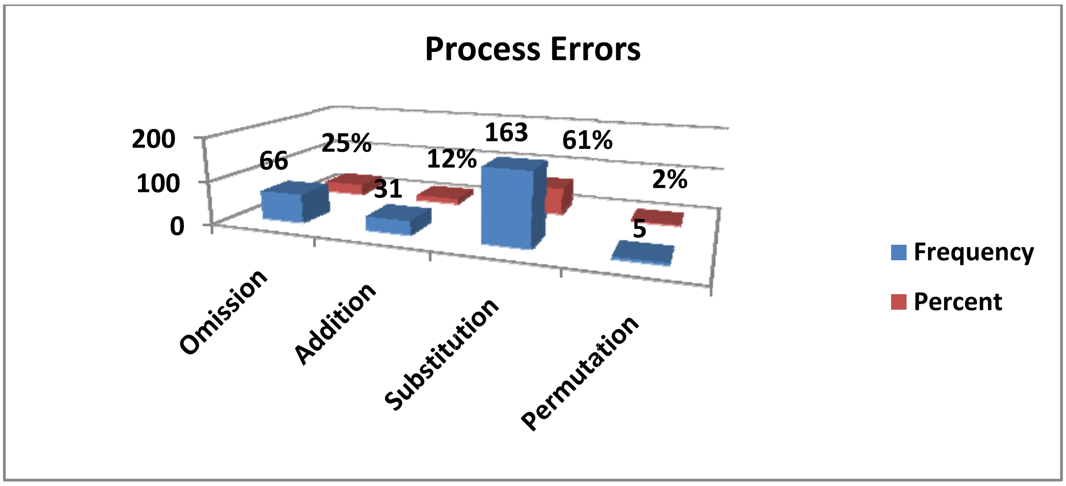

Figure6: Processes of Errors

According to figures 7 and 8, the most common syntactic-morphological errors of learners are related to errors of prepositions (24/8%).

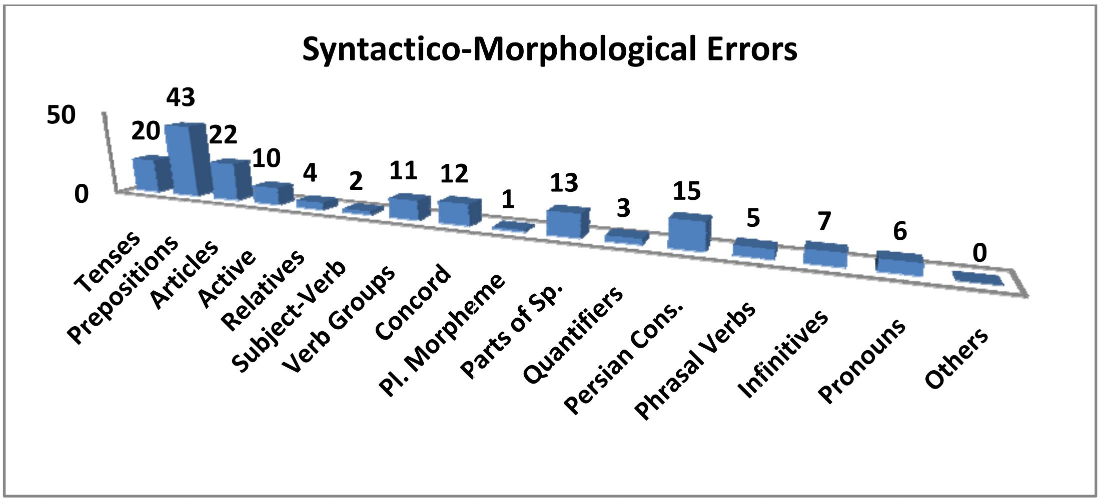

Figure 7: Syntactico-Morphological Errors (based on Frequency)

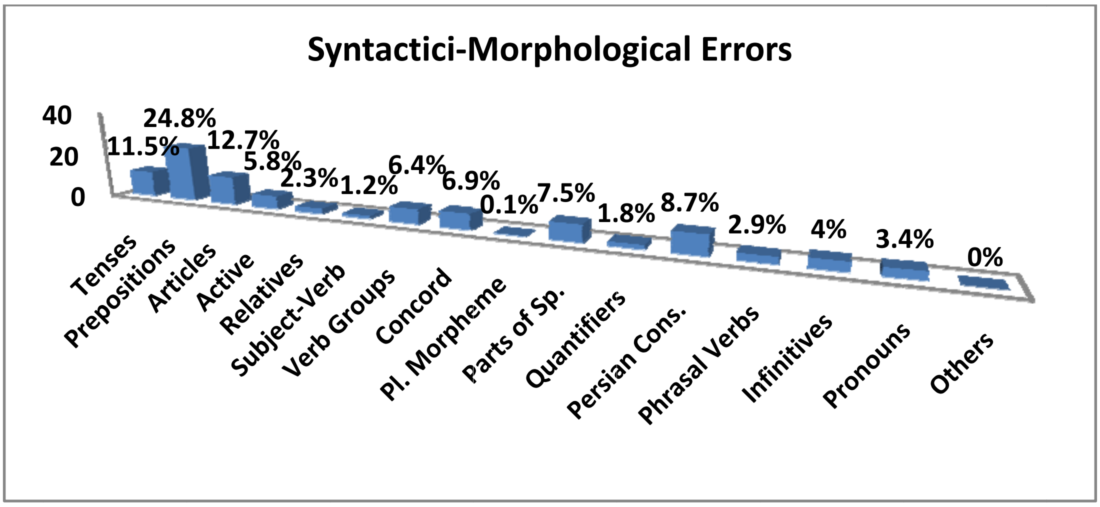

Figure 8: Syntactico-Morphological Errors (based on Percentage)

5. Conclusion

The view of the mother tongue interference in language learning has always inspired many teachers to take advantage of the learners' errors in the improvement of learning English. According to the result of this study and the previous ones as mentioned before, it can be concluded that CA and EA are still applicable in the field of predicting the learners' syntactic errors, as was studied on Iranian EFL learners. Since, these two approaches can predict errors to some extent, it can be said that error analysis and contrastive analysis can be a great help to learners, classroom teachers and test makers to design the syllabus and tests (Grauberg, 1971; George, 1972; Tran-Thi-Chau, 1974 as cited in Keshavarz (2008)).

Regarding research questions of this study, it was found that the most prevalent errors among learners were related to their mother tongue and were 58%. As the finding showed and another study conducted by Corder (1981) too, a large number but not all of the learners' errors are related to the system of the mother tongue.

In conclusion and in answering the third research question of this research, as Sanders claims, it can be said that contrastive analysis and error analysis can still be used in language teaching (as cited in Fisiak, 1981).

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Title

Iranian EFL Teachers' and Students' Textbook Evaluation

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Abstract

This study is an attempt to evaluate the suitability and effectiveness of the EFL textbook series 'Passages Second Edition', taught at EFL institutes in Iran. To this end, two textbook evaluation checklists, modified version of Alamri's (2008), were submitted to 10 EFL teachers and 30 advanced learners in Mashhad to collect feedback on the content of the newly-written series. The researcher used three different types of computations to analyze the data statistically: a per-statement analysis, a per-category analysis, and a Mann-Whitney U test. The qualitative data obtained were analyzed for frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. The research findings demonstrated that both the teachers and the students were generally satisfied with the series, except for its design and illustration and some other sub-items. The results also revealed that the students and the teachers shared the same ideas about most areas and criteria related to the textbooks. Hopefully, the findings provide feedback for textbook developers, decision and policy makers about the textbooks and how they can be developed and modified.

Keywords: EFL, Textbook series, Evaluation, Checklists, Design and illustration

1. Introduction

English language teaching (ELT) textbooks play an important role in language classrooms. Textbooks not only represent "the visible heart of any ELT programme" (Sheldon, 1988, p.237), but also "play an important role in language teaching and provide a useful resource for both teachers and learners" (Çakit, 2006, p.4). Accordingly, a textbook is considered as a teaching material for the teacher and a learning material for the learner and is regarded as one of the essential aspects of the total teaching and learning process (Awasthi, 2006).

Another point leading to the significance of textbooks lie behind the notion Hutchinson and Torres (1994) have held:

> The textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in various countries...No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook. (p.315)

Cunningsworth (1995) takes us a step further related to the other roles that a textbook plays, viewing a textbook as an effective resource for self-directed learning, a support for less experienced teachers, an effective source of presentation of materials, a source of ideas and activities, a syllabus, and a reference source for students.

Therefore, the dominant role that ELT textbooks play in the learning of EFL learners proves the importance of evaluation and selection of an appropriate textbook. On the other hand, it is necessary for teachers to make an evaluation in order to discriminate between all the textbooks on the market and choose the most appropriate ones in language teaching. As Cunningsworth (1995) maintains that teachers should ensure "that careful selection is made and that the materials selected closely reflect the needs of the learners and the aims, methods and values of the teaching program" (p. 7). Awasthi (2006) extends this view stating, "it is through the evaluation of textbook a teacher knows the content of the book, the style in which it is written, and its strength and weaknesses" (p. 5). Consequently, it is essential that teachers carefully apply explicit and systematic criteria for the evaluation of a particular textbook (Burns, 2003).

2. Theoretical and Empirical Studies

One of the common ways to evaluate textbooks is through the use of checklists based on generalizable criteria (Mustapha, 2008). Such checklists have been designed to help teachers make more objective judgments about what Hutchinson (1987, p. 37) believes to be, "the single most important decision that the language teacher has to make" (as cited in Davies, 2006, p. 4). As Gearing (1999) puts it, “Numerous evaluation checklists have been designed to help teachers make a systematic selection of textbooks” (p. 122). However, these checklists, he goes on to say, “vary in the extent to which they can be adapted to meet specific circumstances” (Gearing, 1999, p.122).

Ur (1996) offered a checklist for textbook evaluation which was composed of 19 features. Although the checklist seems easy to follow, includes clear terms, and considers several important detailed points, it is not balanced in terms of the features of language items, skills, physical aspects of a book, etc.

Sheldon (1988) suggested another checklist which contained two main sections: factual details and factors. Factual details included the title, publisher, author, physical size, price, duration of the course, target learner, teacher, and skill. Factors contained 53 questions classified under 17 major categories: rationale, availability, user definition, layout/graphics, accessibility, linkage, selection/grading, physical characteristics, appropriacy, authenticity, sufficiency, cultural bias, educational validity, stimulus/practical revision, flexibility, guidance, and overall value for money. The checklist considered both detailed and major points which seemed to be a good source of ideas or a reference in writing materials or developing checklists. However, Peterson (1998) found numerous problems with Sheldon’s checklist. For example, the checklist is not objective because much of the information obtained is from the author’s rationale. In addition, most of her questions can be answered by just looking at the table of contents, or examining the author’s rationale at the beginning of the book.

McDonough and Shaw (2005) proposed a two-stage model for textbook evaluation: external evaluation and internal evaluation. The external evaluation includes an examination of claims made by the author/ publisher on the cover of the students and teachers' book, introduction and table of contents statements with respect to the intended audience, the proficiency level, the context and presentation of language items, the author’s views on language and methodology. The external evaluation also covers the other factors:

- Are the materials to be used as the main core course or to be supplementary to it?
- Is a teacher’s book in print and locally available?
- Is a vocabulary list included?
- What visual material does the book contain?

- Is the presentation clear or cluttered?
- Is the material too culturally biased or specific?
- Do the materials represent minority groups and/or women in a negative way?
- The inclusion of audio/video material and resultant cost;
- The inclusion of test.

Following this is an in-depth internal investigation of the material, "to analyse the extent to which the aforementioned factors in the external evaluation stage actually match up with the internal consistency and organization of the materials as stated by the author/publisher" (McDonough & Shaw, 2005, pp.66-67).

A number of practical studies on ELT textbook evaluation have been done to check the suitability of English language textbooks. In the case study, Litz (2005) conducted an evaluation of "English Firsthand 2" in South Korea. The purpose of the study was to determine the pedagogical value and suitability of the textbook towards the language program. He developed a series of textbook evaluation questionnaires which were provided to eight teachers and 500 students. The questionnaires consisted of points about:

A. practical considerations
B. layout and design
C. activities
D. skills
E. language type
F. subject and content
G. overall consensus

One important point is that the questionnaires contain comprehensible items and examine various aspects. However, since the rating system is based on 10-point scale, the users are not able to judge the appropriateness of each.

Jahangard (2007) also conducted an evaluation to identify the merits and demerits of four EFL textbooks taught at Iranian public high schools. Jahangard examined the textbooks with regard to 13 common criteria extracted from 10 materials evaluation checklists. Although most items in the checklist consider valuable points, the rating system is descriptive and it is not possible to display the results graphically.

In addition to the studies mentioned above, Razmjoo (2007) also evaluated the textbooks of the Iranian high school and private institutes (the Interchange series) descriptively and inferentially to identify the extent to which these textbooks represented Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles. These materials were analyzed by 20 experienced teachers of the two domains, using an evaluation scheme adapted from a hybrid of available textbook evaluation schemes. The analysis of data indicated that, in contrast to high school textbooks, private institute textbooks highly represent the CLT principles.

In his MA thesis, Özdemir (2007) carried out an evaluation study to find out how the fourth grade students in public schools and the fourth grade English teachers evaluated the English course book "Time for English 4". To fulfill this aim, two questionnaires were administered to both teachers and students, and an interview was held with six teachers. The results of the study showed that both learners and teachers were satisfied with the course book in general, and they found it effective in meeting their needs related to language learning and teaching. The findings also showed that students were more satisfied with the course book than the teachers were.

More relevant to the present study, Alamri (2008) evaluated the quality of the Sixth Grade English Language Textbook for Saudi Boy's Schools. A comprehensive questionnaire was adapted from other pre-existing checklists (Tomlison, et al., 2001; Ereksoussy, 1993; Thein, 2006; Al-Hajailan, 2003; as cited in Alamri, 2008) to elicit the viewpoints of English language teachers and supervisors in Riyadh Educational Zone about the textbook. The questionnaire consisted of 64 closed-ended questions grouped under 12 main categories:

a) the general appearance
b) design and illustration
c) accompanying materials
d) objectives
e) topic contents
f) language contents
g) social and cultural contexts
h) language skills
i) teachability
j) flexibility
k) teaching methods
l) practice and testing

The study found that the textbook satisfied teachers' and supervisors' expectations regarding its design and illustration, accompanying materials, objectives, topic appropriateness, language component, socio-cultural contexts, skills development, teacheability, flexibility, and activities. The results also revealed that there were no significant differences between the means of teachers and supervisors except on the flexibility of the textbook.

It is necessary to indicate that although the present study took most items of the questionnaire from Alamri's checklist, the present study is distinctive from different perspectives. A number of changes were done to make the questionnaire suitable for the actual context of the study. The number of the questions was reduced to 40 in the present study. Another important point about the present study is that it considered both teachers' and learners' attitudes towards the textbooks since the researcher agrees with Çakit (2006) as he states "since the primary users of textbooks are the instructors and the learners, evaluation should be carried out while both parties are using the textbook so as to get their opinions about how the textbook works in the teaching learning situation" (p. 7).

2. Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to assess the strengths, weaknesses, and suitability of a series of EFL textbooks, Passages (2nd edition), which is taught to the advanced students in EFL private institutes in Iran. This series has been written by Jack C. Richards and Chuck Sandy in 2008. The researcher hopes to raise ELT teachers' awareness of how to carry out the evaluation procedure in a systematic way. In other words, this study provides appropriate guidance for ELT teachers and program administrators to find out strengths and weaknesses in the textbooks, make use strong points, and adapt or substitute from other textbooks. By achieving these objectives, it is hoped that the quality of ELT textbooks can be improved based on the perceptions and suggestions of the teachers and the students. As such, the present study seeks answers to the following questions:

1) To what extent are Iranian EFL teachers and students satisfied with the Passages series (2nd edition)?
2) Is there any statistically significant difference between the attitudes of the teachers and students towards Passages series (2nd edition)?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants were 10 EFL teachers, attending and teaching advanced-level classrooms at the time of the study, and 30 advanced-level students who had already experienced the series and seemed capable enough in understanding the items of the questionnaires. All of the advanced level teachers and learners in selected EFL institutes were participated in the study to provide relevant information required to evaluate the series.

Most of the teachers (80%) were in their thirties while only two of them (20%) were over forty. They had at least three years of experience of teaching the textbooks in question, and had more than eleven years experience in teaching English as a foreign language in language teaching centers in Iran. Nearly all (90%) of the teachers held an M.A. degree. All of the learners were female and their ages were ranged from 18 to 21. Gender and age variables were controlled, as they were not related to the purpose of this particular study.

3.2. Instrumentation

A questionnaire was administered to gather the perceptions of both teachers and students on the content of the textbooks. The questionnaire with a likert scale format, modified version of Alamri's (2008), consisted of two main parts: Part A, and Part B. Part A obtained background information about the teachers and the learners. Part B included 40 items grouped under eight main categories: (A) General Appearance; (B) Design and Illustration; (C) Accompanying Materials; (D) Topic Contents; (E) Language Contents; (F) Social and Cultural Contexts; (G) Language Skills; (H) Exercises and Activities. The weighting system was based on a four-point scale ranging from one up to four where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, 4=strongly agree.

3.3. Procedures and Data Collection

The questionnaire was first piloted with five linguists and specialists and 15 advanced-level students to judge its validity. After receiving feedback from the participating teachers and students, the necessary modifications were made in order to provide more valuable, interpretable responses. Then, 40 copies of the revised questionnaire were distributed among the teachers and students by the researcher.

It should be mentioned that, before enumerating the results, in order to determine the reliability of the results for the questionnaire, the internal consistency method was used. One of the most commonly used statistical techniques to estimate internal consistency reliability is Cronbach's alpha (α) (Pallant, 2001). According to Radhakrishna (2007), a reliability coefficient (alpha) of .70 or higher is considered acceptable reliability. Overall reliability of all the eight sections in the questionnaire was 0.75, which are suitable for conducting such a study.

Finally, the items were evaluated on a four-point scale and they ranged between strongly disagree to strongly agree. Since the distributed questionnaires consisted of eight distinctive sections, the results of each were considered independently. The researcher found percentage, frequency, mean, and standard deviation for individual items of the questionnaire.

4. Results and Discussion

This section presents the analyses of the results of the study which aims to investigate teachers' and learners' attitudes towards the EFT textbook series, Passages Second Edition, designed for advanced students. The results of the study were statistically treated to identify the frequencies, percentages, mean scores, and standard deviation for individual statements separately from the overall sample, and the overall mean and standard deviation for the main categories of the questionnaire. In addition, this section indicated statistically significant differences in the attitudes of teachers and learners towards the Passages series (2nd edition).

4.1. The Results of the Questionnaire

This part provides a detailed analysis of the data obtained through the questionnaires in order to answer the first research question of the study.

5.1.1. General Appearance

A number of the scholars have highlighted the attractiveness of the physical appearance of the materials (Cunningsworth, 1995; Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979; McDonough & Shaw, 2005). Table 1 shows the results obtained from the perceptions of both students and teachers about the general appearance of the series.

Table 1: Students' and Teachers' Views about General Appearance

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
1	5	12.5	10	25	17	42.5	8	20	2.70	.939
2			1	2.5	24	60	15	37.5	3.35	.533
3			6	15	21	52.5	13	32.5	3.18	.675
	General Appearance								3.08	.443

As indicated in table 1, the mean scores for the statements related to this category ranges from 2.70 to 3.35. Most of the participants either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements of this category. It should also be noted that the results concerning the related items are similar to Aqel's (2009) study. Similar to this study, the results revealed that the participants agreed on the attractiveness of the general shape of the textbook.

4.1.2. Design and Illustration

Table 2 presents the results of both students' and teachers' perceptions about the design and illustration of the series.

Table 2: Students' and Teachers' Views about Design and Illustration

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
4	3	7.5	2	5	23	57.5	12	30	3.10	.810
5	12	30	22	55	5	12.5	1	2.5	1.88	.723
6	1	2.5	18	45	13	32.5	8	20	2.70	.823
7	7	17.5	13	32.5	13	32.5	7	17.5	2.50	.987
8	5	12.5	14	35	18	45	3	7.5	2.48	.816
9	12	30	15	37.5	12	30	1	2.5	2.05	.846
10	1	2.5	18	45	16	40	5	12.5	2.63	.740
11	2	5	30	75	5	12.5	3	7.5	2.22	.660
	Design and Illustration								2.44	.368

With regard to Design and Illustration, participants' perceptions were negative, with a total mean of 2.44. The exception to this pattern was Statement 4, in which over 87 % of the participants thought that the layout and design are appropriate and clear, and Statement 6, where over 52% of the participants agreed that the series has a complete and detailed table of contents. The lowest value in this category (M=1.88, SD=.723) belonged to Statement 5, where only 15% of the participants believed that there is enough white space to achieve clarity. However, Tomlinson, et al. (2001) put emphasis on the importance of having "enough white space to provide relief and clarity" (p.89).

4.1.3. Accompanying Materials

Table 3 summarizes the results of both students' and teachers' perceptions about the accompanying materials.

Table 3: Students' and Teachers' Views about Accompanying Materials

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
12	8	20	11	27.5	19	47.5	2	5	2.38	.868
13			1	2.5	26	65	13	32.5	3.30	.516
	Accompanying Materials								2.84	.511

Findings presented in Table 3 indicate that more than half of the participants (52.5%) believed that the workbook that accompanies the series includes suitable supplementary activities. An extremely high percentage of the participants (97.5%) also supported that CD-ROM that accompanies the series is suitable**.** The use of CD-ROM and cassettes is one of the interesting and effective ways in the current generation of language teaching materials since they provide "the learners with opportunities to listen to the language being used" (Tomlinson, et al., 2001, p.90).

4.1.4. Topic Contents

Table 4 presents the results of both students' and teachers' opinions towards the effectiveness of topic contents of the series.

Table 4: Students' and Teachers' Views about Topic Contents

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
14	1	2.5	10	25	21	52.5	8	20	2.90	.744
15	1	2.5	11	27.5	13	32.5	15	37.5	3.05	.876
16	1	2.5	5	12.5	19	47.5	15	37.5	3.20	.758
17	2	5	5	12.5	13	32.5	20	50	3.28	.877
18	2	5	1	2.5	19	47.5	18	45	3.33	.764
	Topic Contents								3.15	.581

The mean scores of the items related to this category show that the participants were satisfied with the topic contents of the series. In this respect, many researchers have highlighted the issue of topic appropriateness of a textbook (Sheldon, 1988; Cunningsworth, 1995; Hemsley, 1997; Littlejohn, 1998).

4.1.5. Language Contents

The evaluation of language components has been stressed in many of the studies (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1995; Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979; Hemsley, 1997; Tomlinson, 2003; Ur, 1996). Table 5 summarizes the results of the section related to the attitudes of both students' and teachers' towards the language contents of the series.

Table 5: Students' and Teachers' Views about Language Contents

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
19			4	10	14	35	22	55	3.45	.677
20	1	2.5	16	40	21	52.5	2	5	2.60	.632
21	10	25	21	52.5	4	10	5	12.5	2.10	.928
22	4	10	18	45	16	40	2	5	2.40	.744
23	4	10	11	27.5	21	52.5	4	10	2.62	.807
24	1	2.5	10	25	21	52.5	8	20	2.90	.744
	Language Contents								2.68	.319

As Table 5 indicates, the mean scores for the items related to this category ranges from 2.10 to 3.45. One of the most striking findings of this study was that a majority of the participants (72.5%) did not believe that the series includes adequate material for pronunciation work. However, the vast majority of the participants (90%) supported the statement that grammar rules are presented with clear and simple explanations (M=3.45, SD=.677). According to Cunningsworth (1995), it is through effective teaching of grammar that learners are equipped with "the ability to create their own utterances and use language for their own purpose" (p.32).

4.1.6. Social and Cultural Contexts

The appropriateness of the social and cultural contexts is one of the mostly mentioned criteria in evaluating a textbook or a teaching material by several researchers (Griffiths, 1995; McDonough & Shaw, 2005; Williams, 1983). Table 6 presents the results of students' and teachers' responses related to the social and cultural contexts in the series.

Table 6: Students' and Teachers' Views about Social and Cultural Contexts

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
25	2	5	13	32.5	16	40	9	22.5	2.80	.853
26	4	10	11	27.5	14	35	11	27.5	2.80	.966
27			9	22.5	21	52.5	10	25	3.03	.698
	Social and Cultural Contexts								2.87	.578

Table 6 shows that the participants found the Passages series (2^{nd} edition) very effective in terms of the social and cultural contexts (M= 2.87, SD=.578). The highest mean in this category (M= 3.03, SD=.698) belongs to Statement 27, in which 77.5% of the participants believed that the series expresses positive views of ethnic origins, occupations, age groups, social groups and disability.

4.1.7. Language Skills

Table 7 presents the results of the responses given to the language skill part of the questionnaire.

Table 7: Students' and Teachers' Views about Language Skills

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
28			12	30	19	47.5	9	22.5	2.93	.730
29	13	32.5	7	17.5	14	35	6	15	2.32	1.095
30			16	40	14	35	10	25	2.85	.802
31	1	2.5	6	15	16	40	17	42.5	3.23	.800
32	1	2.5	6	15	15	37.5	18	45	3.25	.809
33	11	27.5	10	25	14	35	5	12.5	2.33	1.023
	Language Skills								2.82	.454

It is evident from the table above that that teachers' and students' perceptions about the language skills of the series seemed to be positive (M= 2.82, SD=.454). It should be mentioned that evaluating language skills is essential for most scholars (e.g., Garinger, 2002; McDonough & Shaw, 2005; Ur, 1996). However, it is obvious from the results that the material designers ignored the importance of the writing activities. Unlike the present study, the results of Alamri's (2008) study revealed that there was a complete consensus that writing activities are suitable in terms of length, degree of accuracy, and amount of guidance.

4.1.8. Exercises and Activities

Many authors like Garinger (2002), Grant (1987), and Skierso (1991), perceived exercises and activities very important in the materials evaluation and included items related to the particular aspect in their criteria and checklists. Table 8 indicates the results obtained from the attitudes of both students and teachers towards exercises and activities of the series.

Table 8: Students' and Teachers' Views about Exercises and Activities

No	1		2		3		4		Mean	Std. Deviation
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
34	3	7.5	15	37.5	11	27.5	11	27.5	2.75	.954
35	5	12.5	5	12.5	21	52.5	9	22.5	2.85	.921
36			3	7.5	25	62.5	12	30	3.22	.577
37	4	10	13	32.5	13	32.5	10	25	2.73	.960
38			7	17.5	18	45	15	37.5	3.20	.723
39			2	5	28	70	10	25	3.20	.516
40	5	12.5	22	55	12	30	1	2.5	2.23	.698
	Exercises and Activities								2.88	.350

The mean values for the statements related to this category ranged from 2.23 to 3.22. As indicated in table 8, the highest mean value is for Item 36 (M=3.22, SD=.577), in which 92.5% of the participants believed that every exercise has a clear direction. The lowest value in the eighth category belongs to Item 40 (M=2.23, SD=.698), where most of the participants (67.5%) believed that the series failed to provide models for final achievement tests. Generally, the results showed that the participants were satisfied with the presentation of the exercises and activities of the series (M=2.88, SD=.350).

4.2. The Differences between Students' and Teachers' Ratings

In order to test for differences between the responses of the teachers and students with respect to the eight main categories, Mann Whitney U test was conducted. Table 9 outlines statistically significant differences between the ratings of the two groups, teachers and students.

Table 9: Equality and Variance between Teachers' and Students' Ratings

Category	Group	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp.Sig
General Appearance	Student	23.22	696.50	68.500*	-2.630	.009
	Teacher	12.35	123.50			
Design and Illustration	Student	19.12	573.50	108.500	-1.307	.191
	Teacher	24.65	246.50			
Accompanying Materials	Student	18.33	550.00	85.000*	-2.165	.030
	Teacher	27.00	270.00			
Topic Contents	Student	21.38	641.50	123.500	-.838	.402
	Teacher	17.85	178.50			
Language Contents	Student	21.15	634.50	130.500	-.619	.536
	Teacher	18.55	185.50			
Social and Cultural Contexts	Student	20.02	600.50	135.500	-.464	.643
	Teacher	21.95	219.50			
Language Skills	Student	18.40	552.00	87.000*	-1.987	.047
	Teacher	26.80	268.00			
Exercises and Activities	Student	19.88	596.50	131.500	-.583	.560
	Teacher	22.35	223.50			

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of the Mann Whitney U test indicate that there are statistically significant differences in the three main categories between students' and teachers' ratings of the questionnaire since their probability value (p) is less than 0.05. These categories are General Appearance, Accompanying Materials, and Language Skills. Teachers rated the categories of the questionnaire more highly than the students, except for General Appearance, which the students rated more favorably than the teachers. The different needs, interests, and expectation of two groups might be the reasons behind these differences.

5. Conclusion

The study tried to evaluate the effectiveness of the Passages series (2nd edition) by considering both teachers' and students' perceptions**.** The results indicated that both of the groups were satisfied with the series at a very high level, except for its design and illustration. The results also showed that the students and the teachers seemed to share the same ideas about the series except on the three categories; namely, General Appearance, Accompanying Materials, and Language Skills. The present study has provided certain pedagogical implications. It is hoped that these suggestions would be a great help for EFL teachers, English textbook developers, publishers, educational administrators, and policy makers in the future development of teaching materials.

1. It is important for ELT teachers to become more aware of and familiar with how to make the most effective use of a textbook, and how to conduct materials evaluation and adaptation for materials since "Teaching materials have a direct influence on the process of learning and teaching" (Alamri, 2008, p.3). In addition, teachers must train their learners some of the learning strategies to take responsibility for their own learning and be independent learners. As Litz (2005) points out:
   the promotion of student self-directed and metacognitive learning is integral in allowing students to become increasingly aware of their own abilities to remember, learn, and solve problems and more strategic and reflective in their learning, thinking, and problem solving.(p. 14)
2. It is also recommended that workshop, programs, and seminars be held for EFL teachers in order to help them exchange experiences and increase their level of knowledge about teaching English language textbooks.
3. It is of crucial importance to carry out a detailed needs analysis before designing a textbook. Textbook designers must take into account teachers and students' needs and

expectations in developing teaching materials. Teachers and students should be involved in the process of designing textbooks because “successful educational planning, curriculum development, syllabus design, materials development or most other educational decisions” depend purely on the involvement of teachers and learners (Oghli, 2009, p.58).

4. It is also of crucial importance to appreciate the teachers’ and learners’ views in all areas of education including the selection, production, evaluation, and adaptation of language teaching materials.
5. One of the major finding of the study was that in general the participants were negative about the design and illustrations of the series. Including a variety of attractive illustrations is crucial to stimulate creativity and facilitate students’ learning. Moreover, enough white space should be provided for the learners to achieve clarity.
6. Textbooks should be evaluated and reevaluated after being designed and instruction to make sure they meet the needs and interests of the students and teachers.
7. Collaboration between teachers and textbook designers should be made to maximize the students’ learning since “it’s the teachers who are closer to the students, and know better about the needs or the scarcity of the students” (Wang, 2005, p. 114).

Based on the interpretations of the findings of the present study, the following suggestions for future research can be made:

- Conducting a further study for Passages 1(2nd edition) that is designed for the upper-intermediate level in the series in order to observe the cohesiveness.
- Conducting evaluative studies on the other EFL textbooks, especially elementary, intermediate, or upper-intermediate, with a much larger number of students and teachers.
- Investigating the whole program for teaching English as foreign language in Iran.
- Considering the influence of other variables such as age, gender, situation, the teaching experience, cultural and language backgrounds.
- Conducting class observation and interview with learners and teachers.

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Appendix

TEXTBOOK EVALUATION TOOL (TET)

Part A: Personal Information

Name/Surname (optional): .... Age: ……………………………..

1. Are you a student? Yes …. No………

Length of studying English:

a. Less than one year b. 1-5 years c. 6-10 years

d. 11-15 years e. 16-20 years f. More than 20 years

2. Are you an English teacher? Yes …. No………

Qualification: a) PhD b) MA c) BA

English Teaching Experience:

a. Less than one year b. 1-2 years c. 3-5 years d. 5-10 years e. 11-15 years

f. 16-20 years g. More than 20 years

Part B: Please read the statements below carefully and put a tick (√) next to the item which best reflects your view.

No	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	A-General Appearance				
1	The cover is informative and attractive.				
2	The font type and size used in the series are appropriate for the learners.				
3	Every lesson is given an appropriate title.				
	B- Design and Illustration				
4	The layout and design is appropriate and clear.				
5	There is enough white space to achieve clarity.				
6	The series has a complete and detailed table of contents.				
7	The series has an appropriate glossary.				
8	The illustrations are varied and attractive.				
9	The illustrations stimulate students to be creative.				
10	The illustrations are functional.				
11	The illustrations facilitate students' learning.				
	C-Accompanying Materials				
12	The workbook that accompanies the series includes suitable supplementary activities.				
13	The CD-ROM that accompanies the series is suitable.				
	D- Topic Contents				
14	The topics of the series are interesting and motivating to learners.				
15	The topics encourage students to express their own views.				
16	The series avoids potentially embarrassing or disturbing topics.				
17	The topics allow students to think critically.				

18	The topics are generally realistic.				
	E- Language Contents				
19	Grammar rules are presented with clear and simple explanations.				
20	The series includes adequate materials for teaching vocabulary.				
21	The series includes adequate material for pronunciation work.				
22	Pronunciation is built through different types of activities, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing.				
23	Language contents suit students' language needs.				
24	The materials for teaching grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation are graded in an appropriate manner.				
	F- Social and Cultural Contexts				
25	The social and cultural contexts in the series are comprehensible.				
26	Students can learn about the inner lives of the characters used in the series.				
27	The series expresses positive views of ethnic origins, occupations, age groups, social groups and disability.				
	G- Language Skills				
28	The four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are adequately covered.				
29	There is material for integrated skills work.				
30	Listening material is well recorded, as authentic as possible, and accompanied by background information, questions, and activities.				
31	There is sufficient reading material. (There is a range of varied and interesting reading text that can engage students cognitively and effectively.)				
32	There is sufficient material for spoken English (e.g. dialogues, role-plays, etc.)				
33	Writing activities are suitable in terms of length, degree of accuracy, and amount of guidance**.**				
	H- Activities and Exercises				
34	The series provides a variety of meaningful and mechanical exercises and activities to practice language items and skills.				
35	The series provides communicative exercises and activities that help students carry out their communicative tasks in real life.				
36	Every exercise has a clear direction.				
37	There are a reasonable and appropriate number of exercises.				
38	The tests are valid and contain correct language.				
39	The series provides periodical revisions for diagnostic purposes.				
40	The series provides models for final achievement tests.				

Title

Assessment of Marked thematic Structures in the Translated and Non-Translated Persuasive Texts

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Biodata

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Abstract

The present study aims to investigate marked thematization strategies in the translated and non-translated persuasive texts. To this end, the translated versions of one of the leading newspapers in the United States, The New York Times, and the original versions of Hamshahri newspaper (an Iranian counterpart) were chosen. Based on the analysis of textual features and marked and unmarked themes of 12 translated and non-translated version of the opinion articles from The New York Times and Hamshahi (6 from each), this study aimed to find out how the translators organize their themes into marked themes and how these organizations are related to the non-translated versions. Marked themes were classified based on Grzegorek's (1984) classification. Furthermore, Chi-Square test was employed to compare and contrast the obtained frequencies to see the statistically significant differences. The results revealed that there were no significant differences between marked thematic structures of the texts. The results of the Chi-Square test revealed that marked thematic sentences similarly were realized in the translated and non-translated versions. Generally, topicalization was the most frequent types of marked thematic structure used in both kinds of texts. As a result thematic structure is a greatly useful and important tool in translating. Translators should have enough knowledge about marked thematic structures in the creation and interpretation of texts.

Keywords: Thematization Patterns; Marked Theme; Theme and Rheme; Systemic Functional Grammar, Translated and Non-Translated Persuasive Texts

1. Introduction

Theme/rheme plays a major role in organizing the message and in enabling it to be communicated and understood clearly (Halliday, 1994). Whatever is chosen to be the first place, will influence the hearer/reader's interpretation of everything that comes next in the discourse since it will constitute the initial textual context for everything that follows (Alonso, Belmonte & McCabe, 1998).

Theme and rheme analysis is an area that has attracted the attention of some translation scholars. The basic premise is that sentences consist of themes, which present known, context-dependent information, and rhemes, which present new, context-independent information. Because they represent new information, it is rhemes rather than themes which push text development forward.

Thematization is one of the subcategories of textual analysis. Textual analysis is the analysis of the text in terms of its textual features or its texture. Thematization strategies are what the writer chooses as the theme of the clause.

The results of Jallilifar's (2010) research on theme indicated overall similarities in both journals regarding different types of theme and patterns of thematic progression. But there were significant differences in the number and the context of the usage of different patterns of thematic progression in the introduction.

2. Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study, then, is to emphasize on the importance of Marked thematization patterns especially in newspaper discourse.The investigation also aims at comparing the translated and non-translated opinion articles with regard to the use of marked themes.

The study will focus on two primary objectives:

1. To determine the relationship between thematization patterns and newspaper discourse.
2. To indicate the degree of homogeneity between the translated and non-translated versions of persuasive texts with regard to the use of marked themes.

This study is devoted to characterize marked thematization patterns or theme/ rheme organization in a sample of translations and non-translations in the field of newspaper discourse.

3. Thematization Patterns

According to Lotfipour-Saedi (1991), the texture of a text can be characterized by textual features of 1) thematization strategies, 2) schematic structure, 3) paralanguage and 4) cohesion (cited in Yarmohammadi, 1995).

Halliday writes: "the 'textual' component in language is the set of options by means of which a speaker or writer is enabled to create texts" (Halliday 1994, p. 161). One key choice in the textual configuration of discourse is that of what will appear in Theme position; indeed, for Halliday (1985, p. 53), "the textual function of the clause is that of constructing a message" and the Theme/Rheme structure is the "basic form of the organization of the clause as message". In the organization of discourse, then, an important concern is which participant, process or circumstance will be chosen as the ideational point of departure for the message. According to Bell (1991), thematization patterns organize the initiation of the clause and acts to direct the attention of the receiver of the message to the parts the sender wishes to emphasize.

While explaining something to another person, whether in speech or writing, we try to organize what we say in a way that makes it easier for the reader to understand (Bloor and Bloor, 1995). The structuring of language as a message is realized in the thematic structure of the constituent clauses of a text.

Not (1996) asserts that thematic development is necessary for the construction of an optimally coherent and grammatically cohesive structured text. The investigation of thematization patterns in scientific texts were carried out by Dubois (1987) and by Nwogu and Bloor (1991). Both studies were based on naturally occurring data and found that the simple pattern and the constant pattern are frequent.

Thematization is the process of arranging theme, rheme patterns in a text. Angela Downing (2001) points that the essential nature of a text lies largely in terms of its semantic coherence and the reason for less than optimal coherence may be that the writer is simply not good at controlling the mass of new information that is successively accumulated as the text unfolds. This mass of information is mostly so extensive that the writer should make a choice, and this choice, is determined directly or indirectly by the selection of utterance Theme.

Grzegorek (1984) introduces four main types of thematization in English: (1) passivization, (2) clefts and pseudo-clefts, (3) topicalization, left-dislocation, focus movement, and (4) presentation sentences with proposed expressions. She compares these thematization types with those existing in Polish. She says that thematization is governed by a variety of factors, most of which are of pragmatic rather than purely syntactic nature.

Halliday (1994) who is the main representative of the positional approach to the definition of theme characterizes thematization in English as the process of shifting various sentence elements to the initial position plus any grammatical changes within a sentence, which are caused by such a movement. According to Fries (1983) different discourse genres (i.e., narratives, descriptives, argumentatives, and so on) have different patterns of thematic progression. For example, an argumentative text can be characterized by high proportion of cross-reference from the rheme of one sentence to the theme of the text.

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), coherence refers to the way a group of clauses or sentences relate to the context. A text is cohered when one part of a text follows another part of the text. The outcome of coherence is that each part of the text creates a context within which the next bit of the text is interpreted. Then, there is a relationship between what is said or written and what was said or written a moment ago. Reid (2000, p. 116) says that coherence means "to stick together". One way writers make a text cohesive is through 'thematic' organization (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). Halliday (1976) defined coherence as the probability of connecting what has been mentioned above. To ensure the successful development of a topic, the application of various techniques for cohesion is vital. Some forms of cohesion are realized through the grammar and others through vocabulary (Halliday, 1976). Cohesion contributes to coherence. Thematic progression is a kind of cohesion (Halliday, 1976). According to Danes, thematic progression means "the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior text units (such as paragraph, chapter...) to the whole of the text and to the situation" (Danes, 1974, p. 114).

Halliday (1985, p. 67) explained that thematic progression is of crucial importance to the internal relation between sentences in the text. Thematic progression contributes to text coherence in that it lets us know what the text is about and where the text is going. By analyzing the thematic structure of a text, "we can gain an insight into its texture and understand how the writer made clear to us the nature of his underlying concerns".

4. Theme and Rheme

Theme and rheme analysis is an area that has been the center of some translation scholars' attention (see Grzegorek 1984, Newmark 1988, Bell 1991, Baker 1992, Halliday 1994, among others).

Topic is a non-structural discourse category which describes what the text is about (Brown & Yule, 1983). Given information is the information that can be predicted or which belongs to that knowledge shared by both listener and speaker, whereas new information is that information which is contextually non-retrievable and says something about the given (Prince, 1981). According to Halliday (1994), the grammatical subject is the one that of which something is predicated. Also, Halliday (1994) distinguishes three different kinds of subject. Grammatical subject which is defined above, psychological subject which is the concern of the message and the logical subject which is the doer of an action. But Halliday (1994) used three equivalent terms for these expressions. He used theme for psychological subject, subject for grammatical subject and actor for logical subject.

Halliday believes that each clause conveys a message that has two parts, i.e., what comes first or the theme, and what comes last or the rheme. The theme usually constrains given information and the rheme, new information (1994).

In the English language, the theme includes the lexical items (up to and including the first participant, process or circumstance) taking first position in the clause. These lexical items signal what the message will be about (White, 2000). According to Bloor and Bloor (1995), theme in English is the idea represented by the constituent at the starting of the clause.

Fries (1983, p. 118) makes the point that "there are good and sufficient internal grammatical reasons to say that the beginning is special for some reason" and goes on to argue that "initial position in the sentence, or sentence level Theme, means 'point of departure of the sentence as message" (ibid, p. 119). Martin (1992) provides evidence which indicates that "point of departure does indeed mean something more than coming first" (p. 151).

The Theme is the first constituent of a clause (Thompson, 2004). White (2000, p. 153) describes it as the "angle or departure of a clause…[it] is what each utterance is 'about'…" The Theme is the starting point of a clause and includes the first Participant, Process or Circumstance (White, 2000, p. 154). Additionally, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004 cited in

Thompson, 2004, p. 143) explain the Theme as "that which locates and orients the clause within its context."

According to Fairclough (1994), the Theme is the text producer's point of departure in a clause, and generally corresponds to what is taken to be 'given' information, that is information already known or established for text producers and interpreters.

For Brown and Yule (1983), Theme is not only the starting point of the message, but it also has a role of connecting to what has been said. They assume that it is the left-most constituent of the sentence which has two important functions:

1) It maintains a coherent point of view by connecting back and linking into the previous discourse.

2) It serves as a point of departure for the further development of the discourse (p. 133).

Halliday (1994) provides different definitions for theme which will be listed as follows:

"1. The theme is what is being talked about, the point of departure for the clause as a message.

2. The English clause consists of a theme and a rheme. The theme of the clause is the element which, in English, is put in the first position.

3. The theme is the statement which serves as the point of departure of the message.

4. Within that configuration, the theme is the starting point for the message; it is what the clause is going to be about" (Cited in Fries, 1995, p. 3).

For Strauss and Corbin (1990), the links between expressions and themes are "conceptual labels placed on discrete happenings, events, and other instances of phenomena". Themes, or categories, are the classification of more discrete concepts. "This classification is discovered when concepts are compared one against another and appear to pertain to a similar phenomenon. Thus, the concepts are grouped together under a higher order; more abstract concepts are called a category" (p. 61). Halliday (1970) refers to theme as a line of nails on the wall. The contents of the texts are carried along the nail line. He suggests that theme is "what the clause is about", and no matter what the author wants to talk about, he must arrange the relative information around this topic in a logic order, with the thematic structure arranged distinguishingly according to the specific genres and aims. In a word, thematic structure is one of the necessary conditions for creating discourse coherence.

5. Markedness

In linguistics, *markedness* refers to the way words are changed or added to give a special meaning. The *unmarked choice* is just the normal meaning. Gosden (1996) asserts that the manipulation of Unmarked and Marked thematic choices is a means of achieving textual cohesion and coherence.

Marked theme is considered as a cover term consisting of different classifications like Topicalization, Left-dislocation, Cleft and Pseudo- cleft sentences. According to Grzegorek (1984), a thematic structure is communicatively marked when it does not follow the sequence from the old to the new information. It is obvious that an unmarked theme shows a grammatical subject that forms the point of departure while the marked theme employs a technique that fronts other information. The marked theme uses three main context frames for this purpose: Conjunctive/Modal adjunct and Conjunctions, Prepositional and Adverbial Phrases and Subordinate Clauses and Nonfinite Clause (Gosden, 1992).

According to Eggins (1993) the term “Unmarked” simply means ‘most typical/usual ‘, while “Marked” means ‘atypical’/‘unusual’. Eggins further notes that Theme predication is another strategy to producing Marked Themes. To Eggins, all predicated Themes are in some sense Marked, since the subject of the original clause is made Rheme in the predicated version. She notes that skillful writers choose Marked Themes to add emphasis to their texts.

According to Halliday (1985), theme plays an essential role in the way discourse is organized. Theme is known and context-dependent information while rheme is new and context independent information. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 65) believe that "As a message structure, therefore, a clause consists of theme accompanied by a rheme; and the structure is expressed by the order- whatever is chosen as the theme is put first". Alice Davidson (1980) suggests the more marked the construction, the more likely that an implicated meaning will be that which the utterance is intended to convey (Cited in Brown & Yule, 1983).

Simply put, the unmarked member of any pair is the most natural, the most frequent, the simplest, the more basic, the logically prior, the more universal, the first learned, the one implied by the marked member; the one understood, unstated, taken for granted, ordinary, usual., etc.

Baker (1992) believes that the degree of markedness will depend on the frequency with which the element in question generally occurs in theme position and the extent to which it is normally mobile within the clause.

Based on Bell (1991) view, marked theme in English is signaled by predicting, proposing, clefting, or fronting of the theme and combinations of these options. It is the theme where the writer consciously or unconsciously affects the organization of the text by choosing something other than the subject for the starting point of their message. Fries (1983) claim that marked themes are more truly thematic than non-marked themes. If 'theme' is everything located at the beginning of the sentence, as a result of choice, then markedness of theme or use of special resource to put complements, objects and verbs in initial position betrays a deliberate choice.

6. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory, founded by Halliday views languages as a social semiotic resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meaning in context.

Systemic Functional Linguistics or SFL concerns language as a system of meaning. This argumentation is in line with Halliday in Bloor and Bloor (2004, p. 2). "For SFL, a language is ‘a system of meanings’. That is to say that when people use language, their language acts, produce or, or more technically, construct meaning." According to Weil (1844 as cited in Wang, 2007), the theoretical principles underlying the study of theme and rheme are derived mainly from the Systemic-Functional Linguistics. "In the systemic functional approach to language study, each sentence encodes not just one, but three meanings simultaneously, and these meanings are related to the three different and very basic functions of language" (Butt et al., 2003 p. 6). Derewianka (2001, p. 256) says, "Halliday’s approach has been to develop a model of grammar which provides a clear relationship between functions and grammatical systems". Such an approach reflects Halliday’s belief that, "language is as it is because of its function in social structures" (Halliday, 1973, cited in Fairclough, 1992, p. 26). Butt (2000, p. 29) says that SFG redefines traditional grammar to recognize that, "words have functions as well as class, and that how a word functions can tell us more than any description of words in terms of class can about the piece of language, where it occurs, the person who chose to use it in that function, and the culture that surrounds the person and the message".

Halliday (1985, p. xiv) defines systemic theory as "a theory of meaning as choice, by which a language, or any other semiotic system, is interpreted as networks of interlocking options". According to Martin, Matthiessen, and Painter (1997, p. 1) "Functional grammar is a way of looking at grammar in terms of how grammar is used".

Within SFL the *clause* is the main constituent by which language is communicated. "The clause is the fundamental meaning structure in our linguistic communication with each other" (Butt et al. 2003, p. 33). A clause can be described as "any stretch of language centered on a verbal group "(Thompson, 2004, p. 17). In systemic functional grammar (SFG) (Halliday, 1994, 2000; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), texts are viewed as social processes and the context of a text is manifested through language, especially on the level of lexicogrammar. In the view of SFG, clause is the basic linguistic unit which can be divided into three constituent parts: (i) the process itself; (ii) participants in the process; (iii) circumstances associated with the process. These parts construct the frame of reference for interpreting our experience of happening, doing, sensing, meaning, being and becoming.

To Martin and Rose (2007), Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a big multi-perspectival theory with more dimensions in its theory banks that might be required for any one job. SFL is called systemic because compared with other theories it foregrounds the organization of language as options for meaning and is also functional because it interprets the design of language with respect to ways people use it to live. A key concept in Halliday's approach is the "context of situation" which obtains "through a systematic relationship between the social environment on the one hand, and the functional organization of language on the other" (Halliday, 1985, p. 11). According to Gerot and Wignell (1994), functional grammar tries to explain language in actual use and focus on text and their context. Systemic functional grammar concerns not only with structure but also how those structures construct meaning. The most prominent unit in functional grammar is clause rather than sentences. The principle unit of analysis in SFG is text, which is defined as any kind of passage, whether spoken or written that makes a unified whole. The term "unified whole" is described as texture which is claimed to be the distinguishing feature of texts (Eggins, 2004). According to Halliday (1999), systemic functional linguistics can be efficiently employed to help us analyze different types of texts and relate them to the original context in which they were produced as well as their general background-for whom it is written, what its angle is on the subject matter, and so on.

7. Previous research on thematization

Various scholars have in recent years contributed to the study of textuality of texts by analyzing their theme, thematic structure, and thematic progression in text across different languages to find out how academic texts unfold thematically.

Hasselgard (2004) worked on thematic structures in 1200 sentences in English and their translation in Norwegian. She found that there were significant differences between these two languages regarding the grammatical structure of sentence openings.

Zhou (2006) worked on the theme construction of Chinese language showing some grammatical dissimilarity with English. Working on interpersonal metafunction, she tried to show whether advertisement texts in Chinese and English journals engender similarities in interpersonal metafunction. Results indicated that the modal themes were not prevalent across both corpora, and so the advertisement texts did not engender similarities in interpersonal metafunction across two languages.

Moreover, Jallilifar (2009) applied a research on *Thematic Development in English and Translated Academic Texts.* He investigates thematic development and progression in English academic texts and their translations in Persian. The corpus was selected from the first three pages of the first chapters of nine English applied linguistics books and their translation versions. Applying Halliday's (1994) thematic organization and McCabe's (1999) thematic progression, the study reveals significant differences in the original texts and their translations regarding thematic schemes. The study concludes that both authors and translators must be conscious of these tools in order to use them effectively and create more cohesive texts.

Jallilifar and Khedri (2011) scrutinized thematic development and progression in English academic texts and their translations in Persian. Applying Halliday's (1994) thematic organization and McCabe's (1999) thematic progression, they analyzed sample academic texts selected from the first three pages of the first chapters of nine English applied linguistics books and their translation versions that were representatives of applied linguistics books taught in the Iranian universities at undergraduate and graduate levels. Analyses of original texts and their Persian counterparts indicated that there were significant differences between the two text types regarding thematic development and progression especially in terms of unmarked and multiple themes.

8. Methodology

8.1. Materials

The data of this research came from the translations from the opinion column of an important newspaper: The New York Times, from the United States and the original versions of the Hamshahri newspaper. Of the 120 (60 from each) articles collected from the online archives of these newspapers, 12 texts (6 from each) were finally chosen for the analysis since there was a need to control the different variables involved in the writing of the texts and the translations. First, a careful selection was made among the texts collected from the newspapers in order to choose those written by Iranians (as Native-Persian Speaking writers) and those translated by Iranians (as English-to-Persian translators).

In order to have a focused analysis of the texts, and prevent the biased vision of the texts, the choice of topic was controlled in this research. The selected opinion articles cover the following topics: health issues; and environmental issue.

8.2. Procedure

The texts were analyzed for identification of marked thematization patterns in Persian newspapers and the English to Persian translations. Marked themes were analyzed to see the degree of homogeneity between the selected texts.

In general, both qualitative and quantitative data analysis were employed in this study. Qualitative analysis was carried out in order to identify and categorize thematization patterns. Quantitative analysis, on the other hand, was conducted to determine the occurrences of marked themes in translated and non-translated versions of the mentioned newspapers.

In order to carry out this study the following steps were taken: The first step was to choose the 12 (6 from each) persuasive texts among 120 (60 from each) articles. The articles were chosen based on specific topics (i.e., health issues, environmental issues). Then the articles from The New York Times were given to a professional translator to be translated, afterwards the translated versions were given to another professional translator to be revised. The next step was to read the original Persian newspaper texts and identify the sentences containing Marked thematic sentences. The next step was to read the Persian translations of The New York Times translated by Iranian translators to find the marked thematization patterns used in these texts. Halliday's (1960) SFG was used as the framework of the study. It is one of the most powerful models of grammatical theory that has been constructed for the purpose of text analysis. SFG refers to how messages are organized in relation to other messages to create coherence and cohesion. He classified themes into textual, interpersonal, and topical. Textual theme is concerned with theme and rheme and was the focus of the present study. The element of the clause which is in first position is known as the theme, and everything that follows is the rheme. The analysis of the selected texts was closely based on Grzegorek (1984) taxonomy of marked themes which are Topicalization, Left-Dislocation, Cleft and Pseudo cleft sentences. After identifying and categorizing marked thematic structures, a quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of marked thematic structures to find the differences between the four groups in this regard. Then, Chi-Square test was employed to compare and contrast the obtained frequencies to see the statistically significant differences. In sum, the data were analyzed using the SPSS (Statistics Package for Social Sciences).The data calculated with computational analysis. In fact, the Chi-Square test was employed to see whether the differences between the two sets of data with regard to the occurrences of Marked themes were significant.

9. Results

Thissectionelaboratesthetotalfrequencyofclassificationof Markedthematicstructures in the translated and non-translated versions of the two selected persuasive texts.

Totalfrequencyofclassificationofmarkedthematicstructuresin theTranslated and Non-Translated Versions of Persuasive Texts

Marked thematic sentences	Non-translated versions		Translated versions		Chi-Square Test Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	No.	%	No.	%	
Topicalization	73	66.97	70	67.96	.948
Left-Dislocation	15	13.76	16	15.53	
Cleft sentences	7	6.42	6	5.82	
Pseudo-cleft sentences	14	12.84	11	10.67	
Total number of marked thematic sentences	109		103		

BasedonTable1, thereare109casesof marked thematic structures in original versions of persuasive texts while there are103 cases of marked thematic structures in the translated versions. Persian writers have applied TOP (66.97%) more than other classifications. They then have used LD (13.76%) and PCL(12.84%) more. Also, they have employed low frequency of the CL (6.42%). Accordingto Table, the translators have applied Top (67.96%) more than other classifications. They, then, have used LD (15.53%) more. Furthermore, they have employed a low frequency of the PCL (10.67%). The least frequency of classification of marked themes refers to the CL (5.82%). TOP was at the highest level in both kinds of texts, 73 cases in the original persuasive texts and 70 cases in the translated persuasive texts. Chi-Square test was employed to compare and contrast the obtained frequencies to see the statistically significant differences between the translated and non-translated persuasive texts. As the Chi-Square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated, the value of .864 was larger than the alpha value of .05, so the researcher concluded that the result is not significant. This means that there were no significant differences between the two versions. There was no association between them.

10. Discussion and Conclusion

As the Chi-Square test indicated, there were no significant differences between marked thematic structures of the translated and non-translated versions of persuasive texts. In other words, there was no association between the two kinds of texts. Therefore, Marked thematic structures similarly realized in the Persian original persuasive texts and the English to Persian translations of the same kind of texts.

The findings of this research were in line with Forey's (2002) study. He concluded that, theme plays an important role in organizing the text. The present research also emphasized identification of theme by translators in organizing the text and conveying the message to readers. Wang's (2007) research was in line with the present study.

This paper was an attempt to examine marked thematic structures in the translated and non-translated versions of persuasive texts. The results revealed that marked thematic structures were present in both kinds of texts. These findings contribute evidence to support the view that thematic structure is a greatly useful and important tool in translation. It increases the relationship and connection between ideas in the text.

Translators should get mastery over the grammar and structure of the target language, particularly in terms of thematic structure. They should try to convert information effectively, clearly and creating cohesive text. The cohesion in texts can be improved by concentration on thematic organization in texts.

Ventola (1995) contends that "the analysis of theme/rheme structures in the clauses and the thematic progression helps us to see whether the text is unsuccessful in its realizations"(p. 98). She adds that sometimes readers may find texts fuzzy since they consider some odd thematic structures that are not typical of the target language. The fault in these texts is very often placed on the author’s failures of argumentation and rhetorical skills; it is presumed that the author’s logic is not functioning well and his/her argumentation and rhetoric are seen to fail. But often the original argumentation is clear and well-structured rhetorically in the source text; it is the translation that fails and distorts the argumentative and rhetorical patterns (Ventola, 1995).

Translators can apply the results of this study in translating texts. The obtained results can help them in translating process in terms of appropriate theme selection, conveying the message more clearly, developing cohesion in discourse, creating a cohesive text, helping them to avoid the use of odd thematic structures that are not typical of the target language and make the text fuzzy, and helping readers to comprehend the text effectively. It can be assumed that implications of this study will be helpful for translators as well as those who teach English grammar to Persian language. The findings of this study hopefully help the translators with a wider and more comprehensible view point about the process of translating to get familiar with the possible challenges in the translating process, preserve marked thematic structures, and convey the correct message.

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Title

Students’ perception of teachers’ attitudes and learning environment and its relation to risk-taking

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Abstract

Extensive research has been carried out on risk-taking. Most of the studies related to risk-taking have attempted to investigate the relationship between this personality factor and situational and individual factors as well as other personality factors. In the present study, the researcher wants to identify whether there is any relationship between Iranian second language learners’ risk-taking and their perception of teachers’ attitudes and learning environment. The researcher gathered data using three instruments. Results of the study revealed that there was a positive relationship between L2 learners’ perception of teachers’ attitude/learning environment and their risk-taking to speak English, in general. But there wasn't a significant relationship between L2 learners’ perception of teachers’ attitude and learning environment. Providing positive learning environment in EFL classrooms to foster risk-taking was recommended. It was also recommended that EFL teachers should reduce threatening learning environment and promote L2 learners level of risk-taking through adapting different teaching strategies.

Keywords: perception of teachers' attitude, perception of learning environment, risk-taking

1. Introduction

It is widely noticed that students may attain differing levels of achievement in second or foreign language (SL/FL) learning, even in the same learning situation. In order to understand this phenomenon, researchers have explored numerous factors that may affect language learning with focus on cognitive (e.g. language aptitude, cognitive ability, strategy use), affective (e.g. anxiety, motivation, self-confidence, risk-taking), personality (extroversion, locus of control), and/or demographic (e.g. age, gender) variables (Brown, 1987; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990, 1995; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Zhang & Liu, 2008). Among these variables, risk-taking is the core of this study.

1.1 Students' perception of teachers' attitudes and learning environment

Perception includes all processes associated with the recognition, transformation and organization of sensory information (Little, 1999).When the student presents a non-evaluative perception, there is an opportunity for a clearer presentation. The assertion that student's perception may hold value is a valid one. This perception of the student is a worthwhile point of departure for teacher development; for example research with college students has suggested that the perception of teacher competency is an indicator of future student achievement with their instructor (Myers & Bryant, 2004).

Students have distinct preferences for their professors for both professorial qualities such as classroom management and teaching styles (Beishline & Holmes, 1997) as well as personal qualities such as humor and approachability (Adamson, O'Kane, & Shevlin, 2005; Gurung & Vespia, 2007). However, professors and students have different perceptions of which behaviors an ideal professor should possess (Das & El-Sabban, 1996). Professors and students also disagree about which behaviors professors actually possess. So, the teachers should provide their students with a sense of security and encourage them to voice their opinion. Once the students are not afraid of being blamed and humiliated when they talk, they will take part in the class willingly and do well in second language acquisition.

Not a widely researched topic, teachers' attitudes as perceived by students may have a drastic effect on students' ability to learn, their self-esteem, and ultimately their academic success. An earlier study found that, students' perceptions of support, interest, and respect received from their teachers was the most influential element of academic motivation, effort, and achievement (Zimmerman, Khoury, Vega, Gil, & Warheit, 1995).

1.2 Risk-taking behavior

Breakwell (2007) defined risk in terms of two dimensions, probabilities and effects. Risk is the probability of a particular adverse event occurring and the extent of the harm associated with that event. Yates and Stone (1992) proposed that risk constructs are "(a) potential losses, (b) the significance of those losses, and (c) the uncertainty of those losses" (p. 4). Moreover, Beebe (1983) defined risk-taking as "a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability" (p. 39).

Beebe (1983) held that L2 learning involves taking the risk of various kinds, which can include in-classroom risks: a smirk from classmates, a bad grade, and fear of looking ridiculous; and outside classroom risks: fear of alienation, fear of miscommunication, and the worst of all, fear of identity loss. Additionally, L2 learners' perceptions of the risk of looking foolish is greater in the presence of peers from their own country than when with native speakers of English. They know they cannot compete with native speakers of English in speaking, but they are afraid of being compared among their peers. He carried out a comprehensive research on the relationship between risk-taking and interviewer ethnicity, accuracy and avoidance. She found that all these situational factors could affect risk-taking level of the interviewees.

The classroom is a critical place for student interpersonal and educational development (Pierce, 1994). As Krupa-Kwiatkowski (1998, p.133) claimed, 'interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and the taking of initiative in some way, activities that in turn are hypothesized to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning'. Since oral participation is the most observable behavior, much research has focused on it and its relationship with students' English proficiency or performance (Ely, 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Spada, 1986; Swain, 1985; Tsou, 2005). Though many second/foreign language (SL/FL) learners, especially Asian language learners reported a desire to be active and independent learners and to be involved in interpersonal interactions in the target language (Liu & Jackson, 2011; Littlewood, 2000), in numerous SL/FL learning situations, learners, especially Asian learners, have been observed to be quiet in language classrooms, rarely responding to teachers' questions, or actively taking part in classroom interactions (Liu, 2006; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004; Tsui, 1996; Zou, 2004). These behaviors are frequently interpreted by teachers and researchers as a lack of motivation, cultural differences, low proficiency in target language, pursuit of perfection, peer pressure, fear of losing face, habit, lack of confidence, and so on (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Flowerdew, Miller, & Li, 2000; Liu, 2006; Zou, 2004). Meanwhile, it has been found that students' actual participation is closely related to a series of variables such as willingness to communicate, motivation, anxiety, self-esteem, self-confidence, and global personality traits (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos,1996; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2003; Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004).

Learners' attitudes support their motivation to learn language' which promote second language achievement (Gardner, 2000; Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft, 1985). Learners with high motivation to achieve are moderate risk takers according to Atkinson (1964). Contrary to low achievers who tend to take high risks, high achievers prefer to control the probability of success depending on their skills and knowledge, and they don't take high risks.

Brown (2001) states that "many instructional contexts around the world do not encourage risk-taking; instead, they encourage correctness, rights answers, and withhold "guesses" until one is sure to be correct" (p. 63). Clifford (1990, as cited in Jonassen & Grabowski, 1993) found that students chose more difficult problems when the number of points offered increased with the difficulty of the problem and when a risk-taking task was presented within a game or practice situation.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Shelton, Lane, and Waldhart (1999) explored the perceptions of second-year and above college students in regard to educator roles in the classroom. Some of the more commonly occurring responses in regard to the expectations of teachers were respect, fair treatment, preparedness, and guidance. Data collected in this study were "rich with student perceptions about the…classroom…grounded in practical experience as…students" (Shelton, Lane, & Waldhart, 1999, p. 408). These researchers further emphasized the importance of perception in their study because of the interactive nature that is often overlooked in perception, in-class behaviors were reported by students as important in regard to positive and negative teacher perception. In one study, teacher control, student equity, comfortability in the classroom, and supportiveness (Frymier & Thompson, 1992) were among the behaviors that ranked high on students' lists. In another study, negative behaviors such as being easily distracted, giving unclear lectures, being disorganized, being unresponsive to students' questions, unfair testing, unfair grading, being boring, not knowing the subject matter, and showing favoritism (Kearney, Plax, Hays, & Ivey, 1991) were noticed by both the instructors and the students.

Failure by both teachers and students to recognize the interdependence of roles in the classroom puts both parties at a disadvantage. Considering this assertion, the integration of student perception into teacher evaluation becomes increasingly vital.

Nelson-Smith (2008) examined how African American students' learning styles and their perceptions of teachers' attitudes toward them and the learning environment influenced their decision to become high truants. Additionally, the study sought to find if selected demographic factors had any relevance to the truancy rate of African American students. The researcher used several assessment instruments to measure the variables being tested. The sample included 166 9th grade African American students enrolled in freshmen English classes in a public school located in a low socioeconomic inner-city in the southern region of the United States. The results from the analysis suggest that students with low grade point averages; those who had siblings who left school without receiving a high school diploma; those who had been in legal troubles; those who were not involved in clubs/organizations; and gender in relation to females were more likely to be truant.

Kiany and Pournia (2006) investigated the effects of risk-taking on language learners' tendency to complexity or accuracy in descriptive and expository writing tasks. For this purpose, 185 EFL students took a TOEFL, wrote two compositions and filled out a risk-taking questionnaire. Out of this number, 118 subjects were almost at the same level of language proficiency. The researchers divided these subjects into three subgroups of low, moderate and high risk-takers. Analysis of Variance was used to investigate the relationship between risk-taking, syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy in both writing tasks. The results did not show any significant relationship between risk-taking, syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy in the writing tasks. However, in both writing tasks low risk-takers tended to be more accurate than others. Moreover, the moderate and high risk-takers tended to write more complicated structures than the low risk-takers.

In a study by Maeda (2010), the possible associations between application of word emphasis and risk-taking behaviors of adult Japanese English language learners (ELLs) in the scope of foreign accent modification was investigated. The researcher compared 30 adult Japanese ELLs' first readings of a scenario with 30 age- and gender-matched native American-English speakers. The ELLs received an instruction to apply emphasis in their first and second readings and scored for a risk-taking questionnaire. They recorded readings of the speakers surveyed for vowel duration. The results showed that there were no significant differences in vowel duration fundamental frequency and intensity of the pre-determined target words between ELLs and native American- English speakers' first readings. Also, no correlation was found between changes the ELLs made and their scores on the risk-taking questionnaire.

Beebe, in 1983 presented data from Puerto Rican bilingual (Spanish–English) children. The children were interviewed on four occasions, once by a monolingual English interviewer, once by a bilingual (Spanish dominant) interviewer, once by a bilingual (English dominant) interviewer, and once, in groups of three children, by all three interviewers. He operationally defined risk taking in terms of a number of factors, among them, number of attempts to use particular grammatical structures, avoidance, amount of talk, and amount of information volunteering. The results showed that risk taking was greatest with the monolingual interviewer. This suggests that learners' willingness to take risks may depend on the situation, not just on their general type.

In short, what clearly appeared through this survey is the effect of different variables on both students' risk-taking & students' perception of general and specific areas of language learning. However it has to be mentioned at this point that compared with studies conducted in this area, few research has been conducted to investigate the relationship between perception of two different areas of language learning and the effect of them on the students' degree of risk-taking to speak English.

3. Objectives of the study

The main objectives of the present study are:

* Investigating whether L2 learners have a more positive level of perception of either teachers' attitudes or learning environment?

* Investigating to what extent Iranian second language learners' perception of teachers' attitudes and learning environment affect their level of risk-taking.

*Investigating whether high achiever L2 learners differ from low achiever L2 learners in perceiving teachers' attitudes /learning environment and taking risk to speak English.

The sub-objectives are:

* Investigating whether male and female L2 learners differ in perceiving a more positive/negative level of teachers' attitude or learning environment.

* Investigating to what extent Iranian L2 learners take risk to speak English in an English class.

*Investigating to what extent individuals/males and females differ in language class risk-taking.

4. Statement of research questions

Based on the objectives of the study, the present study tries to answer the following questions:

1. Do L2 learners have a more positive level of perception of either teachers' attitudes or learning environment?
2. Do male and female L2 learners differ in perceiving a more positive/negative level of teachers' attitude or learning environment?
3. How far does L2 learners' perception of teachers' attitudes and learning environment affect their language class risk-taking?
4. To what extent Iranian L2 learners take risk to speak English in an English class?
5. To what extent individuals/males and females differ in language class risk-taking?
6. Do high achiever L2 learners differ from low achiever L2 learners in perceiving teachers' attitudes /learning environment and taking risk to speak English?

5. Theoretical framework of the study

Students' perception of teachers' attitudes can be detected by Nelson-Smith's questionnaire (2008). Nelson-Smith developed the survey based on Walberg's model of the learning process, developed in 1976, which suggests students' learning involves students' perceptions acting as intermediaries in the learning process (as cited in Koul & Fisher, 2006), and also Walls' (2003) belief that school environment has a direct impact on truancy and dropouts. Koul and Fisher (2006) also advocated the use of Walberg's model to determine students' perceptions to assess environments because students seemed quite able to perceive and weigh stimuli and to render predicatively valid judgments of the social environment of their classes; therefore the researcher has selected the theory of perception, as the theoretical framework for this study. According to Carr (1918) the perception theory defines perception as images which exist where and when the mind perceives them. He believes images are not the whole reality of what is seen, but reality is duration, and the images are a selection within this duration. Perception, on the other hand, is derived throughout this period of reality. Perception is an external awareness of two objects, the mind and an absolute space at that moment, thus what students see in a given time, sends messages to their mind that what they have seen is the truth.

6. Method

6.1 Participants

The participants of the study were randomly selected from male and female students enrolled in "Management and Technology Institute". All students were adults. Participants consisted of 83students (46males and 37females) of English as foreign language (EFL) studying at advanced levels (9-12). The reason for selecting advanced students was that they were more obliged to take risks in class in comparison with the students of lower levels. All students were native speakers of Persian and ranged from20 to 27 years in age.

They constituted a representative sample of Iranian EFL learners in that they learned English as College/Institute text subject for academic purposes. The participants were not chosen on the account of their academic scores, intelligence, sex, racial segregation, etc. Therefore, from each six intact classes they were randomly selected and all the participants in each class received the questionnaires.

For the second phase, from the six intact classes seven top students (high-achievers) and low-achievers on the score-sheet were selected. The selection was based on their marks listed on their Master Cards in three successive terms in 2013. By observing the normal probability curve of the marks, mean, and standard deviation, the researcher skipped the cases that were piled up in the middle and selected those who were piled up at the two sides. They were all interviewed (SPRI).

6.2 Instruments

The researcher gathered data using three instruments, a questionnaire of Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Attitude and Learning Environment (SPTALE), a Risk-Taking Questionnaire (RTQ) followed by the researcher made Semi-structured Self-report Perception/Risk-taking Interview (SPRI).

The first instrument was Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Attitude and Learning Environment (SPTALE) questionnaire which was partly based on and adopted from Nelson-Smith's survey developed in2008 and partly adopted from Aker's survey developed in 2000. The questionnaire used in Nelson-Smith's survey had 15 items from which 10 items tap students' perceptions of teachers' attitude. The questionnaire used in Aker's survey was a classroom environment questionnaire which was an attitudinal questionnaire to find out the students' perception toward the classroom environment. The questionnaire was divided into the following domains:

1-Affiliation, 2-Classroom interaction, 3-Cooperation, 4- Task orientation,
5-Individualization, 6-Teacher control

Therefore, the first instrument of this survey was a combination of the two questionnaires mentioned above. It had 22 items. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested through Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability index for the questionnaire obtained through this method as a whole was 0.847 which was quite a high reliability index

The second questionnaire was a Risk-Taking Questionnaire which consisted of 10 combined questions. The six questions a, b, c, d, f, and g were slight adaptations of a previously published questionnaire (Ely, 1986). These six questions indicated the degree of students' risk-taking regarding the usage of grammar. In addition, three questions from another published questionnaire (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, developed by Eysenck in 1972) and modified by Shepherd (2009) were selected (questions I, j, k). These three questions indicated the degree of students' risk-taking regarding their personality traits. Question h is adopted from a study of ELLs' pronunciations (Huang, 2010) which indicated the degree of students' risk-taking regarding pronunciation. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested by the researcher through Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability index for the questionnaire was obtained through this method was 0.625 as a whole which was an acceptable reliability index.

The Semi-structured interview consisted of 6 questions and was held after the questionnaires administration. The researcher made a self-report perception /risk-taking Interview (SPRI) (appendix C). Accordingly, items 1, 2 and 3 were indicative of relationship between students' perception of teachers' attitude and risk-taking; items 4 and 5 identified the relationship between students' perception of learning environment and risk-taking, and item 5 identified students' preferred learning environment.

6.3 Data collection procedure and analysis

The data were collected in two consecutive weeks in the mid-autumn 2013. All the data collection was carried out by the researcher herself with the cooperation of the English teachers. The nature and purpose of the research were explained to the students by the researcher as well as their English teachers. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of the results and the advantages of the study. After the required data were collected they were put into spreadsheets and analyzed using SPSS version 16.0. The descriptive statistics were calculated for the data to determine the participants' perception of teachers' attitude as well as learning environment and its relation to their degree of risk-taking in an English class. Later, inferential statistical procedures were run on the data which will be reported in the next section. Analysis was performed using SPSS software. At the $P < .05$ level of significance, the result was accepted.

7. Results and discussion

7.1 Results of Students' Perception of Teachers' Attitude and Learning Environment

The result of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the total mean for participants' perception who were inclined toward either teachers' attitude or learning environment was 3.73 (*SD*= 0.43). The mean scores of participants' perception of teachers' attitude and learning environment fell at high level which showed a great inclination among L2 learners toward the perception of teachers' attitude or learning environment. The highly frequently used perception was "students' perception of teachers' attitude" which showed a high mean of 3.80 with regard to "students' perception of learning environment" with another high mean of 3.68. As illustrated in Table 1 and it was mentioned above, all of the students' perception of this study fell within high range of use. The higher frequently used students' perception was "students' perception of teachers' attitude" with a mean of 3.80; they assigned some 55.4% of the participants using this type of perception. The next highly frequently used perception was "students' perception of learning environment" with a mean of 3.68.

In order to see the frequency and percentage of students' perception, frequency distribution and percentage in SPSS were run. The results presented in Table 1 are indicative of the fact that the highest frequency belongs to the participants who were highly inclined toward "the perception of teachers' attitude" which is running at about 55.4%. As illustrated in Table1, 42.2% of the participants in this study were inclined to benefit from "the perception of learning environment". Seemingly, only 2.4% of the participants cut both ways expressing the same tendency toward either of teachers' attitude or learning environment.

Table 1

The frequency and percentage of students' perception of teachers' attitude and learning environment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Students' perception of teachers' attitude	46	55.4	55.4	55.4
	Students' perception of learning environment	35	42.2	42.2	97.6
	Equal for both pathways	2	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

In order to see the relationship between students' perception of teachers' attitude and their learning environment the researcher ran correlational analysis to find Pearson correlation coefficient along with its p-value. The researcher determined how the results of students' perception of teachers' attitude corresponded to the results of their learning environment. As it is evident in Table 2, the correlation coefficient is .501 and the p-value is .000. Thus, it can be concluded that there is not a very high correlation between the two means.

Table 2 *Pearson correlation between students' perception of teachers' attitude and their learning environment*

		Teacher Attitude	Learning Environment
Teacher Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.501**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	83	83
Learning Environment	Pearson Correlation	.501**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	83	83

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

7.2 Results of gender difference in Students' Perception of Teachers' Attitude and Learning Environment

In order to see whether there was a significant difference between male and female language learners in using a certain type of perception, the researcher ran independent sample t-test and two-way ANOVA. Each perception as well as the total index was run respectively.

Table 3
Results of Independent Samples Test: Gender difference in students' perception of teachers' attitude

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
students' perception of teachers' attitude	Equal variances assumed	.036	.850	.393	81	.695	.04553	.11589	-.18504	.27611
	Equal variances not assumed			.396	79.25	.693	.04553	.11497	-.18329	.27436

As it is evident in Table 3, the significance is .695that is larger than 0.05 so the differences between male and female benefiting from "students' perception of teachers' attitude" were not significant.

Table 4
Results of Independent Samples Test: Gender difference in students' perception of learning environment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
students' perception of learning environment	Equal variances assumed	.055	.815	-2.414	81	.018	-.24599	.10191	-.44875	-.04322
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.394	74.53	.019	-.24599	.10275	-.45069	-.04128

The same can be seen regarding students' perception of learning environment. As it is obvious in Table 4, the significance is.018which is smaller than 0.05 so the differences between male and female using “students' perception of learning environment” were significant.

Table 5
Results of Independent Samples Test: Gender difference in both students' perception of teachers' attitude and learning environment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
Total Mean	Equal variances assumed	.373	.543	-1.198	81	.234	-.11348	.09472	-.30194	.07498
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.193	75.89	.237	-.11348	.09512	-.30293	.07598

As it is evident in Table 5, the significance level is .234that is larger than 0.05 so the differences between male and female using both “perception of teachers' attitude” and “perception of learning environment” were not significant.

7.3 Correlational analysis between Students' Perception and their Risk-taking

To observe the relationship between variables – namely the participants’ perception and their risk-taking – the researcher ran correlational analysis to find Pearson correlation coefficient along with its p-value. The researcher determined how the results of “Students'

Perception" corresponded to the results of "Students' Risk-taking". As it is evident in Table 6, the correlation coefficient is .284 and the p-value is .009. As a result, it can be concluded that the correlation coefficient is significant; however, there is not a very high correlation between the means.

Table 6
Pearson correlation between Students' Perception and their Risk-taking

		Students' Perception	Students' Risk-taking
Students' Perception	Pearson Correlation	1	.284**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009
	N	83	83
Students' Risk-taking	Pearson Correlation	.284**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	
	N	83	83

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

7.4 Results of Students' Risk-taking

In order to see the frequency and percentage of students' risk-taking, frequency distribution and percentage in SPSS were run. The results presented in Table 7 are indicative of the fact that the highest frequency belongs to the participants who were moderate at "risk-taking" which is running at about 61.4%. As it is evident in Table 7, only about 36.1% of the participants in this study took advantage of a desirable risk-taking. Some 61.4% of the participants were moderate and 2.4% of the participants were not benefited. It depicts that more than the half of the participants (51 out of 83 participants) claimed the moderate use of risk-taking in simultaneous processing.

Table 7
The frequency and percentage of Students' Risk-taking

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good at risk-taking	30	36.1	36.1	36.1
	Moderate at risk-taking	51	61.4	61.4	97.6
	Weak at risk-taking	2	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

7.5 Results of gender difference in Risk-taking

In order to see whether there was a significant difference between male and female language learners in risk-taking, the researcher ran independent sample t-test. As it is evident in Table 8, the significance is .398 that is larger than 0.05 so the differences between male and female in risk-taking were not significant.

Table 8 Results of Independent Samples Test: Gender difference in Risk-taking

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
Risk-taking	Equal variances assumed	.722	.398	-1.480	81	.143	-.14318	.09671	-.33562	.04925
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.507	80.72	.136	-.14318	.09502	-.33226	.04589

7.6 Results of interview

The result of researcher made Self-report Perception/Risk-taking Interview (SMRI) shows that there were significant differences between high and low achievers in their perception of teachers' attitude, perception of learning environment, and the degree of risk-taking in an English class. Since students' expectation and perception of their teachers' attitude and learning environment in which they study might be different in an English class, these factors can lead them to change into high- achievers or low- achievers and take different levels of risk to speak English.

Table 9

The result of Self-report Perception/Risk-taking Interview (SPRI)

Questions	High achievers	Low achievers
1. Would you perform better in English class if you thought your English teacher cared about you?	Definitely Yes	Definitely Yes
2. Tell me about your favorite teachers. Why were they your favorites?	Almost all of them liked good-tempered and friendly teachers. They liked teachers who respected and cared about students.	86% of them liked teachers who asked students many questions and made them talk. Others liked teachers who were fair when dealing with different students.
3. Tell me about the teachers you learned a lot from (what did they do that helped you learn?).	Almost 86% of them learned a lot when teachers were more knowledgeable and focused on a specific area such as vocabulary, writing, etc. Others learned a lot when they themselves studied more!	Almost 60% of them learned a lot from the teachers who did not blame them for making mistake. 40% of them learned a lot from those teachers who asked students many questions and made them study.
4. Tell me about a class in which you were comfortable enough to speak English. (What made you feel	Almost all of them were comfortable in a class that had a friendly environment and all the classmates had good relationships	Most of them (about 72%) felt comfortable in a class where neither teacher nor students made fun of them or blamed them for making

comfortable?)	with each other.	mistakes. Others liked classes which were not too crowded.
5. Tell me about a class in which you were not comfortable enough to speak English. (What made you feel uncomfortable?)	Most of them (about 86%) were not comfortable in a class where they were not familiar with other students or their classmates were not friendly. One of them claimed that there was not any class in which he did not feel comfortable.	Almost all of them were not comfortable in a class where either teacher or students made fun of them or blamed them for making mistakes. They also did not feel comfortable when the teacher did not pay enough attention to them and did not ask them to talk.
6. What kind of learning environment would you prefer to study English in?	All of them liked to study English in a friendly environment where all the students are involved in different activities and there are lots of chances for the students to speak English. Some low achievers mentioned that they would like to be asked to speak by the teacher.	

8. Discussion

In order to see the frequency and percentage of students' perception, frequency distribution and percentage in SPSS were run. The highest frequency belongs to the participants who were highly inclined toward "the perception of teachers' attitude" which is running at about 55.4%. 42.2% of the participants in this study were inclined to benefit from "the perception of learning environment". Seemingly, only 2.4% of the participants cut both ways expressing the same tendency toward either of teachers' attitude or learning environment.

The result of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the total mean for participants' perception who were inclined toward either teachers' attitude or learning environment was 3.73 (*SD*= 0.43). The mean scores of participants' perception of teachers' attitude and learning environment fell at high level which showed a great inclination among L2 learners toward the perception of teachers' attitude or learning environment. As it was mentioned above, all of the students' perception of this study fell within high range of use, which means Iranian L2 learners have a generally positive perception of both teachers' attitude and learning environment. As it is evident in Table 4.5, the significance level is .234that is larger than 0.05 so the differences between male and female using the overall "perception of teachers' attitude and learning environment" were not significant. To observe the relationship between variables – namely the participants' perception and their risk-taking – the researcher ran correlational analysis to find Pearson correlation coefficient along with its p-value. The researcher determined how the results of "Students' Perception" corresponded to the results of "Students' Risk-taking". As it is evident the correlation coefficient is .284 and the p-value is .009, and the p-value is smaller than .05 ($p <.05$). As a result, it can be concluded that the correlation coefficient is significant; however, there is not a very high correlation between the means, that is, there is a positive and moderate relationship between the two variables. Therefore one can conclude that the better and more positive perception of teachers' attitude /learning environment L2 learners have, the more likely they would be to take risk to speak English in an English class and vice versa. The result of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the overall mean score for Risk-taking Questionnaire was 3.37 (*SD*=.44) considered as moderate. The mean scores of participants' risk-taking fell at moderate level which showed a fair inclination among L2 learners toward risk-taking.

In order to see the frequency and percentage of students' risk-taking, frequency distribution and percentage in SPSS were run. The results are indicative of the fact that the highest frequency belongs to the participants who were moderate at "risk-taking" which is running at about 61.4%. As it is evident only about 36.1% of the participants in this study took advantage of a desirable risk-taking. Some 61.4% of the participants were moderate and 2.4% of the participants were not benefited. It can be concluded that most of the Iranian L2 learners are moderate risk-takers in speaking English. This result could be in agreement with that of Brown (2001) who stated that many instructional contexts around the world do not encourage risk-taking; instead, they encourage correctness, right answers, and withhold "guesses" until one is sure to be correct. Also there was a research which proved that in numerous SL/FL learning situations, learners, especially Asian learners, have been observed to be quiet in language classrooms, rarely responding to teachers' questions, or actively taking part in classroom interactions (Jackson, 2001, 2002; Liu, 2006; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004; Tsui, 1996; Zou, 2004).As it is evident in Table 4.8, the significance is .143that is larger than 0.05 so the differences between male and female in risk-taking were not significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no difference between individuals/males and females in language class risk-taking.

The results (see Table 4.9) for the Self-report Perception/Risk-taking Interview (SPRI) confirm that there are significant differences between high and low achievers in their perception of teachers' attitude, perception of learning environment, and therefore the degree of risk-taking in an English class. Both high achievers and low achievers reported that their teachers' care and attention would have an extremely important effect on their performance in an English class. In this study almost all of the high achievers liked good-tempered and friendly teachers. They liked teachers who cared about and respected students. But 86% of low achievers reported that they liked teachers who asked students many questions and made them talk. Based on what L2 learners reported one can conclude that low achievers are less likely to take risk to speak English in an English class. They prefer not to take risk to speak in an English class unless they are asked to speak by the teacher. Low achievers do not have tolerance for taking risk of making errors that make them look foolish. They learn more when they have teachers who do not blame them for making mistakes. One can also conclude that high achievers have a more positive perception of their teachers' attitude which helps them to take more risk to speak in an English class (as it was proved to answer the third question in this study). Low achievers tend to put the blame on their teachers when they are not satisfied with the level of their own risk-taking in an English class. They claim that they don't speak because their teachers don't ask them to speak or blame them for making mistakes. On the contrary, high achievers mostly put the blame on themselves and claim that they do not perform very well in an English class when they do not study enough. Almost all of the high achievers were comfortable in a class that had a friendly environment and all the classmates had good relationships with each other; likewise, most of them (about 86%) were not comfortable in a class where they were not familiar with other students or their classmates were not friendly. One of the high achievers claimed that there was not any class in which he did not feel comfortable. On the other hand, most of the low achievers (about 72%) felt comfortable in a class where neither teacher nor students made fun of them or blamed them for making mistakes. Others liked classes which were not too crowded; likewise, almost all of the low achievers were not comfortable in a class where either teacher or students made fun of them or blamed them for making mistakes. They also did not feel comfortable when the teacher did not pay enough attention to them and did not ask them to talk. It can be concluded that high achievers have a much more positive perception of learning environment in comparison with low achievers. Therefore, the more comfortable L2 learners feel in an English learning environment, the more likely they are to take risk to speak. Ely (1986) also suggested similar results that language class discomfort was seen as decreasing both language class risk-taking and language class sociability. Both high achievers and low achievers liked to study English in a friendly environment where all the students were involved in different activities and there were lots of chances for the students to speak English. Some low achievers mentioned that they would like to be asked to speak by the teacher.

9. Conclusions and Implications of the Study

As it was shown, the level of learners' perception of teachers' attitude and learning environment has some effect on their level of risk-taking to speak in an English class .So it might be helpfulif teachers take into consideration the students' perception as a serious issue, and try to help L2 learners have a more positive perception of their teachers' attitude and learning environment using some strategies and techniques, so that students feel comfortable enough to take risk to speak English. Therefore, carrying out studies that present various strategies for EFL teachers to improve learners' perception of teachers' attitude or learning environment is required. Besides, EFL teachers should take into consideration the individual differences among students and their different level of risk-taking. EFL students who are considered as low achievers should be helped to overcome their negative feelings about their teachers, classmates, and learning environment and should be given more attention and chance to talk by the teachers. Average levels of risk-taking to speak English of students should be given a serious consideration and remedy. According to the results of this study all L2 learners like to study English in a friendly environment where all the students are involved in different activities and there are lots of chances for the students to speak English; therefore EFL teachers and English institute managers are required to provide such a learning environment in which all L2 learners feel comfortable to take risk to speak English in class.

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Title

Analysis of the content of different testing books Based on Iran MA university entrance examination

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Abstract

In Iran university entrance examination, some books are presented as sources of examination for teaching English branch. For language testing like linguistic, some books are presented. The writer in present study has tried to investigate some books of teaching language tests to identify if there is any difference between these books which volunteers of entrance exam have to study and how these books are related to each other, and to clarify if it is necessary for learners to read these different books for mentioned examination. To do so, six books of writing English language tests were analyzed according to both topics they teach and techniques they use to present knowledge. The finding of the study reveal that there are some items which are common in all books and many information which presented in these books but the way information are presented and the amount of information about each item are different. Present study suggests that although all of these books are testing books but the information presented in each book is from the point of view of its writer, and different writers have different ideas, so they are represented differently and can help learners to repeat and practice information, and result to meaningful learning of materials.

Key words: Material, Knowledge, Repetition of content

1.Introduction

Source books of testing are very important for students who want to entrance the post graduate education in Iran, because testing is one of the main topics of entrance exam. Teaching is a necessary aspect of learning language as well, and evaluate language is something necessary because it relates to judgment, and make decision about something. The learner may use it in real situations in future and it may affects life of many people. For example, test students for their future work or next level of education.

Evaluation can develop teachers own awareness, so he/she can understand how well his/her study has been, and how well students learn material. By evaluation the teacher can understand if material presented are enough to teach current knowledge, or if he/she must change his course book to another one to teach material from another source and point of view, as Nunan (2003, p.226) says " A course book is a learning tool shared by teachers and learners that can be used in systematic and flexible ways". Sometimes by change books and material, good learning takes place.As for what we have said about testing and its significant in learning language and sometimes in whole life, the teacher cannot use only one source of information and knowledge. So the teacher at first phase and the learners at second phase have to acquire different sources and organize these materials in logical sequences and use them to acquire meaningful knowledge. Organization of materials is of central importance for learning from a number of materials available but, what is clear here is that, by just organizing material, one cannot achieve its purpose to understand all of knowledge. Exercise and repetition of current material is advices by experts. Chastain (1988, p.134) says" Practice is a crucial factor in second language learning because students willingness to practice determines whether they consider it to be beneficial".

Exercise and repetition is significant in learning language. Some materials need to be repeated and exercised to full comprehension. Repetition of materials from different learning sources is more informative than repetition of the same material from the same source. "A common pitfall of inexperienced teachers is to repeat the same material in the same type of activities. Such repetition of identical activities fails to attain the desired objectives and usually results in serious motivational problems in the class"Chastain (1988, p.329).Feedback is obtained by repetition of information in present time. Feedback is essential to effective learning and students can expect to receive appropriate and timely feedback on all assessment. As a student you have a responsibility to incorporate feedback into your learning; make use of the assessment criteria that you are given; be aware of the rules, policies and other documents related to assessment; and provide teachers with feedback on their assessment practices (Kleinsasser,2006).

Some studies have been done by scholars about analysis of the books in English. A research by Anne Marie Heim (2006)"A comparative Analysis of two English text books used in upper secondary school" tries to compare some aspects of two English textbooks. The writer begins by asking the students about their experiences, and opinions of the books. The writer explores how the two textbooks dealt with pre-reading activities and the students experiences with such exercises. According to what this writer says the teacher should be familiar with these activities and include them in his teaching. A pre-reading activity should include actual activity, not merely some back ground information.In a study by Oreizi, Hamid-Reza (Ph. D.), and Aabedi, Ahmad (2008)"Analysis of the content of elementary school books based on the achievement motivation constructs", the content of text books in primary school have been analysed, with respect to the construct of advancement motivation and its indexes. The study reveals that Mathematics and Experimental science books have to high extent paid attention to advancement motivation construct; Farsi literature, Religion, and Quran text books have to some extent paid attention to this matter; and Social Studies text books have been weak in paying attention to this matter.

Research about course books, have been done everywhere to develop learning and teaching the materials. The chief aim of this study is to investigate six books of test writing, which are the main sources of Iran post graduate university entrance examination for English teaching branch.

The main question: Are all of above mentioned books necessary for university entrance examination in Iran, or just study one of them is sufficient for this purpose?

2. Methodology

2.1. data

In this study six books of teaching language test which are sources of Iran university entrance examination were analyzed according to their chapters, topics which they presented, and the amount of information presented about the topics in each book. Investigated books are:

1- Writing English language tests by .J.B Heaton.

2-Testing for language teachers by Arthur Hughes.

3-Testing language skills from theory to practice by Dr. Hossein Farhady and Dr. Abdoljavad Jafarpur and Dr. Parviz Birjandi.

4-Fundamental consideration in language testing by Lyle F. Bachman

5-Techniques in testing by Harolds. Madsen

6-Language testing in practice by Lyle F .Bachman and Adrian S. Palmer

2.2. procedures

In the first book;Writing English language tests; the writer give some explanation about the topic and tries to motivate learners. At the left side of each page, there is a subtopic which the writer gives some explanation about it in a paragraph next to it. These subtopics help learners to pay attention to the main topic of the present paragraph. The chapters discussed in this book are:

Table 1 Writing English language Tests by: J.B Heaton. New edition

	Topic
1	Introduction to language testing
2	Approaches to language testing
3	Objective testing
4	Tests of grammar and usage
5	Testing vocabulary
6	Listening comprehension tests
7	Oral production tests
8	Testing reading comprehension
9	Testing the writing skills
10	Criteria and types of tests
11	Interpreting test scores

Second book; Testing for Language Teachers; the writer has tried to discuss the topics briefly, and gave some information about each topic. At the end of every chapter he presented some activities for learners to compel them to read more about the topics. This book has tried to teach how to test all skills of language.

Table 2 Testing for language teachers by Arthur Hughes

	Topic
1	Teaching and testing
2	Testing as problem solving
3	Kinds of tests and testing
4	Validity
5	Reliability
6	Achieving beneficial back wash
7	Stages of test development
8	Common test techniques
9	Testing writing
10	Testing oral ability

11	Testing reading
12	Testing listening
13	Testing grammar and vocabulary
14	Testing overall ability
15	Tests for young learners
16	Test administration

The third book; Testing language skills from theory to practice; writers who are Iranian writers, have tried to teach all of the topics in a simple way, they used an easy, fluent and understandable language to teach topics. They gave some examples for each topic, and examples contain Iranian names that are familiar for learners. As Adrian Doff (1990) suggest if we give explanations, to increase students chances to understand a topic it is usually best to give them in a way which are familiarfor students and near to their own language. At the end of every chapter the writers presented some activities for learners about content.

Table 3 testing language skills from theory to practice by: Dr. HosseinFarhady, Dr. AbdoljavadJafarpur, Dr. ParvizBirjandi

	Topic
1	Preliminaries
2	Functions of language tests
3	Forms of language tests
4	Basic statistics in testing
5	Test construction
6	Characteristics of a good test
7	Theories of language testing
8	Testing vocabulary
9	Testing structure
10	Testing pronunciation
11	Testing listening comprehension
12	Testing oral production
13	Testing reading comprehension
14	Testing writing ability
15	Cloze and dictation type tests
16	Functional testing

The forth book; Fundamental consideration in Language testing; the writer has tried to present complete explanation for eachtopic, he divided each topic in subtopics and gave information about it. At the end of every chapter the writer presented a summary of each chapter and gave discussion question at the end of each chapter to involve learners in the topics.

Table 4 Fundamental consideration in language testing by Lyle F. Bachman

	Topic
1	Introduction
2	Measurement
3	Use of language tests
4	Communicative language ability
5	Test methods
6	Reliability
7	Validation
8	Some persistent problems and future directions.

The fifth book; Techniques in Testing; consists of two parts, the first part is about how to teach words, grammar, and pronunciation. The second part is about how to teach communication skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. This book classified the material and gave information about it. The writer presented an example after each topic to practically teach the learner.

For every topic the writer presented some limitations and advantages. At the end of every chapter he gave some practical activities to students to learn in practice. And also, at the end of every chapter the writer presented some questions and their answers for students to evaluate themselves.

Table 5 Techniques in Testing by: Harold s. Madsen

	Topic
1	Introduction
2	Vocabulary tests
3	Grammar tests
4	Pronunciation
5	Reading tests
6	Writing tests
7	Listening tests
8	Speaking tests
9	Evaluation

The sixth book; Language testing in practice; the writer gave more comprehensive information for every topic. At the end of every chapter, the writer presented a summary and exercises for students to use. At the end of the book the writer represented development projects for learners as a model for preparing different tests.

Table 6 language testing in practice by: Lyle F. Bachman, Adrian S. Palmer

	Topics
1	Objectives and expectations
2	Test usefulness: qualities and language tests
3	Describing tasks: language use in language tests
4	Describing language ability: language use in language tests
5	Over view of test development
6	Describing , identifying and defining
7	Developing a plan for the evaluation of usefulness
8	Identifying , allocating and managing resources
9	Operationalization: developing test tasks and blue prints
10	Preparing effective instructions
11	Scoring method
12	Language test administration and
13	Illustrative test development projects

3. Results

According to what has shown in the procedure part, investigated books have tried to teach testing from the point of view of different writers. Each book has tried to present some information about testing, some used examples after their explanation about materials, so inductive and deductive techniques were used to teach testing which results to good understanding of material. A course book is a tool which presents its information from points of view of its writer, investigated books are written by different writers, they present material from different views and at the same time result to repetition them from different sources, and more learning takes place. By organize the above mentioned books, the learners have different sources of knowledge about the same thing, and it is the learners task to choice extensive, intensive, scanning, skim techniques to read material. Some books include more and complete information, but it is sometimes hard work for students to understand all presented materials, and some of books are presented in a brief way and easy for learners to understand, but it does not cover complete information, and two books are in complementary mood.

4. Discussion

Every book presents its knowledge in its way, but all try to improve motivation in learners. They use examples, content activities, summary of the chapters to improve motivation to more learning. Chastain (1988) suggest thatthere are some ways that can improve motivation:It should be clarify for the students what is the goal of the course and the class and Assiststudents to achieve goalsof the class.Give the students feedback as to their progress and summarize important content of each class and inform students to focus on what they should learn, use resumes and review sessions to help students learn new material through what they already know, and use appropriatetests and grades for students to motivate them to do better work academically and finally participate students in a classwork that requires the use of previously learned material.

All mentioned books introduced their goal, all try to prepare students to writing tests. All books use examples in different ways, summarize content of the books to make interest in students. Interest in the content rises to a level of importance higher than that of linguistic complexity because no reading will take place if readers are not interested enough to continue reading. However, if they are really interested in knowing what the author has to say, they will make every effort to understand the reading (Chastain, 1988).

The purpose of reading will clarify how to use reading. In all above books different knowledge presented, so the learner must determine what technique of reading is suitable for read which book to get the good results. Whether the learner must read a book intensively or read another book just by scan it. We are not the passive receiver of the text, when we read a text we use our own knowledge of the world and of languageto guess what the text will say next (Adrian Doff, 1990).

5. Conclusion

As the present study reveals, all above mentioned books are appropriate books for teach testing. Presented knowledge in each book is different according to the way knowledge is presented and according to chapters they contain and according to how much of knowledge are represented. Each book teach necessary knowledge for testing which may not presented in another book because number of chapters and the amount of knowledge about chapters is different. This study suggests that mentioned books complete each other in teach testing, and reading all of them is suggested to full comprehension. The learner can achieve the best results by reading all of these books, and by reading just one of these books one cannot achieve the same results.

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Title

Manipulation in Translation: A Case Study of Milan Kundera's Three Novels

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Abstract

Translation is not a neutral and value free act and could not be considered out of its social context. Every society has peculiar worldview, ideologies and norms which are different from the other societies. This study examines the effect of imposed dominant ideologies and norms of a community on conscious manipulation of a text in the process of translation in that community and also on reproducing a modified image of the author in target text which is different from what is reflected in source text. The Present study was located within the framework of Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, 2001) scheme. In an attempt to find answers to the research questions, selected novels were examined in both macro- and micro levels with regard to paratexual materials that surround translations. The result of these examinations show that the translators intentionally manipulate texts based on imposed dominant ideologies and norms of their societies and consequently the author personality which is reflected in target text is different from source text. It could be concluded that, whenever books' contents are in contrast to target dominant ideologies, be it cultural,

political or religious, the translators prefer the latter and apply different manipulation strategies to conform translation to target norms.
Keyterms: Manipulation, Conscious Manipulation, Unconscious Manipulation, Ideology, Strategy

1. Introduction

In today's world translation has became one of the most practical branches of human sciences, since our world is getting smaller and smaller each day due to mass media development . In fact we are facing a global village. It means we live beyond boarders of our country. We are all interested in listening to the latest news of the world, watching movies and reading prize winning books. But not all of these resources are produced in our mother tongue. Here is when translation comes to the scene. But although it is necessary for a translator to master both source and target languages, knowing language is never enough for translating. Every language represents a society and different societies have different worldviews, ideologies and norms. Thus according to Àlvarez and Vidal (1996) translators are:

> Constrained in many ways; by their own ideology, by their feeling of superiority or inferiority towards the language in which they are writing the text being translated; by the prevailing poetical rules at that time; by the very language in which the texts they are translating is written; by what the dominant institutions of ideology expect of them; by the public for whom the translation is intended. (p. 6)

So translation is not a neutral act of replacing a word by its target equivalent since every translator "is influenced by his own cultural values and his ideology, which cause him/her to 'manipulate' the source text by making some additions, omissions, adaptations, and so on" (Sertkan, 2007, p.7).

Polysystem theory which was first developed in the 1970s by Itamar Even-Zohar followed this idea. According to polysystem theory translated text should not be studied alone but in relation to other ideological constraints of target society. It means according to Even-Zohar (as cited in Venuti, 2004, pp.162-163) translated literature operates as a system in two ways: "(a) in the way their source texts are selected by the target literature… (b) In the way they adopt specific norms, behaviors, and policies – in short, in their use of the literary repertoire – which results from their relations with the other home co-systems".

Toury continued works of Even-Zohar. He “focused on developing a general theory of translation” (Munday,2001, p.111). Toury (as cited in Munday, 2001) believes, “translations first and foremost occupy a position in the social and literary systems of target culture, and this position determines the strategies that are employed” (p.112). So Toury (as cited in Munday, 2001, p.112) proposed a methodology for what was called descriptive translation studies.

Manipulation School of translation which is a branch of descriptive translation studies (DTS) could be divided into two types as Farahzad (1999) suggests:

> The conscious process leads to conscious manipulation intentionally carried out by the translator because of various social, political, and other factors. The unconscious manipulation is mostly a psychological phenomenon, and occurs under the influence of psychological factors. (p. 156)

What will be focused on, in this study is conscious and intentional manipulation of a text by a translator due to imposed dominant ideologies, norms and cultural, religious and political values of target society. By doing so, the translator tries to reproduce a picture of a source text according to his/her society’s ideologies and norms which might be sometimes much different from what is reflected in the source text.

2. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to show how dominant ideologies and norms and also political, religious and cultural values of a community may result in conscious manipulation of a text in the process of translation in that community and also in reproducing an image of a source text which is not the same as the original, and nor consequently, the author personality that is known by the readers, literature scholars and critics in source society.

Findings of this study will show the degree of manipulation, if there is any, in translation of some novels with controversial subjects in Iranian-Islamic culture and also translators’ applied strategies.

2.1 Research Questions

Q1: Does manipulation occur in selected translations?

Q2: In which level manipulative shifts mostly have been made?

Q3: What are the different strategies and norms applied by various translators?

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework of this study is based on Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, 2001) scheme presented in a paper called '*On describing translations'* in 1985 .

At that time there was a strong need for "the exact methodology for the case studies" and Lambert and van Gorp scheme becomes a basis for "comparison of the ST and TT literary systems and for the description of relations within them" (Munday, 2001, p.120).

In this model selected pieces of literature are examined in four steps as Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, 2001, p.120) suggest:

1. **Preliminary data:** information on title page, metatext (preface, etc.) and the general strategy (whether translation is partial or complete). The results should lead to hypotheses [general ideas] concerning levels 2 and 3.
2. **Macro-level:** the division of the text, titles and presentation of the chapters, the internal narrative structure and any overt authorial comment. This should generate hypotheses [general ideas] about the micro-level (level 3).
3. **Micro-level:** the identification of shifts on different linguistic levels. These include the lexical level, the grammatical patterns, narrative, point of view and modality. The results should interact with the macro-level (level 2) and lead to their 'consideration in terms of the broader systemic context'.
4. **Systemic context**: here micro- and macro-levels, text and theory are compared and norms identified.

The researcher tends to explain that in micro-level only changes in lexical level have been taken into account. Also manipulation cases (manipulative shifts) found in this level are categorized based on two criteria: a) Type of manipulation strategy, b) The manipulated subject.

Since Kundera's works are originally written in Czech or French, I would like to refer to Farahzad (1383(2004)) theory of intertextuality as a justifying theory in this research. According to this theory, each translated text could be considered as a source text as well since it shares the core concepts with the original and might not be identical to it in some aspects.

2.3 Data Collection

The corpus of this study consists of six books, three English novels and their three Persian translations. So the total number of pages equals to 607 English pages and 899 Persian pages. The source texts are English versions of three novels written by Milan Kundera. These novels are: *Slowness, The Joke* and *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*.

With regard to Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday,2001) scheme, in the first step the title pages, introductions and prefaces of Persian translations were examined carefully. Moreover, in second step (marco-level) the division of the text, titles and presentation of the chapters and the internal narrative structure were taken into consideration, Then in order to find manipulative shifts implanted in lexical level (micro-level) selected novels and their Persian translations were compared line by line and those parts including any type of conscious manipulation were selected. The collected data were then presented in the forms of tables, and strategies type and subject of each manipulated item, and also their frequency were determined. In last step, based on findings of the study translators' applied strategies and norms were described.

2.3.1 Preliminary Data

As Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, 2001, p.120) suggest in this section information on title page and metatext (preface, etc.) will be studied and the general strategy (whether translation is partial or complete) will be specified.

2.3.2 Information on Title Pages and Covers of the Persian Translations

All target texts are presented and accepted as translations. The names of Persian translators and the author as well as the English titles are printed on the copyright pages of all three target texts.

Although two books *The Joke* and *Slowness* are translated via an intermediate language into Persian, the name of the English translator is only published on the title page of the Persian translation of *Slowness*. The Persian translator of *The Joke*, Forough Pouryavari, had written a thank you note on a separate page to one French language expert Mr. Jamshid Arjmand for comparing the translated text with original French text as well as editing it. The third book *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* is translated directly from French into Persian. The fact that the books are translations is not stressed in the Persian translations of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* and *The Joke*. However it is indicated on the front cover of the Persian translation of *Slowness* that it is the first translation of this book in Iran and the translator quotes comments from reviews in the US on the first page of the book which is placed before copyright page.

2.3.3 Information on Metatext (Preface, Introduction)

Slowness

The Persian translation of *Slowness* includes comments from reviews in the US on the first page of the book and it also includes a preface written by the publisher . Farzad (the publisher) in the preface of *Slowness* translated by Jahed (1384(2005)) writes a biography about Milan Kundera and his worldview. He emphasizes how Kundera influenced Czech writing style and literature. He also gives a list of Kundera's works and a list of the prizes he has won during last 30 years. But what is important for the researcher is what Farzad quotes from one of his intellectual friends. (Kabir as cited in Jahed, 1384(2004), pp.15-16):

> Finally, what should be noted here is revolution and recognition of his [Kundera] story characters which are formed and dominant through dates, scattered speaking and romantic relationships. Unfortunately according to abundant moral excuses, proper or improper, the Kundera which is known via translation by Persian speaking [readers] is someone totally different from real Kundera. (My translation)

Farzad continues that in the eye of many French readers, Kundera is known as a homosexual, abortive person whose sexual roots of his stories may originate from these problems.

The Joke

The Persian version of *The Joke* translated by Pouryavari(1385(2006)) includes a short preface written by the Persian publisher followed by author's own introduction. In this short preface, the publisher gives a brief overview about Milan Kundera's life and his works and also represents the historical perspective of author's country at that time. But what caught the attention of the researcher immediately was the declaration of the publisher to manipulating of the target text, written in the last two paragraphs of the preface. The publisher (as cited in Pouryavari, 1385(2006), p. 6) writes:

> According to duty and professional integrity, I would like to confess that although we did our best to keep translation fidelity , we had to manipulate some sentences of the text and also we had to omit section four of chapter five totally due to author's audacity in describing every single scene of a date…Although we are not satisfied with this defalcation and we again confess that such "patchworks" would ruin the originality of a worldwide reputed piece of literature, but we hope that while reading the book, you uphold our motivation for publishing *The Joke* with these defalcations. (My translation)

The short preface is followed by author's own introduction which is directly translated from English with no major omission and addition. Kundra in the introduction of *The Joke* translated into English by Heim(1982) writes that in 1968 and 1969 *The Joke* was translated into all European languages as well as English. He (as cited in Heim, 1982, p. xv) suggests that "I was appalled by the British edition" since the numbers and orders of the chapters were different and a complete passage was also deleted. He wrote a letter of protest to *The Times Literary Supplement,* asking the readers not to accept the English version of *The Joke* as his novel. The publisher apologized but about the same time a more simplified English version was published in the USA. Kundera (as cited in Heim, 1982,p. xv) suggests that he was powerless since “contact with the outside world was becoming more and more difficult in occupied Prague”. Although Kundera was not aware but a young American professor of literature had translated the most important censored parts and had published them in an American journal. As Kundera continues the same professor of literature [Micheal Henry Heim, Translator of the English book] “has done the first valid and authentic version of a book that tells of rape and has itself so often been violated”. Kundera (as cited in Heim, 1982, p.xvi) also writes that he reworked the original French version since he discovered its’ style didn’t present his. In the last part of this introduction Kundera writes an impressive paragraph about how ideological manipulation (let it be cultural, religious or political,) may “prevent a work of art from telling its own truth in its own words”. As he (as cited in Heim, 1982, p. xvi) believes:

> Habent sua fata libelli. Books have their fates. The fate of the book called *The Joke* coincided with a time when the combined inanity of ideological dictatorship (in the Communist countries) and journalistic oversimplification (in the West) was able to prevent a work of art from telling its own truth in its own words. The ideologues in Prague took *The Joke* for a pamphlet against socialism and banned it; the foreign publisher took it for a political fantasy that became reality for a few weeks and rewrote it accordingly.

The Unbearable Lightness of Being

The Persian Translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* translated by Homayounpour (1384(2005)) includes three different prefaces written by the Persian translator. First one is translator’s preface on first publication, second one is translator’s preface on second publication, and third one is translator’s preface on fourth publication.

In the first preface, he provides information about Milan Kundera’s worldview by describing characters of his story. Homayounpour (1384(2005) , p.8) writes that:

> From the beginning, philosophical conception and pervasive language of the book, face the reader with fundamental issues of human being and lead him to think. Novel’s characters demonstrate human situations in front of our eyes by expressing their emotions, thoughts and dreams. (My translation)

Then he analyzes story characters one by one, tries to give the readers an overview about the novel they are going to read.

One year after first publication, the translator writes another preface on second publication of the book. In that preface, he mainly focuses on Kundera's characters with the hope that it would prevent prejudice about Kundera and his works by the readers, since there was some rumor around regarding unethical content of the novel after first publication of the Persian translation. In the last paragraph he (1384(2005), p. 13) admits that, "his [Kundera's] works should be read and reread with a poetic taste, away from any prejudice and in complete intellectual independence"(My translation).

The third preface which is written on fourth publication of the book is started with this claim of translator (1384(2005), p.15) that "republishing of بارهستی *(Burden of Being)* for the fourth time proved that Kundera's most famous novel has arisen, interest and praise of Persian readers…" (My translation). He (1384(2005), p.15) continues that "simplistic criticisms and interpretations make the valid perception of Kundera's thoughts, very difficult" (My translation). Then he gives an overview about Kundera's worldview and also his insight about role and purpose of the novel in general. Finally he writes about Kundera's latest novel 'Immortality' and compares characters of these two novels together. In this preface the translator tries to picture Kundera's thoughts and opinions for the Persian readers as much as possible.

3. General Translation Strategy

Although all Persian books are supposed to be complete translations of the English texts, the researcher has found that many words, sentences, paragraphs and sometimes even complete chapters were omitted in Persian translations.

Considering Persian translation of *Slowness,* seven complete chapters are missing. Let alone, words, sentences and paragraphs which are omitted in some parts of the book.

In Persian translation of *The Joke*, section 4 of chapter 5 is not translated according to what editor calls "author's audacity in describing every single scene of a date".

Although Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being,* includes less deleted parts compared to other translations, in some parts of the Persian book, one, two or even more pages are not available.

Based on these findings, one could conclude that more manipulative shifts may be found in next two steps: macro- and micro-levels.

3.1 Macro-level

As Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, 2001, p.120) suggests, this section looks at questions like the division of the chapters, titles of the texts and also any overt authorial comments.

3.1.1 Titles

The Persian titles of *The Joke* (شوخی) and *Slowness* (آهستگی) reflect the same meaning of the original but Persian title of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* tells a different story. It is translated as '*بار هستی*' which literally means '*Burden of Being*' in Persian. It doesn't include the paradoxical meaning that exists between the words 'unbearable' and 'lightness'. Homayounpour ((1384(2005), p.15), the Persian translator of this book writes a footnote in his preface on fourth publication of Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being,* trying to justify his motivations toward the translation of title as '*بار هستی*' (*Burden of Being*):

> In some readers' opinion title '*بار هستی*' (*Burden of Being*) is not precisely equal to '*The Unbearable Lightness of Being'.* It is true that meaning of 'heaviness' rather than 'lightness' is concealed in '*بار هستی*' (*Burden of Being*) while '*The Unbearable Lightness of Being'* reminds us of only 'lightness'. The translator however prefers '*بار هستی*' (*Burden of Being*), according to its grace and familiarity in Persian language, the significance of concise title, and also because '*بار هستی*' (*Burden of Being*) could be considered light too. (My Translation)

3.1.2 Presentation of Chapters

The division of chapters in all three translations of *The Joke, Slowness* and *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* are the same as English texts. The translators didn't intentionally change the order of the chapters as it was once happened to the first English Translation of *The Joke* published in London. (It was noted earlier that first English translation of The Joke has gone under severe appropriation strategies. The translator had changed the sequences of chapters and had put them in chronological order to make it appropriate and easy for target reader to understand).

However in Persian translation of *Slowness* the numbers of chapters are different from English text from chapter 28 to the end of the book. Since the translator once omitted one complete chapter, then four whole chapters and finally complete two chapters. Consequently, not only numbers of chapters are different from English text but also the total number of them is not the same. While English book includes 51 chapters, the Persian translation includes only 44.

3.1.3 Internal Narrative Structure

Generally the internal narrative structures in English texts and Persian translations were the same. Yet the researcher found that point of view of some sentences was changed, sometimes pronouns were replaced by their antecedents and occasionally sentences' types were different in Persian translations.

Instances:

Table 1.Instance is taken form translation of Slowness

English Version	**Persian version**
Revolt against the human condition <u>we</u> did not choose (p. 79)	شورش بر علیه شرایطی که <u>انسان</u> آن را برنگزیده است. (101)

As the example shows, pronoun *we* is translated as *انسان* (*human*). It should be rather translated as شورش بر علیه شرایط انسانی که ما آن را برنگزیده ایم

Table 2.Instance is taken form translation of The Joke

English Version	**Persian version**
But now I see <u>his wife</u> sitting in front of me ... (p.168)	اما من حالا <u>هلنا</u> را می بینم... (275)

In the above example *his wife* is replaced by *هلنا* 'Helena' which is the name of mentioned woman.

Table 3.Instance is taken form translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English Version	**Persian version**
<u>They can make it hard for anybody</u>... (p.14)	<u>با کی تسویه حساب نمی کنند؟</u> (56)

As it is clear from above example the English sentence is a declarative sentence, and is expressed by certainty but it is translated as an interrogative sentence in Persian translation which may or may not be true.

Based on findings of last two steps, including publisher's declaration of manipulating some parts of *The Joke* in translation, excessive omissions of complete chapters in translation of *slowness* and translated modified title of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*, more shifts on linguistic levels are expected in micro-level.

3.2 Micro-level

This level is the identification of shifts on different linguistic levels including the lexical level, the grammatical patterns, narrative, point of view and modality. (Lambert and van Gorp as cited in Munday, 2001)

Here it should be noted again that in micro-level the focus of this study is on manipulative shifts in lexical level. Because considering the grammatical patterns, narrative, point of view and modality will make the study too broad to be a MA thesis.

In this step, first gathered data are categorized based on Zauberga (as cited in Dukāte, 2007) typology of ideological manipulation.

Then manipulated subjects are divided into three groups based on Nitsa's (2000) definition of ideological manipulation.

3.2.1 Manipulation Strategies

According to Zauberga (as cited in Dukāte, 2007, p. 54) ideological manipulation can take the following forms:

- Deletion(omission)
- Substitution
- Addition
- Attenuation(softening)

3.2.2 Deletion

Deletion is one of the most frequently used manipulation strategies in translational process. It occurs when a word, sentence, phrase or even a whole chapter is omitted from the target text. By using this strategy the translator cuts off the problematic part and clings together the former and later sentences. It may affect the meaning of next sentences, especially if there is a reference to other parts of the text in deleted part. So the readers may feel a vagueness and lack of clarity that might then contribute to negative evaluation of the act of translation. All three translators applied this strategy to a great deal in Persian translations of three selected novels and one of them (the Persian translator of *Slowness*) went so far that she has omitted seven complete chapters of the book. Among total number of 159 cases of deletion, 55 cases were found in Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*, 54 cases in Persian translation of *Slowness* and 50 cases in Persian translation of *The Joke*.

Instances:

Table 4.Case of Deletion in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version
Chapter 34(pp. 115-120)	(129) -

In the above example taken from *Slowness* the Persian translator (Hamideh Jahed) deleted whole chapter of original book which is description of an unmarried couple's swimming without leaving any signs for the readers.

Table 5.Case of Deletion in translation of The Joke

English version	Persian version
"What's so special about your virginity? Who are you saving it for?" No answer. "Say something!" (p.99)	(166) -

The above mentioned sentences which are said to hero's girlfriend by the hero himself while she refrains from having any sexual relationship with him is omitted from the Persian translation because losing virginity before marriage is a big taboo in target culture.

Table 6.Case of Deletion in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	Persian version
Karenin made the homecoming easier by jumping up on him and licking his face. (p. 19)	کارنین در بغل او پرید و لحظهٔ دیدار را آسان ساخت. (65)

Here the phrase *licking his face* is not translated. It should be noted that Karenin is a dog and according to target society's religious beliefs dogs are unclean and people shouldn't have direct contact with them or keep them inside their houses.

3.2.3 Substitution

It can refer to a type of manipulation strategy in which a word, phrase, sentence or paragraph is replaced by a more acceptable or familiar word, phrase, sentence or paragraph in target culture while meaning of the original is somehow modified in target text. A total number of 126 out of 343 cases of substitution were found in the corpus. Among them Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness Being,* had the most frequency with 51 cases of substitution and Persian translation of *The Joke* had the least frequency with 26 cases. Persian translation of *Slowness* included 49 cases of substitution.

Instances:

Table 7.Case of Substitution in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version
Two other whiskies (p.84)	دو لیوان دیگر(104)

In this example the word *whisky* is replaced by *لیوان* which means 'glass' in Persian. It is a general term and doesn't refer to any special kind of potable. So it is not obvious for the reader that what kinds of drink the glasses include. The translator is applying this strategy because drinking alcoholic beverages such as whisky is strongly prohibited either by religious beliefs or authorities of target society.

Table 8.Case of Substitution in translation of The Joke

English version	**Persian version**
...out for a fling to escape from <u>her husband</u>.(p.161)	...و برای فرار <u>از بیحوصلگی</u> بیرون می زنند.(264)

In the above mentioned example the word *husband* is translated as *بیحوصلگی* which means 'boredom' in Persian. In fact here the truth that the woman is married is not stressed in Persian version because it is not only unethical but also illegal for a married woman to have an affair in target culture.

Table 9.Case of Substitution in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
…and her soul lay somewhere <u>at the</u> <u>level of the stomach or pancreas</u> (p. 23)	... و روح در <u>درونش</u> خفته بود. (76).

Here the translator manipulates the English text by translating *at the level of the stomach or pancreas* as *درونش* 'inside her' due to religious considerations of target society about the significance of man's soul.

3.2.4 Addition

Addition which is one of the less common manipulation strategies occurs when the translator adding a word, phrase, sentence or paragraph to the source text, trying to explain something which may be unfamiliar to the target readers. Of 343cases of manipulation, 6 cases were addition which 5 of them belonged to Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* and 1 to Persian translation of *Slowness* and none to Persian translation of *The Joke*.

Instances:

Table 10.Case of Addition in translation of Slowness

English version	**Persian version**
I don't give a damn what you detest! (p.110)	دیگر اهمیت نمی دهم که چه هستی! <u>تو یک زن بی عاطفه هستی!</u> (124)

In this example the translator adds the sentence (تو یک زن بی عاطفه هستی!) to Persian version in order clarify previous sentence which is not translated properly. As it is obvious form this example, using one type of manipulation strategy may result in using other types of it as well.

Table 11.Case of Addition in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
A <u>mass</u> happened to be in progress (p. 57)	همان وقت <u>به یاد فدا شدن خون و تن عیسي مسيح</u> دعا مي

	خواندند. (139)

As it is clear from the above example, the phrase به یاد فدا شدن خون تن عیسی مسیح is added in Persian translation in order to clarify the meaning of *mass* for target readers.

3.2.5 Attenuation (softening)

Attenuation is another manipulation strategy in which the translator tones down the strong language of the original that may be considered too harsh, blunt or unacceptable in target language. By applying his strategy, the meaning of the original text is somehow kept but more innocuous, indirect and inoffensive words are used. Among the total 343 cases of manipulation, 52 cases of attenuation were found. The Persian translation of *Slowness* had 21 cases of attenuation and Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* had 16 cases and Persian translation of *The Joke* had 15 cases of attenuation.

Instances:

Table 12.Case of Attenuation in translation of Slowness

English version	**Persian version**
Mistress (p.104)	خواهان (118)

As the example shows, the Persian translation has manipulated the English text via attenuation. Here the word *mistress* is translated as خواهان to avoid the direct mention of what is unacceptable in target culture meanwhile the meaning of original is not significantly changed.

Table 13.Case of Attenuation in translation of The Joke

English version	**Persian version**
It was common knowledge that she slept around. (p.108)	همه خبر دارند که اینطرف و آنطرف می پرد. (183)

As we can see in this example, the Persian translator attenuates the phrase *that she slept around* by using a Persian phrase which is not precisely equal to that but somehow shows woman's lack of loyalty as the original phrase does.

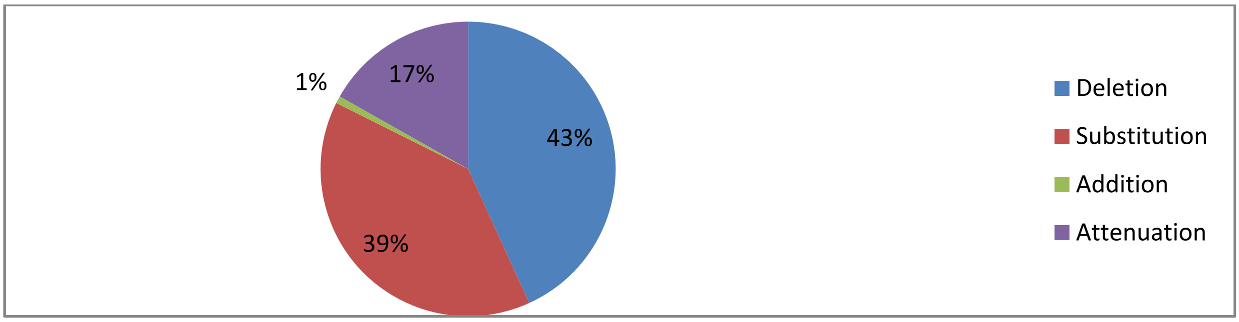
Table 14.Case of Attenuation in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
Between the whores' world and God's world (p. 56)	میان دنیاي روسپي ها و جهان کلیسا (138)

As the example shows *God's world* is translated as جهان کلیسا 'church word' since *God's world* is compared to *whores world* in the original text and this comparison is too offensive in Islamic beliefs of target society. The translator used the word 'church' which indirectly refers to 'religion' and 'God'.

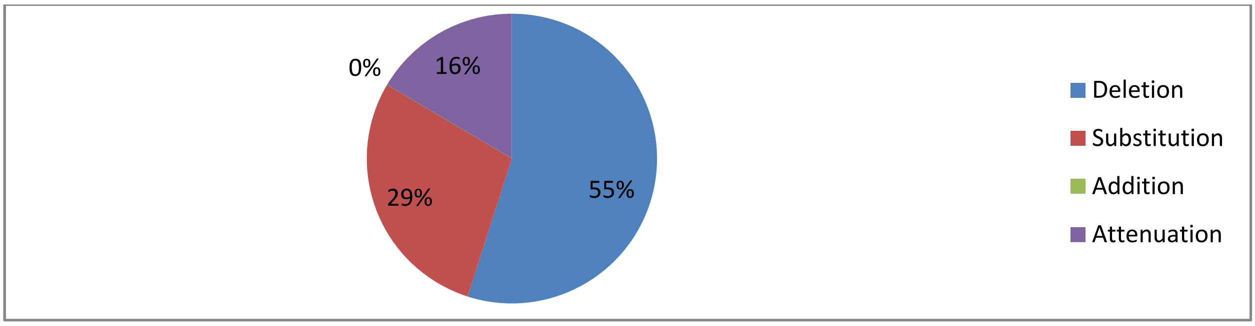
Up to now all types of manipulation strategies applied by the translators were defined and exemplified. Frequency of manipulation strategies in each translation will be discussed based on the related charts.

Chart 1: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of Slowness



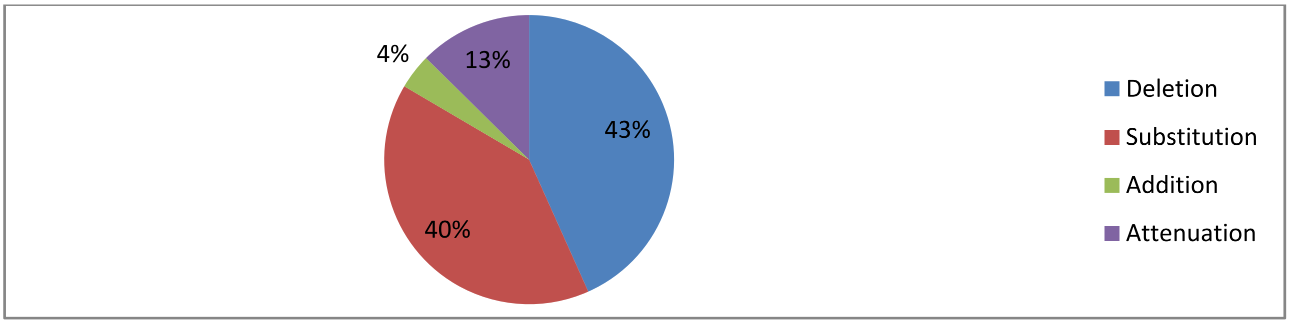
The total number of manipulation strategies in Persian translation of *Slowness* translated by Hamideh Jahed (1384(2005)) was 125 cases. Among them 54 cases (43%) were deletion, 49 cases (39%) were substitution, 21 cases (17%) were attenuation and only one case (1%) was addition. As it is obvious from this information, the dominant manipulation strategy in this translation is deletion. Persian translation of *Slowness* also includes most deleted pages among all three examined translations.

Chart 2: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of The Joke



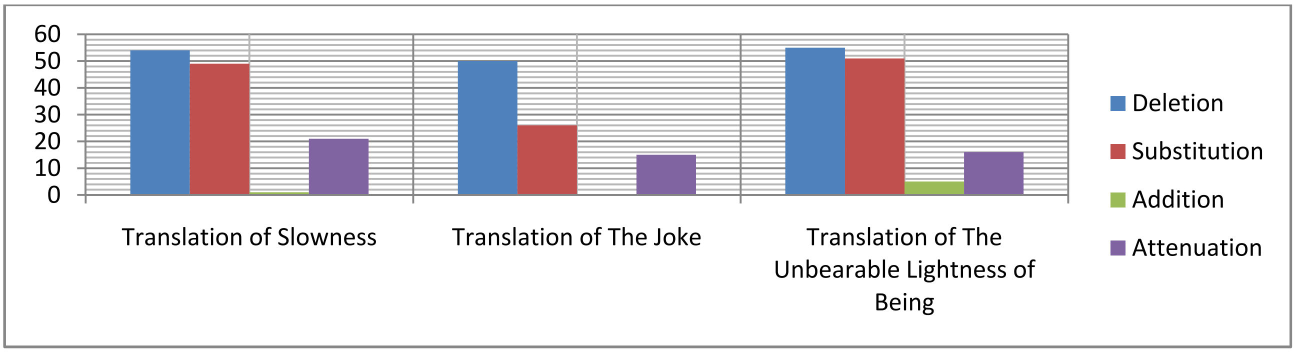
The total number of manipulation cases found in Persian translation of *The Joke* translated by Forough Pouryaveri (1385 (2006)) was 91 cases. In this translation, deletion was dominant manipulation strategy with a number 0f 50 cases (50%). Cases of substitution found in this translation were 26 (29%). There were 15 cases(16%) of attenuation and no case of addition was found in this translation.

Chart 3: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being



The Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*, which was done by Parviz Homayonpour (1384(2005)), is the translation with the most (127) cases of manipulation. It contained 55 cases (43%) of deletion, which is again the most frequent manipulation strategy in this translation. There were also a number of 51 cases (40%) of substitution, 16 cases (13%) of attenuation and 5 cases (4%) of addition. This book has the most cases of addition (5 cases) compared to other examined translations which had (2 cases) and (0 case).

Chart 4: Frequency of using different manipulation strategies in translation of the novels Slowness, The Joke and The Unbearable Lightness of Being



The frequency of using each type of manipulation strategy is shown in above chart to facilitate the task of comparison and discussion. As it is obvious from the chart, the most frequently manipulation strategy adopted in examined translations is deletion with a number of 159 cases out of 343 cases. Next to it is substitution with a number of 126 cases. Attenuation occupies the third place with a number of 52 cases. And the least frequently applied manipulation strategy is addition. only 6 cases of which was found in whole corpus which 5 of them belonged to Persian translation of The *Unbearable Lightness of Being* and 1 case to Persian translation of *Slowness* and zero case to Persian translation of *The Joke*.

4. Manipulated Subjects

According to Nitsa (2000, p.43) ideological manipulation is “any interference with the text, be in cultural, religious, or political, imposing modifications that are not textual constraints, for the purpose of indoctrination”.

What follows in this section are definition of each manipulated subject and also some examples collected from corpus.

4.1 Cultural

One of the subjects have been mostly manipulated in examined translations are cultural subjects. This group includes moral issues and cultural mismatches between two languages. Among the total 343 cases of manipulation, 300 cases were cultural subjects which 107 of them belonged to Persian translation of *Slowness*, 89 of them to Persian translation of *The Joke* and 104 of them to Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*.

Instances:

Table 15.Manipulation of cultural subjects in translation of Slowness

English version	**Persian version**
<u>Chapter 28</u> (pp. 95-97)	(115) -

As it is clear from this example, chapter 28 is totally omitted from Persian translation due to abundant moral excuses.

Table 16.Manipulation of cultural subjects in translation of The Joke

English version	**Persian version**
…<u>Vlasta had long since lost her virginity</u>. She wasn't strictly entitled to the symbol of the garland. (p.128)	...البته ولاستا از خیلی وقت پیش چندان سزاوار نماد حلقه ی گل نبود. (215)

As it is clear from above example, the first part of the sentence which talks about bride’s virginity is omitted in translation because of cultural mismatch between source and target societies on this issue.

Table 17.Manipulation of cultural subjects in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
You used to say you wanted <u>to sleep with me</u> .(p. 38)	تو مي خواستي <u>با من باشي</u>.(102)

In this example what is considered inappropriate in target culture *to sleep with me* is substitutes with a more acceptable phrase *با من باشی* ‘to be with me’.

4.2 Religious

Among subjects being manipulated in examined translation are religious subjects. This group includes issues which are against Islamic beliefs of the target society.

A total number of 34 cases of manipulation of religious subjects were found in examined corpus. The Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* had 18 cases and Persian translation of *Slowness* consisted of 14 cases and in Persian translation of *The Joke* 2 cases were found.

Instances:

Table 18.Manipulation of religious subjects in translation of Slowness

English version	**Persian version**
The latest of her lovers is particularly worshipful. (p.52)	آخرین معشوق او با سایرین متفاوت است. (71)

As the example shows the words *particularly worshipful* in the English text are replaced by *با سایرین متفاوت* (different from others) in translation. The reason is that worshipfulness belongs only to God according to target society's religious beliefs and its attribution to human being is considered atheism.

Table 19.Manipulation of religious subjects in translation of The Joke

English version	**Persian version**
Now, if God's masons built real walls, I doubt we'd be able to destroy them. But instead of walls all I see is backdrops, sets. And sets are made to be destroyed. (p.6)	تازه اگر بناهای خداوند دیوارهای واقعی بسازند، فکر نمی کنم ما بتوانیم آن را خراب کنیم. (24)

In the above example, the first part of English sentence which stresses man's inability towards God is clearly translated. But the second part of English text is completely omitted from translation because it includes an insulting action to God.

Table 20.Manipulation of religious subjects in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
What she had unexpectedly met there in the village church was not God; it was beauty. (p. 57)	چیزي که ناگهان در کلیسا با آن مواجه شد، نوعي زيبايي بود. (140)

Here, the English phrase *was not God* is regarded offensive in target religious beliefs, so it is not translated at all.

4.3 Political

Political subjects are occasionally manipulated in translated texts. Although selected books include severe criticisms of Communist regime, the number of political subjects being manipulated is low. The situation will not be the same, if the book is published in a country under the rule of a Communist government like China or Cuba.

Among 343 cases of manipulation, 9 cases were political. 4 of them belonged to Persian translation of *Slowness* and none to Persian translation of *The Joke*. Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* included 5 cases of manipulation of political subjects.

Instances:

Table 21.Manipulation of political subjects in translation of Slowness

English version	**Persian version**
Apparatchik of Eroticism (p.2)	صاحب منصب اروتیکالیسم (20)

In the above example, the English word *apparatchik* conveys a political meaning ‘a member, esp. an official of a Communist Party’ (Webster New World Dictionary, 1995, p.65). But it is translated as صاحب منصب (official) which is a neutral word.

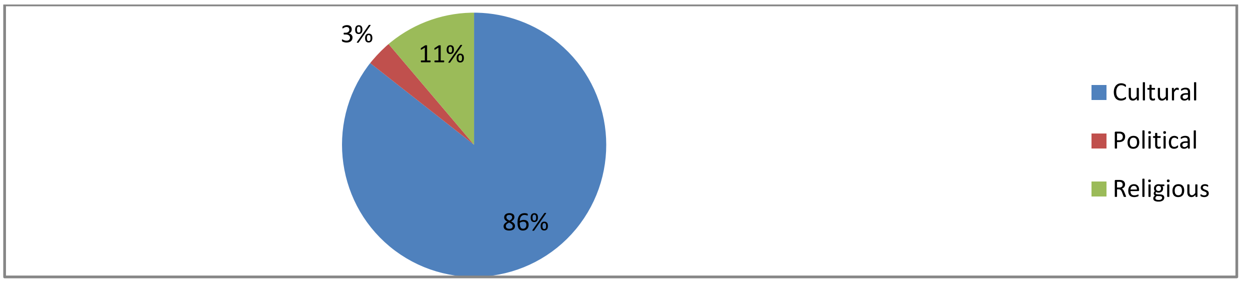
Table 22.Manipulation of political subjects in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
…the students were going out on strike demanding the departure of the Russians… (p. 34)	...، دانشجویان در حال اعتصاب بسر مي بردند. (ص 94)

In this example, the English sentence *demanding the departure of the Russians* is not translated in Persian version due to target society’s good political ties with Russia.

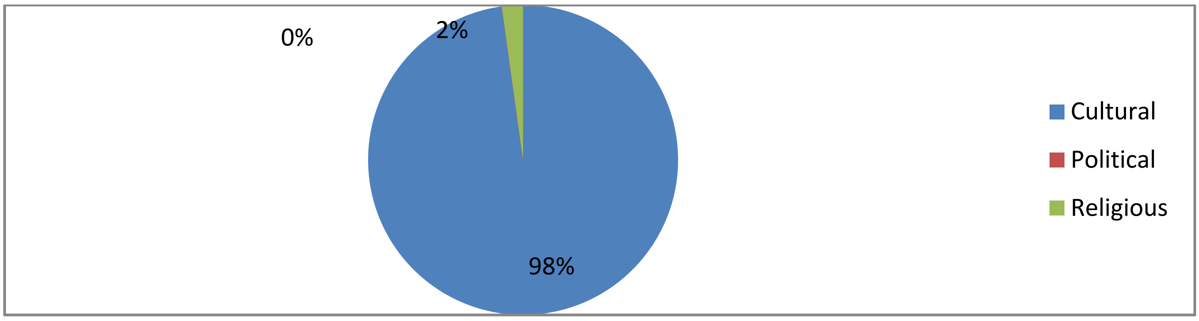
Up to now all of manipulated subjects were defined and exemplified. Frequency of manipulated subjects is each translation will be discussed based on the related charts.

Chart 5: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of Slowness



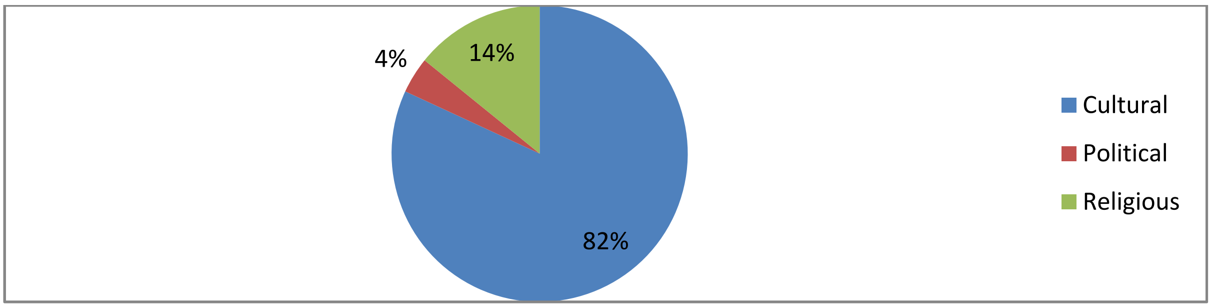
The total number of manipulation of cultural, political and religious subjects in Persian translation of *Slowness* by Hamideh Jahed (1384(2005)) was 125 cases. As it is clear from the chart, 86 % of these manipulations applied for cultural subjects, which are 107 out of 125 cases. The number of manipulation within the religious subjects in this translation was 14 cases (11%) and this number for political subjects is 4 cases which is only 3% of the whole manipulation.

Chart 6: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of The Joke



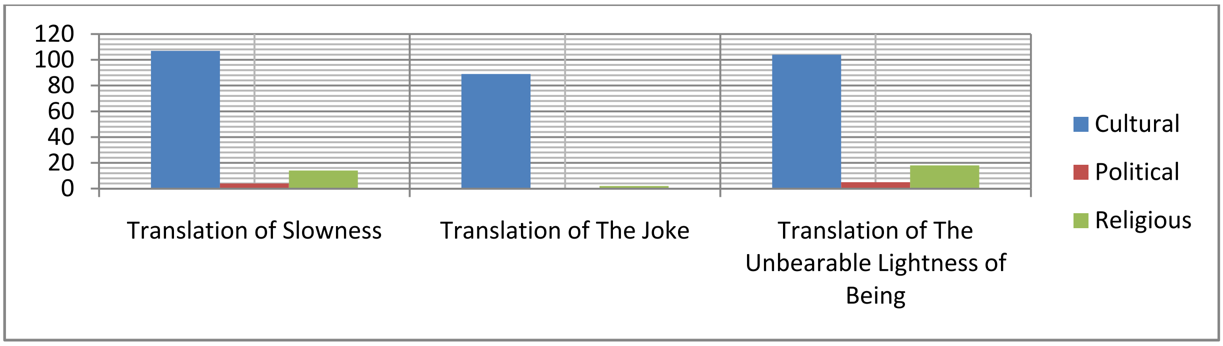
In Persian translation of *The Joke* done by Forough Pouryavari (1385(2006)), there was not any political subjects manipulated. Among total number of 91 cases of manipulation, 89 (98%) of them were cultural subjects and only 2 cases (2%) were religious subjects.

Chart 7: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being



In the above chart again, the most portion related to cultural subjects. Of the total 127 cases of manipulation in Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* translated by Parviz Homayonpour (1384(2005)), 18 cases (14%) belong to manipulation of religious subjects, 5 cases (4%) were within the political subjects and the remained 104 case (82%) were manipulation of cultural subjects.

Chart 8: Frequency of manipulated subjects in translation of the novels Slowness, The Joke and The Unbearable Lightness of Being



This chart is a general outline of the above discussion about the manipulated subjects. The frequency of manipulation strategies applied under the cultural, political and religious subjects is shown in the chart for each translation in order to facilitate the task of comparison and discussion. As the above chart shows the most commonly manipulated subjects in examined translations are cultural subjects with the frequency of 300 cases out of 343 cases of manipulation. Religious subjects stand next with the frequency of 34 cases in defined corpus.Political subjects are the least manipulated subjects with frequency of 9 cases in all three translations.

5. Systemic Context

Here micro- and macro-levels, text and theory are compared and norms identified. (Lambert and van Gorp as cited in Munday, 2001).

Three selected novels of Milan Kundera which are *Slowness, The Joke* and *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* and also their Persian translations were examined based on last three steps. First Persian translations' title pages, introductions and prefaces were examined and general translation strategy was determined. In macro-level general choices made by the translators were taken into account. It was found that the title of one book *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* is translated as بار هستی *(Burden of Being)* which made the researcher more cautious about more possible manipulation strategies being applied in the body of the text. The translators tried to keep the presentation of the chapters as close as possible to English texts except for one book, the translation of *Slowness* which changes in micro-level (unmarked deletion of seven complete chapters) had lead to mismatch between chapter numbers of English and Persian texts. The researchers didn't notice big differences between internal narrative structures of English texts and Persian translations except for some sentences with different structure or different point of view.

From these findings certain generalization can be proposed concerning the translation norms: in all translations the same norm is at work. All three translators adopt target text-oriented translation strategy, modifying lexical items of English texts via substitution or attenuation, omit problematic parts, even complete chapters, and change titles of the book and division of chapters. It could be concluded that, whenever books' contents are in contrast to target dominant ideologies, be it cultural, political or religious, the translators prefer the latter and apply different manipulation strategies to conform the translations to target norms.

6. Discussion and conclusion

Based on the results of this study we can draw the following conclusions:

1. Based on gathered information from examined books, it was proved that all three translations have gone under some degrees of manipulation.
2. The data provides support to the fact that although manipulative shifts happened in both macro- and micro- levels, most of the changes are made in micro-level.
3. The dominant type of manipulation strategy applied by all three translators was deletion which is the most severe manipulation strategy among others.
4. The most subjects being manipulated in examined corpus were cultural subjects including moral issues and cultural mismatches between two languages.
5. Generally speaking, in all translations the same norm was at work. All three translators adopted target text-oriented translation strategy, modified lexical items of English texts via substitution or attenuation, omitted problematic parts, even complete chapters, and changed titles of the book and division of chapters.
6. The number of additions was not so significant in all of the translations.

Having a general overview on the issues of translation and manipulation, one can observe the outstanding role of society and power relations in translation and in the way a text is manipulated.

The results of this study show, how dominant ideology, norms and cultural, religious and political values of target society result in conscious manipulation of a text by the translator.

Manipulative shifts are implanted in both macro-and micro- levels . In macro level it was found that Persian title of *The Unbearable Lightness of being* has been translated as بارهستی which is a modified equivalence of the English title. Persian translation of *Slowness* lacked 7 complete chapters comparing to English text and consequently chapter numbers of English and Persian texts were different from chapter 28 to the end of the books. The internal narrative structures of English texts and Persian translations were somehow the same although the researcher found some sentences in Persian translations with different structure or different point of view. In micro-level English texts and Persian translations were compared line by line and 343 cases of manipulation were found. These cases were categorized based on types of manipulation strategies and manipulated subjects.

According to chart 4.4 it can be claimed that the most frequently manipulated strategy applied by all three translator is deletion. Although deletion cases consist of unmarked and marked, more than 95% of cases are manipulated through unmarked deletion which is the strongest manipulation strategy among others since this may cause readers to feel inconsistency in the whole text and thus reliability of the translator can be questioned. Consequently, the act of manipulation, as the application of the translation strategies, ought to be practiced as professionally as possible in order to skip such feeling of doubts. Maybe applying milder strategies such as marked deletion and attenuation could help in this area of concern.

Of course one could claim that cases of manipulation in translated texts could be decided by authorities and publishers, translators seem to be the first agents that face them and have the opportunity to select their approach toward them in the act of translating.

According to chart 4.8 it can be said that the most manipulated subjects are cultural subjects (including moral issues and cultural mismatches). It was somehow expected because Kundera, the author of these books, is famous for writing bare and open texts with regard to describing sexuality scenes while speaking about such issues in target culture is a big taboo.

The point here is that, the translator wandered between two sharp edges: If he/she chooses ‘adequacy’, trying to be faithful to the original author, then no conscious manipulation including deletion, substitution, addition and attenuation is allowed. In this way he/she will be doomed for being unaware of ideologies, norms and cultural, religious and political values of his own society if the book gets the permission of authorities to be published at all. In case he/she chooses ‘acceptability’ trying to take care of dominant ideologies of target culture and its norms and its cultural, religious and social values, he/she will be criticized in terms of author’s right in his work. So both cases seem to be unjust anyway. Maybe our translators need to be trained regarding manipulation strategies and have enough information of these two sharp edges of transferring message between languages. Whenever necessary they may be able to use moderate strategies with the highest degree of efficacy and the lowest degree of loss.

To conclude the study I would like to quote Lefevere (1992) that, "on every level of translation process, it can be shown that, if linguistic considerations enter into conflict with considerations of an ideological and/or poetological nature, the later tend to win out" (p.39).

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Title

Some notes on English learning anxiety in classroom: an Iranian study

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Abstract

Considered to be an important affective variable, anxiety has been found to be correlated with English-learning achievement among different groups of people in various contexts. In order to explore high school students' English learning anxiety in Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms, this study surveyed and analyzed 115 students from a high school in Tehran, Iran. The results indicated that students indeed had comparatively high anxiety in English learning. Males have higher anxiety of English classes than females. And it was also found that high anxiety plays a somewhat debilitative role in high school students' language learning. Finally, the possible causes leading to such findings were discussed, and some suggestions for reducing students' anxiety in classrooms were proposed for teachers.

Key words: English learning anxiety, High school students, Gender.

1. Introduction

It has been observed that some students in English classrooms experience anxiety that results in stuttering and fast heart-beating. These phenomena, all of which are attributed to a psychological state - anxiety - have been the research focus of many linguists and psychologists in recent years. Anxiety has been regarded as one of the most important affective factors that influence second language acquisition. Much research (e.g., Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre& Gardner, 1994; Young, 1991), especially in western countries, has been conducted to find the relationship between anxiety and achievement in the learning of different foreign languages. Most studies (e.g., Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre& Gardner, 1994) arrived at a conclusion that anxiety and achievement are negatively correlated. In iran, similar research has also been conducted with different groups of people. Most of them, however, were college students. High school students, who are still at a comparatively low level of English proficiency and thus more easily experience a feeling of uneasy suspense (Rachman, 1998), are overlooked by most researchers. In this paper, the author endeavored to bridge this gap to find out the situation of this neglected group's English classroom anxiety through a study conducted in a key middle school of Tehran .

2. Literature Review

Anxiety, simply speaking, is a kind of troubled feeling in the mind. It is a subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system (Horwitz, 1986). Usually anxiety is classified into trait anxiety, state anxiety and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety, as Scovel (1978) noted, refers to "a more permanent predisposition to be anxious" while state and situation-specific anxiety are usually experienced in relation to some particular event or situation (Brown, 2001). Language anxiety, the research target of this paper, belongs to the last category, which refers to the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

With the shifting of research focus from teachers to learners in SLA (Second Language Acquisition), affective factors, such as attitudes and motivation, were thought to account a lot for language learning outcomes. Anxiety, as a very important affective factor, has been considered very important, and many studies have been undertaken to explore it since the 1970s.The major concern of the earlier studies was the causes of language anxiety. As early as 1983,Bailey, through the analysis of the diaries of 11 learners, had found that competitiveness can lead to anxiety. Besides, he (1983) found that tests and learners' perceived relationship with their teachers also contributed to learners' anxiety. These three aspects that Bailey identified were supported in subsequent studies, especially in Young's study. According to Young (1991), there are six potential causes of language anxiety which include personal and interpersonal, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures and language tests. From this list we can see that Young, in fact, identified the causes from three aspects, that is, the aspects of learners, teachers and instructional practice, to which Bailey's findings also complied. However, to date, findings by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) have been the most influential. They identified three causes of language anxiety, that is, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Based on these three components they also designed a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale including thirty-three items. This scale was later widely used by researchers to measure foreign language learners' anxiety and examine the effect of anxiety on learning indifferent contexts.

When we explore the effect of anxiety on learning, an important insight to which we can refer is the distinction between debilitative and facilitative anxiety (Alpert and Haber, 1960). Up to now most studies have shown a negative relationship between anxiety and language achievement, that is to say, anxiety is a debilitator in language learning. Krashen (1985) once held in his affective filter hypothesis that high anxiety will prevent input that learners receive in the classroom from reaching the language acquisition device.Horwitz (1986) also asserted that language anxiety can cause students to postpone language study indefinitely or to change majors. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), based on a study of 97 college students that learn French, concluded that compared with more relaxed learners, those with anxiety find it more difficult to express their own views and tend to underestimate their own abilities. They also found that in the three stages of language acquisition, that is, input, processing and output, anxiety and learning achievement are negatively correlated. Moreover, there have also been some studies conducted to find the negative correlation between anxiety and four aspects of language learning, especiallyspeaking and listening. For example, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) found that speaking is by farthe main agent of anxiety-arousal, and that students with high anxiety perform worse than thosewith low anxiety. However, there have been some studies which found neutral and positiverelationships between anxiety and second language achievement. Also, in Bailey's (1983) studyof competitiveness and anxiety, it was found that facilitative anxiety was one of the keys tosuccess, and closely related to competitiveness. In Zhang Baoyan's (1996) study of Englishlearners in Taiwan, the results showed that there was no relationship between anxiety andlearningachievement. So, from these studies it can be seen that the relationship between anxietyandachievement is probably not a simple linear one. It may be influenced by some other factors,such as culture and learners' proficiency.

3. Methodology

3.1. Subjects

The subjects of the study were 115 second-year high school students (56 males and 59 females).They were from a science class and anmath class of a high school in tehran.1 Theiraverage age was 16. They all had 5-8 years of experience of English learning.

3.2. Instruments

Two instruments were used for this study. They were a questionnaire assessing students' anxietylevel and an achievement test.

The questionnaire consisted of two parts. One was intended to collect personal information ofthe participants, such as their name, age, gender, etc. The other was a version ofFLCAS that was designed by Horwitz (1986). This questionnaire consists of 33 statements, of which 8 items were for communication anxiety (1, 9, 14, 18, 24, 27, 29, 32), 9 items for fear ofnegative evaluation (3, 7, 13, 15, 20, 23, 25, 31, 33) and 5 items for test anxiety (2, 8, 10, 19, 21).As for the remaining 11 items, they were put in a group which was named anxiety of Englishclasses. The respondents were asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1("strong disagreement") to 5 ("strong agreement").The test used to assess students' English achievement was the final exam administered at the end of the semester. The test paper included five parts: multiple choice, cloze, reading comprehension, error correction and writing, which were intended to assess students' overall ability in language use. All testing items were drawn from a test bank, which ensured there liability of test paper.

3.3. Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered to 60 science students and 60 math students. 119 copies werecollected back and 115 replies were found statistically valid. Only the students from the scienceclass supplied their English scores of the final exam.

3.4. Data Analysis

SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) 13.0 was employed to analyze the data. Firstly,descriptive analysis was performed to compute the means and standard deviations for each itemand each kind of anxiety to see the general situation of high school students' anxiety in Englishclassrooms. Secondly, t-tests (t distribution tests) were employed to see if there were anydifferences in language anxiety between male students and female students. Then correlationalanalysis and t-tests were conducted to find out the effects of anxiety on English achievement.

4. Results & Findings

4.1. The general situation of high school students' anxiety in English classrooms

The results of the descriptive analyses showed that there were 16 items whose means were above3.00. And of all the statements the 9th one had the highest index of 3.6579. The mean of the anxiety indices of all the subjects in English classrooms, as Table 1 shows, was 2.9310 which indicated that the high school students indeed had the feeling of anxiety in their English classrooms. Moreover, through the computation of means and standard deviations of each kind of anxiety, it was found that students' fear of negative evaluation, the mean of which reached3.1828, was especially serious. Among the 16 items whose mean values were higher than 3.00there were 7 statements concerning it, especially item 3, the mean of which was as high as3.6579.

Table 1 The Overall Situation of High School Students' Anxiety in the English Classroom

Anxiety Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Communication Apprehension	2.8865	.48557
Fear of Negative Evaluation	3.1828	.76055
Test Anxiety	2.7737	.71570
Anxiety of English Classes	2.7412	.66185
English Classroom Anxiety	2.9310	.60911

4.2. The comparison of males and females' English classroom anxiety

Table 2 shows that in terms of either the general English classroom anxiety or each specific kindof anxiety, males' means were always higher than females, which indicated that males mayexperience more anxiety than females in English classrooms. But the results of t-tests (Table 3)showed that there were no significant differences between males and females in most anxietyvariables except that of English classes ($p=0.026<0.05$).

Table 2 Males and Females' English Classroom Anxiety

Anxiety Variables	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation
Communication Apprehension	Male	3.1899	.61061
	Female	3.0386	.66748
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Male	3.2137	.83637
	Female	3.1535	.68776
Test Anxiety	Male	2.9055	.69587
	Female	2.6508	.71784
Anxiety of English Classes	Male	2.8838	.65992
	Female	2.6061	.64037
English Classroom Anxiety	Male	3.0119	.62022
	Female	2.8580	.59556

Table 3 The Comparison of Males and Females

Anxiety Variables	t-value	Significance of t-value ($p<0.05$)
Communication Apprehension	1.221	0.225
Fear of Negative Evaluation	0.407	0.685
Test Anxiety	1.920	0.057
Anxiety of English Classes	2.251	0.026*
English Classroom Anxiety	1.246	0.216

4.3. The relationship between anxiety and English achievements

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that anxiety and English achievement were only correlated in terms of test anxiety. And they were negatively correlated (-.277, $p=0.039<0.05$). It was noted that the coefficient of anxiety for English classes was -0.232 which approached the significant level of -0.25. Therefore, the students from the science class were divided into two groups according to their English scores in the final exam. A t-test was then employed to see if there were any significant differences in the anxiety of English classes between these two groups. The results of the analysis supported the hypothesis that was proposed above. It was found that anxiety of English classes indeed affects high school students' English achievement

($p=0.037<0.05$).

Table 4 The Correlation of Anxiety and English Achievement

Anxiety Variables	Correlation Coefficient	p-value (<0.05)
Communication Apprehension	-.102	0.458
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-.099	0.477
Test Anxiety	-.277*	0.039
Anxiety of English Classes	-.232	0.085
English Classroom Anxiety	-.226	0.104

5. Discussion

5.1.The existence of language anxiety in English classrooms

Similar to the findings of Tang's study (2005) among college students, this study indicated high school students indeed had the feeling of anxiety in their English classrooms. And they experienced more fear of negative evaluation. The reasons for such results can be explored from two aspects. One aspect is closely related with high school students themselves. The othe rmainly deals with some external factors. In the aspect of students themselves, the existence of anxiety should firstly be attributed to their English proficiency, which was not high enough to allow them to communicate with others freely, express themselves adequately in class and answer teachers' questions properly. So, in English classrooms where much communication is needed, high school students are more anxious than in other classes.

Secondly, it is the cultural tradition that Iranian people care much about their faces, so they don't like to receive low evaluations or criticism about themselves. This is the reason why they experienced more fear of negative evaluation than any other kind of anxiety. Moreover, during high middle school, the stress of the national examination for college entrance and the serious competition among students also causes some students to pay more attention to others' strong points and their ownweak points, which results in the arousal of anxiety.As for the external factors, the reasons should first come from the large context of Englishlearning in Iran.most English learners, especially high school students, seldom have opportunities to communicate with native speakers of English. Thus, high school students tend to experience more anxiety inEnglish classrooms. Moreover, most Iranian teachers in middle schools overwhelminglyemphasize reading and writing, while paying less attention to listening and speaking. Theexistence of anxiety in English classrooms can also be ascribed to classroom atmosphere (Wang,2003). In most Iranian EFL classrooms, teachers play the role of controller or dominator.Students usually feel nervous or oppressed. Consequently, they lack a free, relaxed environmentfor English learning. Finally, another factor that cannot be overlooked is the high expectations ofIranian parents for their children. Such high expectations usually do not encourage students, butoften result in more anxiety.

5.2. Males have more anxiety of English classes than females.

In general, females are thought to be more adept in language learning than males. Femalestudents usually score higher than male students in English exams. Therefore, it is not hard toimagine that females are more confident in their abilities to learn a new language well. Once theygain faith in their capabilities, they will be more ready to "approach threatening situations"(Dörnyei, 2001) in English classrooms. On the contrary, males, who have higher frequency oflanguage learning failure, are inclined to attribute their bad performance in English classestotheir low ability. Consequently, they are more anxious about English classes.However, as English is a compulsory testing subject of the college entrance exam in Iran,students all exert themselves to study it. Though males show less aptitude for English thanfemales, great effort helps to make up a lot for it. Moreover, now in English classes teacherstryto provide equal opportunities to students. More experience of English use will reduce theiranxiety about it. Therefore, generally the gap between males and females is not very large now.In many English tests the highest scores were attained by some male students. That is the reasonwhy no significant differences were found between them, though males' means were a littlehigher than females.

5.3. Anxiety plays a debilitative role in language learning.

According to the results of the study, test anxiety and anxiety of English classesweresignificantly correlated with high school students' English achievement. In terms of the otherfactors, although the relationship was insignificant, the coefficients were all negative. Thus, itcan be said that anxiety plays somewhat a debilitative role in language learning.Actually, the finding of the negative role of anxiety has been noted in many previous studies,e.g., Horwitz (1986), MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), Tang (2005). Usually, high anxiety canmake learners get discouraged, lose faith in their abilities, escape from participating in classroomactivities, and even give up the effort to learn a language well. Therefore, the learners with highanxiety often get low achievement. And low achievement makes them more anxious aboutlearning.

Another notable finding of the study was the significant correlation between Englishachievement and test anxiety, anxiety of English classes. In Iran, high school students usuallyspend most of their time on English learning in classrooms. Each student usually has 6-8 Englishclasses each week. Moreover, compared with college students, they usually take more Englishtests. A high school student usually takes a test every three units. And in each term they at leasthave two large-scale exams – a mid-term exam and a final. Therefore, some students with poorEnglish achievement were anxious about, or even discouraged by English classes and tests.

6. Conclusion

This paper presented some findings of high school students' anxiety in IranianEFLclassroom. It was found that most students experienced anxiety in classrooms, especially the fearof negative evaluation. Male students were found to have higher anxiety of English classesthanfemales. Moreover, it was also found that anxiety is a debilitator in language learning, especiallyanxiety of tests and English classes.

Given the situation that anxiety is prevalent in iranian high school English classrooms,teachers must pay more attention to it. Besides preparing properly for teaching, teachersshouldtake the affective factors of students into consideration (Zhang & Chang, 2004). First of all, theycan try to create a relaxed atmosphere for students, which can make them feel safe to speak orexpress their views. Secondly, teachers should avoid negative evaluation of studentsinclassrooms and comment on students' behaviors with more encouragement. Thirdly, teachers,together with our schools, should take some measures to relax students' attention on exams, suchas eliminating the ranking of students by their test scores. Finally, teachers can also explicitly tellstudents the inevitability of the existence of anxiety in English learning and let them know thatanxiety can be reduced through the self-regulation of their thinking and study. Although teacherscan make use of the above-mentioned means to help students to overcome their anxiety inEnglish classrooms, teachers should not try to help students get away from anxiety completely.Much research indicates that adequate anxiety plays a positive role and can motivate students tomaintain their efforts on learning. Therefore, the teachers' real job is to help students keepadequate anxiety, neither too high nor too low.As the study was only conducted in one school, more research is needed to support thefindings and to find more about high school students' anxiety in English classrooms.

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Appendix

English version of FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale)

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.
12. In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.
14. It would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers.
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.
23. I always feel that the other students speak the language better than I do.
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.
25. Language class move so quickly I worry about getting left behind.
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

Title

ESP Students' use of Reading Strategies and the Effects of Strategy Training on their Reading Proficiency

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate ESP students' use of reading strategies and its effects on their reading proficiency. Since the 1970s, researchers have addressed the need for strategy training in response to lack of students' awareness of the cognitive tools and strategies available to them. For achievement to goals of this study, a Persian questionnaire including 18 multiple-choice questions was designed based on Nunan's (1999: 265) list of reading strategies. 2 out of 18 questions evaluated students' level of reading proficiency and fluency and the rest analyzed their use of strategies. The designed questionnaire was filled by ESP students of agricultural engineering in Isfahan University of Technology. The results of this analysis show that the students' use of most reading strategies is at an average level and consequently their reading proficiency is affected by such insufficient knowledge and use of strategies.

Keywords: Strategy, Strategy training, Reading strategy, Reading comprehension

1. Introduction

Strategies, according to Nunan (1999), are defined as the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language. Nunan (ibid) also believes that every learning task is based on at leastone underlying strategy, of which most learners are unaware.

Knowledge of strategies is important, because if students have greater awareness of what they are doing, they will learn more effectively. The research results also show that the learners who know the process underlying their learning are more highly motivated than others. Oxford (1990) also defines strategies as "tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence." She believes that the learners who develop appropriate learning strategies have greater self-confidence and a more successful learning.

This study which aims at analyzing agricultural engineering students' awareness and use of reading strategies is an attempt to show how important the strategies are in ESP learners' success in language learning. Like every other task, language learning needs special tools and instruments, which are strategies. If one knows how to do a work, a task, or an activity, s/he can do it better, faster, and easier. Strategies thus seem to help learners elaborate language confidently, putting less time and energy.

2. Review of literature

There is considerable research to show that reading comprehension is strongly influenced by instruction that emphasizes use of multiple strategies while students try to comprehend texts. Such instructions involve teaching of several strategies while students are reading and comprehending a text. Grabe (2004) reviews two approaches to combined-strategies instruction that improve reading comprehension: Transactional Reading Instruction (TSI) and Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI). Both approaches provide frameworks for strategic comprehension instruction, but incorporate comprehension instruction activities that go beyond strategy development. Both approaches also engage students in all aspects of strategic reading instruction. Anderson (1999) and Cohen (1998) both discuss the effectiveness of direct teacher modeling of strategies for reading. And Stoller (2004) believes that carefully planned and developed content-based approaches offer a potential framework for effective reading instruction.

Assessing the needs for strategy training, Cohen notes that ‘the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process’ (1998).He thus outlines three major objectives of strategy training: to develop the learners own individual strategy systems, to promote learner autonomy, and learner self-direction and self-evaluation, and to encourage learners to take more responsibility for their own language learning.

3. Aims of the study

This study aims at expressing the significance of reading strategies for ESP students, evaluating ESP students' level of reading proficiency, their use of reading strategies, and its effects on their reading proficiency.

4. Significance of the study

Most textbooks written for ESP students contain a considerable number of reading passages developed around various topics relating to the students' majors and fields of specialty. Most students read these books, not to learn them, but to pass their exams. They do not understand the overall meaning of the texts, but they only put the meaning of words together to make sentences equivalent to the English ones. Sometimes they hate reading, ESP classes and textbooks, and the whole English language, since they do not enjoy learning it. They are afraid of language learning, because they do not know its nature. If ESP students learn how to learn English, they will reconsider their ideas about it. Strategies are keys for opening the texts, entering their world and seeing its beauties. Knowledge of strategies makes language learning easy and ESP courses like other course, understandable, learnable, and even enjoyable. This study is an attempt towards evaluating ESP students' use of reading strategies and its relationship with the students reading proficiency, in order to show the importance of strategies in the students' process of learning.

5. Methodology

5.1. Participants

The participants in this study include thirty agricultural engineering students studying English for specific purposes (ESP) in Isfahan's University of Technology. Their ages range from 18 to 23, and they are all female students passing their first to ninth term of university education. Their participation in this study filling the research questionnaires was voluntarily.

5.2. Instruments

The instruments in this study include a questionnaire designed by the researcher based on Nunan's list of reading strategies. The questionnaire consists of eighteen multiple-choice questions, two of which evaluating the students' level of proficiency and fluency, and the rest examining the students' use of different reading strategies. Some of the questions in this questionnaire have four choices and some five, since the questions are of two different types.

The questions with four choices are those testing the students real knowledge, and the questions with five choices, are those testing students beliefs and attitudes towards something.

5.3. Data collection

The data needed for this study were collected by means of a questionnaire so far elaborated. The questionnaire has eighteen items, each of which investigating the participants' use of just one strategy reading ESP books. The questionnaires were handed out to agricultural engineering students studying English for specific purposes in Isfahan University of Technology. They were asked to answer the questions as carefully and honestly as possible, since they were not supposed to write their names, but their age, gender, major, and the number of terms they have passed. Then the filled questionnaires were collected and analyzed.

5.4. Results

As mentioned beforehand, the questionnaire used for data collection in this study includes eighteen questions in Persian investigating the ESP students' use of reading strategies. For the purpose of analyzing the data collected, each question was investigated separately and the results were quantified to see how often each strategy is used by students, and then the effects of strategy use on ESP students' reading proficiency were analyzed.

Now the analysis of the questions:

1. How do you evaluate your proficiency in reading English texts?

a) very good b) good c) average d) weak e) very weak

Choices	very good	good	Average	weak	very weak
Number	0	13	12	4	1
Percent	0	43.33	40	13.33	3.33

This question evaluates the students' level of proficiency in reading English texts. As shown in table, none of the students is very good in reading English texts and just one of them is very weak in this skill. Most of the students think that their reading proficiency is at a good or average level and this is acceptable for agricultural engineering students.

2. How fast do you read English texts?

a) very fast b) fast c) average d) slow e) very slow

Choice	very fast	fast	Average	slow	Very slow
Number	0	2	26	2	0
Percent	0	6.66	86.66	6.66	0

Reading fluency of almost all of the students is at an average level, regarding their own choices, and just four of them (13.32 %) are more, or less fluent than the average level; none of them is able to read too fast, and none reads very slow.

3. How many English texts (short or long) have you read during last week?

a) more than ten texts b) five to ten texts c) less than five texts d) no text

Choices	more than ten texts	five to ten texts	less than ten texts	no text
Number	0	2	11	17
Percent	0	6.66	36.66	56.66

Strategy evaluated: Frequency of reading English texts

The students' answers to this question show that the students' frequency of reading English texts is very low. More than half of the students had read no English text during the previous week, and the rest had studied less than five texts. This is likely because they do not have enough time to read English texts, they do not need to do so, or they do not have interest in reading these texts. This is while reading frequency is one of the most effective strategies for acquiring reading fluency; i.e. the more, the better. But only 2 of the students (6.66 %) had read an acceptable number of English texts during the week before participation in this study.

4. What was your purpose for reading the English texts?

a) acquiring information and knowledge b) doing university assignments

c) doing daily affairs or entertainment d) other purposes

Choice	acquiring information and knowledge	doing university assignments	Doing daily affairs and entertainment	other purposes
Number	3	16	6	5
Percent	10	53.33	20	16.66

Strategy evaluated: having a purpose for reading

Nunan (1999) believes that "it is important for students to have clear purposes and to keep in mind what they want to gain from the text."Obviously, it is the nature of human beings in general that they do not do anything without a purpose or justification, and this purpose gives them the required motivation to attempt to achieve their goals.

The purpose of more than half of the participants in this study (53.33 %) for reading English texts had been doing university assignments, which shows that these are mostly teachers and university professors who can prompt students to have some study in English, if not caring for marks.

5. Do you preview English texts before reading them carefully?

a) always b) often c) sometimes d) seldom e) never

Choice	always	often	Sometimes	seldom	never
Number	2	10	7	10	1
Percent	6.66	33.33	23.33	33.33	3.33

Evaluated strategy: previewing

The students' answers to this question show that almost half of the students most of the times preview English texts, and about half of them do not care for this strategy too much. The strategy evaluated by this question, which is 'previewing', means "conducting a quick survey of the text to identify the topic, the main idea, and the organization of the text", according to Nunan (ibid). It is also believed that this strategy plays an important role in students' success in understanding and comprehending texts.

6. Can you find general idea of English texts when you skim them?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	0	6	17	6	1
Percent	0	20	56.66	20	3.33

Evaluated strategy: skimming

"Skimming" which is looking quickly through the text to get a general idea of what it is about, is another reading strategy important in reading comprehension (Nunan, 1999: 265). More than half of the students recorded that they use this strategy at an average level. While 7 students (23.33 %) said that they use the strategy a little or very little, none of them use it so much and 6 of them (20 %) use it much.

7. Can you locate specific information by scanning English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	0	6	15	6	3
Percent	0	20	50	20	10

Evaluated strategy: scanning

Looking quickly through a text in order to locate specific information is another strategy called "scanning" (Nunan, 1999: 265). In this case like the previous one, 50 percent of the students use the strategy at an average level, 20 percent use it much, 20 percent a little and 10 percent very little.

8. Can you predict what is to come when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	0	3	17	9	1
Percent	0	10	56.66	30	3.33

Evaluated strategy: predicting

The ability of the students to use the strategy "predicting" that is anticipating what is to come, is again at an average level. More than 50 percent of the students recorded that they use the strategy at an average level , more than 30 percent use it a little or very little, 10 percent use it much, and no one use it very much.

9. How do you read English texts?

a) word-by-word b) clusters of words as units c) clause-by-clause d) fluently

Choices	word-by-word	clusters of words as units	clause-by-clause	fluently
Number	8	12	10	0
Percent	26.66	40	33.33	0

Evaluated strategy: avoiding bad habits and clustering

Avoiding bad habits such as reading word-by-word is another reading strategy mentioned by Nunan (ibid). None of the students are fluent in reading English texts, but most of them (73.33 %) can read easily without having to focus on words one by one; they are able to read words in clusters which is considered a kind of fluency in reading.

10. Do you ask yourself questions when reading English books?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	1	4	15	9	1
Percent	3.33	13.33	50	30	3.33

11. If you ask yourself questions when reading English texts, can you find their answers in continue?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	0	5	20	5	0
Percent	0	16.66	66.66	16.66	0

Evaluated strategy in these two questions: reading actively

These two questions are both related to the strategy "reading actively", which is asking questions and then reading for answers (Nunan, 1999: 265). Most students (50 % in question ten and 66.66 % in question eleven) selected the third choice, which reveals that their use of this strategy is at an average level.

12. Can you infer the ideas not explicitly stated in English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	0	6	13	8	3
Percent	0	20	43.33	26.66	10

Evaluated strategy: inferring

Inferring or identifying ideas that are not explicitly stated, which is the underlying strategy of this question is not used too much by the students. Only 6 (20%) students use the strategy much, but 11 (36.66 %) of them use it a little or very little, and 13 students (43.33 %) use it at an average level.

13. Can you identify sentence structure (subject, verb, object) when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	1	11	8	5	5
Percent	3.33	36.66	26.66	16.66	16.66

Evaluated strategy: identifying sentence structure

'Identifying sentence structure' that is identifying the subject and main verb, in complex sentences is a reading strategy used very much and much by 12 out of 30 students, i.e. about 40 percent of them, a little or very little by 10 students, i.e. 33.32 percent, and at an average level by 8 students, i.e. 26.66 percent.

14. Can you infer the meaning of unknown vocabulary and phrases using context?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	3	4	12	9	2
Percent	10	13.33	40	30	6.66

Evaluated strategy: inferring unknown vocabulary

'Inferring unknown vocabulary', which means using context as well as parts of words to work out the meaning of unknown words, is another reading strategy that is used by 12 students (40 %) at an average level, by 7 students (23.33 %) very much and much, and by 11 students (36.66 %) a little or very little.

15. Do you try to look up every word when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	7	10	9	2	2
Percent	23.33	33.33	30	6.66	6.66

Evaluated strategy: inferring unknown vocabulary

Trying to look up every word in dictionary is a very boring, time-consuming, and unessential work done by most of the students when reading English texts. But a strategy which can help them guess meaning of words is trying to understand the meaning of new words from the overall meaning of sentences and paragraphs and also using background knowledge. But about 17 out of 30 students (56.66 %) try to look up every word very much and much, not using this strategy, 9 students (30 %) check the meaning of words at an average level, and 4 (13.32 %) look up words a little and very little.

16. Do you summarize English texts after reading them?

a) always b) often c) sometimes d) seldom e) never

Choice	always	often	Sometimes	seldom	never
Number	1	2	7	13	7
Percent	3.33	6.66	23.33	43.33	23.33

Evaluated strategy: reviewing

Reviewing or looking back over a text and summarizing it, is another reading strategy cited by Nunan (ibid). Most of the students (66.66 %) use this strategy seldom or never, 7 (23.33 %) students use it sometimes and 3 (9.99 %), always and often.

17. Can you present English texts to others after reading them?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	1	8	16	2	3
Percent	3.33	26.66	53.33	6.66	10

Evaluated strategy: reading to present

Understanding the text fully and then presenting it to others is a reading strategy called 'reading to present' (Nunan, 1999). 16 out of 30 students (53.33 %) use this strategy at an average level, 9 (30%) use it very much or much, and 5 (16.66 %) use it a little or very little.

18. Do you pay attention to key words when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Choice	very much	much	Average	a little	very little
Number	4	15	7	4	0
Percent	13.33	50	23.33	13.33	0

Evaluated strategy: attention to key words

Attention to key words which carry most of the meaning burden of texts play an important role in comprehending texts. This strategy is used very much and much by about 70 percent of the students, at an average level by 7 students (23.33 %), and a little by 4 of them (13.33).

6. Conclusion

This study which is an attempt to investigate ESP students' use of reading strategies is conducted based on a Persian questionnaire which was designed using Nunan's (1999) list of reading strategies (265-6). These strategies include: Frequency of reading, having a purpose, previewing, skimming, scanning, avoiding bad habits and clustering, predicting, reading actively, inferring, identifying sentence structure, inferring unknown vocabulary, reviewing, reading to present, and attention to key words. Each question which has an underlying strategy was investigated to evaluate the students' use of strategies. The results of this investigation are as follows (*, is the sign of the highest percent).

Strategies	Percents of students' use				
	Very much	Much	Average	A little	Very little
Skimming	0	20	56.66 *	20	3.33
Scanning	0	20	50 *	20	10
Predicting	0	10	56.66 *	30	3.33
Reading actively	1.66	14.99	58.33*	23.33	1.66
Inferring	0	20	43.33 *	26.66	10
Identifying sentence structure	3.33	36.66 *	26.66	16.66	16.66
Inferring unknown vocabulary	16.66	23.33 *	35	18.33	6.66
Reading to present	3.33	26.66	53.33 *	6.66	10
Attention to key words	13.33	50 *	23.33	13.33	0

Strategy	Percents of students' use			
	More than ten texts	Five to ten texts	Less than five texts	No text
Frequency of reading	0	6.66	36.66	56.66 *

Strategy	Percents of students' use			
	Acquiring information and knowledge	Doing university assignments	Doing daily affairs or entertainment	Other purposes
Having a purpose	10	53.33 *	20	16.66

Strategies	Percents of students' use				
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Previewing	6.66	33.33 *	23.33	33.33 *	3.33
Reviewing	3.33	6.66	23.33	43.33 *	23.33

Strategy	Percepts of students' use			
	Word-by-word	Clusters of words as units	Clause-by-clause	Fluently
Avoiding bad habits& clustering	26.66	40 *	33.33	0

As can be seen in the tables, most strategies (scanning, skimming, reading to present, reading actively, predicting, and inferring) are used at an average level by about half of the participants. Some strategies, such as identifying sentence structure, inferring unknown vocabulary, and attention to key words, are used much by less than half of the students; and the strategy 'reviewing' is seldom used by near half of them. 'Previewing' is used always, often, and sometimes by about 64 percent of the students, and unfortunately, the reading frequency of 56.66 percent of students is at zero level, that is regrettable. 40 percent of students use the strategy 'avoiding bad habits and clustering', and try not to read texts word-by-word, but clusters of words as units. All students have a purpose for their reading, but more than 50 percent of them read English texts for the purpose of doing university assignments, i.e. this is the most simulating purpose for the students.

From the sum of students' answers to the first and second questions, it can be inferred that reading proficiency of the majority of the students is at good and average levels, and reading fluency of about 87 percent of them is also at an average level. The results of the evaluation of the students' use of reading strategies also reveal that most students use these strategies at an average level, so it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between the students' use of strategies and their level of proficiency and fluency; i.e. the more the strategy use, the higher the proficiency and fluency level. Without strategies students can not be independent and self-directed learners who can guide their own learning. Oxford (1990) argues that strategies are important for two reasons. First, strategies "are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence". Second, learners who have developed appropriate learning strategies have greater self-confidence and learn more effectively.

Now the question is why students do not use strategies, or use them insufficiently. There may be a plenty of reasons which can be considered in this regard. Students are likely not to be aware of the strategies, or perhaps they do not know how to use strategies or even when and where to use them. Introducing strategies in the classroom, among with giving some information about how, when, and where they can be used is thus of uppermost importance, especially for ESP students whose major is not English, and need special training in this respect.

7. Implications for teaching

Reading which, according to Flower et al. (1990), is a "goal-directed, context-specific behavior", is considered to be an essential skill for academic students. There are some purposes for which one reads in his/her daily life, and also some problems in achieving these purposes (e. g. Problems in understanding a text and making sense of it). But there are some strategies for solving these problems and for accomplishing the goals. When one knows the strategies needed for successful reading and solving its inevitable problems, s/he is a strategic reader who can communicate through reading and has communicative competence.

In order for learners to become good or strategic readers who can obtain meaning from texts, they need to be informed of different kinds of strategies, and the way they can handle these strategies to accomplish their goals. Thus they need some training and instruction in this regard, so that their reading problems will be solved and they will have a more comfortable and enjoyable moment when reading English texts, experiencing a convenient feeling rather than being sleepy and bored. But Grabe(2006: 316) believes that for strategy instruction to be effective, it should:

- Focus on establishing a purpose for reading.
- Extend over time.
- Be multi-componential, and focus on the teaching of multiple integrated strategies.

- Be different for different learners.
- Involve either explicit explanation or modeling of strategies by teachers for students.
- Focus on helping students understand when and where to use strategies.
- Teach students to monitor how they are doing in their strategy use.
- Include specific information about the benefits of the strategies being taught.
- Teach strategy use in context, i.e. integrated into the curriculum and into the course content, rather than as a separate subject.
- Teach students non-strategic knowledge along with the strategic knowledge on which their strategy use often depends.

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Appendix

In the name of God

Term Major Age Gender

Dear student this questionnaire is to study the strategies related to reading English texts. Since your exact answers will help us achieve the research aims, please fill the questionnaire carefully after the exact reading of the questions. I thank and appreciate your friendly cooperation.

1. How do you evaluate your proficiency in reading English texts?

a)very good b) good c) average d) weak e) very weak

2. How fast do you read English texts?

a) veryfast b) fast c) average d) slow e) very slow

3. How many English texts (short or long) have you read during last week?

a) more than ten texts b) five to ten texts c) less than five texts d) no text

4. What was your purpose for reading the English texts?

a) acquiring information and knowledge b) doing university assignments

c) doing daily affairs or entertainment d) other purposes

5. Do you preview English texts before reading them carefully?

a) always b) often c) sometimes d) seldom e) never

6. Can you find general idea of English texts when you skim them?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

7. Can you locate specific information by scanning English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

8. Can you predict what is to come when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

9. How do you read English texts?

a) word-by-word b) clusters of words as units c) clause-by-clause d) fluently

10. Do you ask yourself questions when reading English books?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

11. If you ask yourself questions when reading English texts, can you find their answers in continue?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

12. Can you infer the ideas not explicitly stated in English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

13. Can you identify sentence structure (subject, verb, object) when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

14. Can you infer the meaning of unknown vocabulary and phrases using context?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

15. Do you try to look up every word when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

16. Do you summarize English texts after reading them?

a) always b) often c) sometimes d) seldom e) never

17. Can you present English texts to others after reading them?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

18. Do you pay attention to key words when reading English texts?

a) very much b) much c) average d) a little e) very little

Title
Political Cognition and the Novel

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Abstract

"To be or Not to be?", that's undoubtedly one of the greatest questions raised not only in the world of Shakespeare's Hamlet but also in the real world in different ways. Here is the same question but in a different setting "To be powerful or Not?" From past to the present, people are graded in the hierarchy of power in each society from the most powerful to the least one. Speaking about power, interestingly, members of the first group of the most powerful rushes into mind are politicians- powerful ones whose means of exercising this power is "language". As Thomas and Wareing (2000) state, power is often demonstrated through language; it is also actually achieved or 'done' through language. The related field of study by discourse is called 'Discourse Analysis' (hereafter referred to as DA). Davis Crystal (1987, p. 116) points that,"Discourse Analysis focuses on the structure of naturally occurring spoken language, as found in such 'discourses' as conversations, interviews, communications and speeches." The

relation between politics and discourse forms a very special kind of DA in which political aspect of language use is considered which is called Critical Discourse Analysis (hereafter referred to as CDA). In this regard, the base of discussion and analysis in this article is political discourse and political cognition studies by van Dijk in his *Power and Discourse (2008)*. Here, this article explores the relation between the three concepts of 'power, politics, and discourse' in Llosa's *The Feast of The Goat*, a dictator–historical novel set in Dominican Republic. It investigates different forms of power exercised by Dominican dictator through controlling discourse which in turn leads to cognition management.

Key Terms: Power, CriticalDiscourse Analysis, Political Discourse, Political Cognition, Mario Vargas Llosa, *The Feast of The Goat*.

1. Introduction

The Noble prize winner for his "cartography of structures of power and his trenchant images of the individual's resistance, revolt, and defeat in 2010", Jorge Mario Pedro Vargas Llosa, is one of Latin America's most significant novelists and essayists. Some critics consider him to have had a larger international impact and worldwide audience than any other writer of the time. According to Cevallos' (1991), from the political aspect, Llosa's has been active throughout his career, among them running for the Peruvian presidency in 1990 with the center-right (FREDEMO) coalition, advocating reforms, and supporting moderate conservative candidates (pp. 270–271). Parker (2007) points that, Vargas Llosa's style is a mixture of historical material as well as his own personal experiences and his writings are a demonstration of inadequacies of society through oppression and corruption of those in political power towards those who challenge this power (Para. 7).

The Feast of The Goat, published in Spanish in 2000 and in English in 2001, is one of the most brilliant Mario Vargas Llosa's works. This novel is the history of Rafael Leonidas Trujillo's dictatorship in Dominican Republicwhose regime andhis economic and social policies were basically progressive. The major themes in this novel are politics, lust of power, sex, violence, and oppression. The most remarkable feature of this novel which makes it different from other historical novels is the professional application of flashbacks and flash forwards to interweave the three story lines together in which the reader is guided by the third person narrator, but each part has its own story teller.

This is Urania Cabral whose story is the opening of the novel, a forty–nine year–old woman who has come back to her country after thirty–five years. She is the daughter of a very loyal senator and one of the victims of Trujillo's sexual desire and his father's lust of powerat the age of fourteen. She starts telling her story for his crippled father and at the end of the story, she divulges the mystery of her long absence to her aunt and cousins. Here, Urania plays the role of a representative of all country and its people and their lost identity under Trujillo's dictatorship. In the second frame of the story, Llosa depicts the last day of Trujillo's life skillfully and uses this part as a mirror to reflect all the life of the dictator and his regime especially his personal characteristics, weak points, family, dictatorship, cruelty, and crime. Llosa explains in this part how Trujillo got the power, how he kept it by force, and how he misused his power to humiliate his allies by sexual damages. Trujillo assassinators, mostly loyal officers in Trijillo's army, are the main characters of the third story line who are reviewing their memories about how Trujillo has changed them into a Trujillista and what Trujillo has done to them to convince them to kill him while they are waiting for the dictator whom they called the 'Goat' on the way of San Cristobal on Tuesday, 30 May 1961. They succeeded and killed the Goat, but almost all of them were arrested, tortured, and killed by Trujillo's sons and brothers in a brutal revenge. It took time the end of Trujillo dictatorship to be announced officially and President Balaguer took the power for a short time till the official election was held.

2. Review of the Related Literature

"Power, as a term surfaced in people's dialogues and speech or as a common word used here and there" (Zolfagharkhani, 2011, p. 1). Power, the most dominant concept in history and the locus of social science up to now, cannot be considered without relating it to the society. The term 'discourse' has become common currency in a variety of disciplines: critical theory, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, social psychology, and many other fields, so much so that it is frequently left undefined. It is used widely in analyzing literary and non-literary texts. Geoffrey Leech and Michael Short (1990) argue that:

> Discourse is linguistic communication seen as a transaction between speaker and hearer, as an interpersonal activity whose form is determined by its social purpose. Text is linguistic communication (either spoken or written) seen simply as a message coded in its auditory or visual medium. (as cited in Hawthorn, 1992, p. 189)

In terms of thinking about discourse as having effects, it is important to consider the factors of truth, power, and knowledge. Since it is because of these elements that discourse has effects, and it is Foucault who deals with these concepts in detail. Truth, for Foucault, is not something essential to an utterance; he sees truth as being something far worldlier and more negative. He (1979e) states:

> Truth is of the world; it is produced there by virtue of multiple constraints. …Each society has its regime of truth, its 'general politics' of truth: that is the types of discourse it harbors and causes to function as true: the mechanisms and instances which enable one to distinguish true from false statements, the way in which each is sanctioned; the techniques and procedures which are valorized for obtaining truth: the status of those who are charged with saying what counts as true. (p. 46)

Power is therefore a key element in the discussion of discourse. As Maleki and Navidi (2011, p. 97) point, "The dominating power imposes certain "Discourse" upon people, which they have to follow, since they need to attain an identity. In fact, everything which goes after this power, finds an identity. Even the truth, is truth only when it is in line with the power of a specific era".

There are three different groups of linguists who have defined discourse in their own terms. The third definition of discourse is that developed by a group of linguists who use the term discourse in a slightly different way to the two previous definitions and to cultural theory as a whole. These linguists are broadly categorized as Critical Discourse analysts; that is those linguists who analyze texts from a political perspective. Because they argue that language is a central vehicle in the process whereby people are constituted as individuals and as social subjects, and because language and ideology are closely imbricate, the close systematic analysis of the language of texts can expose some of the working of texts and, by extension, the way that people are oppressed within current social structures. One of the greatest theorists in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is Teun A. van Dijk. He (2001) defines CDA in this way:

> Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality. (p. 352)

Fairclough and Wodak (1997, pp. 271–80) summarize the main tenets of CDA as follows:

1. CDA addresses social problems;

2. Power relations are discursive;

3. Discourse constitutes society and culture;

4. Discourse does ideological work;

5. Discourse is historical;

6. The link between text and society is mediated;

7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory;

8. Discourse is a form of social action.

According to van Dijk (2008), CDA is specifically interested in the (critical) study of social issues, problems, social inequality, domination, and related phenomena, in general, and the role of discourse, language use or communication in such phenomena, in particular. As van Dijk (2008) states, Discourse Studies more specifically may be defined as 'critical' if they satisfy one or several of the following criteria, where 'domination' means 'abuse of social power by a social group':

- relations of domination are studied primarily from the perspective of, and in the interest of the dominated group;
- the experiences of (members of) dominated groups are also used as evidence to evaluate dominant discourse;
- it can be shown that the discursive actions of the dominant group are illegitimate;
- viable alternatives to the dominant discourses can be formulated that are consistent with the interests of the dominated groups. (p. 6)

This means that it is necessary to borrow or develop theoretical instruments of a more general nature, such as those of power, social structure, social groups, ideology, context, and other general notions involved in the study of discursive domination.

The analysis of power has created a great amount of different studies and research in several related disciplines, but they are not going to be reviewed or redone here. Since most of these works are done within the boundaries of sociology and political science, we have chosen a number of major properties of social power and have reconstructed them within the new theoretical framework. Using van Dijk (2008) elaboration, the properties of power that are relevant to our discussion may be summarized as follows:

1. Social power is a property of the relationship between groups, classes or other social formations, or between persons as social members.

2. At an elementary but fundamental level of analysis, social power relationships are characteristically manifested in interaction.Thus, we say that group A (or its members) has power over group B (or its members).

3. Except in the case of bodily force, power of A over B's actual or possible actions presupposes that A must have control over the cognitive conditions of actions of B, such as desires, wishes, plans, and beliefs.

4. A's power needs a basis, that is, resources that socially enable the exercise of power, or the application of sanctions in case of noncompliance.

5. Crucial in the exercise or the maintenance of power is the fact that for A to exert mental control over B, B must know about A's wishes, wants, preferences, or intentions.

6. Total social control in contemporary western societies is further limited by the field and the scope of power of power agents. That is, power agents may be powerful in only one social domain–politics, the economy, or education–or in specific social situations, as in the classroom or in court.

7.The exercise and maintenance of social power presupposes an ideological framework.

8. It should be repeated that power must be analyzed in relation to various forms of counter-power or resistance by dominated groups. (pp. 29–30)

Because the notion of ideology is crucial for our argument about the role of discourse in the enactment or legitimating of power, it deserves a few remarks. According to van Dijk (2008), despite the variety of approaches to the concept of ideology, it is generally assumed that the term refers to group or class 'consciousness', whether or not explicitly elaborated in an ideological system, which underlies the socioeconomic, political and cultural practices of group members.van Dijk (2008, p. 34) points out, "Classical Marxist analyses suggest, more specifically, that the dominant ideology in a given period is usually the ideology of those who control the means of ideological reproduction, namely, the ruling class." He explains that this may imply that certain dominated groups or classes may develop biased conceptions of their socioeconomic position ('false consciousness'), which in turn may lead them to act against their own basic interests. Conversely, the dominant groups or classes tend to conceal their ideology (and hence their interests), and will aim to get their ideology generally accepted as a 'general' or 'natural' system of values, norms, and goals. It should be noted here that ideology is not considered as the ruling institutions or practices, but it is assumed as a form of social cognition shared by the members of a group, class, or other social formation.

Perhaps more than with other areas of discourse, however, one needs at the outset to consider the reflexive and potentially ambiguous nature of the term ‘political discourse’. “The term” as Wilson states (1990, p. 398), “is suggestive of at least two possibilities: first, a discourse which is itself political; and second, an analysis of political discourse as simply an example discourse type, without explicit reference to political content or political context.”

Political discourse and political cognition can be considered as two major concepts in CDA. They are dealt with by different theorists separately, but there are not a good amount of studies on them as a unit. One reason may be that neither psychologists nor discourse analysts are interested in discourse and mind processing in order. According to van Dijk (2008):

> The study of political cognition largely deals with the mental representations people share as political actors. Our knowledge and opinions about politicians, parties or presidents are largely acquired, changed or confirmed by various forms of text and talk during our socialization (Merelman, 1986), formal education, media usage and conversation. Thus, political information processing often is a form of discourse processing, also because much political action and participation is accomplished by discourse and communication. (p. 155)

Hence, discourse and politics can be related in essentially two ways: (a) at a sociopolitical level of description, political processes and structures are constituted by situated events, interactions, and discourses of political actors in political contexts; and (b) at a sociocognitive level of description, shared political representations are related to individual representations of these discourses, interactions, and contexts. In other words, political cognition serves as the essential theoretical border between the personal and the collective dimensions of politics and political discourse. According to van Dijk (2008), the study of political cognition focuses on various aspects of ‘political information processing’. It essentially deals with the acquisition, uses, and structures of mental representations about political situations, events, actors, and groups. Typical topics of political cognition research are: “the organization of political beliefs; the perception of political candidates; political judgment and decision making” (p. 158).

Language use in general, and the production and understanding of political text and talk in particular, may cognitively be analyzed in terms of the theoretical framework summarized above**.** Relevant for the discussion are (a) the relations between shared beliefs (political representations) on the one hand and personal beliefs (models), on the other hand; and (b) the relations of these social and personal representations with discourse structures. What has here been summarized for the process of discourse production also applies to discourse understanding. Thus, a politician's audience, as well as the readers of the text of his speech, understand what he says first through a complex process of decoding and understanding words and sentences, and ultimately by constructing their own models of what he is talking about. Also, if they agree with him, they would accept his models as essentially true or 'correct'. If not, they may construct alternative models of the situation, depending again on their own personal knowledge of the current situation as well as on socially shared, group knowledge and evaluations. If recipients read or listen to many similar discourses of politicians or the mass media, and have no competing, alternative information, such models may in turn be generalized to socially shared, abstract representations about Muslims, minorities, English people and immigration, for instance in ethnic prejudices and nationalist or racist ideologies.

Generally speaking, language use and discourse reproduction is affected by different social factors such as race, class, gender, and etc. but what is mattered here is the power of access to discourse (re)production. This is social inequality of speakers brings in differences in controls the turn taking, style, and topic. Thus, it is not surprising to hear that powerful party can control discourse reproduction and cognition through controlling mass media and textbooks, two major informative sources in every society.

All in all, in this article we considered the aspects of political discourse and political cognition including knowledge, opinions, attitudes, and ideology in order to study Llosa's *The Feast of the Goat* (hereafter referred to as *FOG*). To do so, we consider related CDA approaches, thus, the discussions are a combination of CDA and cognition studies. Furthermore, *FOG*is a merely political novel and considering all parts and sentences of this novel is something beyond the capacity of this article. Hence, first we focus selectively on the most important and crucial parts of the novel based on CDA and language, and then connect our discussion to political cognition.

3. Discussion and Analysis

Different ways of power enactment through discourse presented by van Dijk (2008) are the bases of the following discussions. According to him,

1. Direct control of action is achieved through discourses that have directive pragmatic function (elocutionary force), such as commands, threats, laws, regulations, instructions and more indirectly by recommendations and advice. (p. 37)

Making law is not discussed in *FOG* specifically, but Llosa implies it very smartly in this excerpt.

> An attorney who served as a constitutionalist, while still very young he [Henry Chirinos] had been, along with Agustín Cabral, the principal author of the Constitution ordered by Trujillo in the early days of the Era, and of all the amendments made since then. He had also composed the most important institutional and ordinary laws, and written almost all the legal decisions adopted by the Congress to legitimize the needs of the regime. There was no one like him for giving, in parliamentary speeches filled with Latin phrases and quotations that were often in French, the appearance of juridical necessity to the most arbitrary decisions of the Executive, or for refuting, with devastating logic, every proposal that Trujillo disapproved of. His mind, organized like a legal code, immediately found a technical argument to provide a veneer of legality to any decision made by Trujillo, whether it was a ruling by the Treasury or the Supreme Court, or a law passed by Congress. A good part of the legal web of the Era had been spun by the perverse skill of this great pettifogger. (chap. 8, p. 133)

It reveals first that the law is made according to the powerful party's interests by the agents whom they choose. Second, decisions which are against or opposite to Trujillo's decisions are rejected by law. Third, by making law, the politicians hide Trujillo's decisions and legitimize his power and actions.

2. Persuasive discourse types, such as advertisements and propaganda, also aim at influencing future actions of recipients. (p. 37)

These two are among the most permeated modes of power exercise which lead to controlling public discourse, and consequently the management of their minds. Major institutions of power in every society are: the government, the parliament, the military, the church, and the institutions of education, each of which has its own discourse genre and style.

3.1. Urania's Discourses

The only child and parent in *FOG* are Urania and her father, Senator Agusín Cabral. Urania's life is divided into two main parts: the first fourteen years and the second thirty–five years. In her memories, she points to her conversations with her father as a fourteen–year girl in which whatever the father says is true and she accepts it without any question. The most important oneis:

> "My dear, there are things you can't know, can't under- stand yet. I'm here to know them for you, to protect you. I love you more than anything in the world. Don't ask

me why, but you have to forget about this. You weren't at Froilán's house. You didn't see his wife. And certainly, certainly not the person you dreamed you saw. For your own good, sweetheart. And mine. Don't repeat it, don't tell anybody about it. You promise? Never? Not anybody? You swear?"

"I swore," says Urania. "But not even that was enough to make me suspect anything. (chap. 4, p. 59)

This excerpt is the words of Cabral in reaction to the news of Trujillo visit of Don Froilán's wife given by Urania. Here, the meaning of the notion of cognition and political representation is very clear. Urania is not old enough to understand her surrounding's events and she does not have any knowledge about political actions, so she is not doubtful about anything. Unlike her, Cabral knows exactly why Trujillo visits his minister's wife while the minister is not at home and knows that one day it is his turn to accept such a scandal. This is his political cognition which makes him feel threatened. Wrong political representation of Urania is something dangerous for her and her father is fully aware of that. Her father knows Ramfis completely and his mental representation is entirely different from her young daughter.

The last serious and important conversation between Urania and her father is in 1961, when she is invited to San Cristóbal, on the Fundación Ranch. Here, Cabral makes her daughter decide about something which she does not know anything about and since Urania is not aware of political plays, decides to go there to help her father innocently. According to Llosa (2008, p. 321), "Why would she have misgivings about something her father approved? Instead, she felt hopeful that, as the senator said, the invitation might be the first sign of making amends, a gesture to let her father know that his calvary had ended". She does not have a true political cognition so she relies on her father's who is more powerful than her. This is true in a higher level for people in a society. If they do not have a true political representation in their mind, they accept the powerful decisions very easily.

She came back home after thirty-five years. She is not an ignorant young girl anymore. She has studied a lot and has constructed her own mental and context model. Now she has enough knowledge about politics and she has her own political cognition. Llosa shows that how her mental model about her father has changed too. In her conversation with her father or while remembering her memories in her loneliness, she uses offensive words and sometimes insults her father directly because now she is more powerful than him and he is dependent on her for his life. Her developed political cognition also helps her to change her mental political representation about Trujillo and whatever is related to him.

"My apartment in Manhattan is full of books," Urania continues. "Like this house when I was a gift. Law, economy, history. But in my bedroom, only Dominican books. Testimonies, essays, memoirs, lots of histories. Can you guess the period? The Trujillo Era, what else? The most important thing that happened to us in five hundred years. You used to say that with so much conviction. It's true, Papa. During those thirty-one years, all the evil we had carried with us since the Conquest became crystallized. You're in some of those books, an important figure. Minister of Foreign Affairs, senator, president of the Dominican Party. Is there anything you weren't, Papa? I've become an expert on Trujillo. (chap. 4, p. 55)

In this part, Urania points that her knowledge about Trujillo's era comes from different history books and sources. As it was mentioned, one of the ways to construct a political cognition is through textbooks and again it must be emphasized that controlling these sources of information leads to the control of the readers' minds.

In all parts of her story, Urania uses offensive language referring to the regime especially to her father, Senator Chirinos, other government members, and Ramfis. They are people whom she admired before having any idea about political stories and plays. Pointing to all instances is not possible in this brief article so we have just pointed to the selective and important ones.

3.2.*FOG*'s Institutional and Organizational Discourse

This kind of discourse is the most permeated one in *FOG*. The conversations between different members of the government with each other and mainly the conversations between Trujillo with his ministers and officers are examples of such a discourse. As it was noted, this kind of discourse is a power-based one; it means that it is a kind of hierarchical power. Participants in each conversation speak according to the context, situation, and according to their status. They try not to violate the politeness, turn taking, and addressing roles.

Most of Trujillo's conversations are with his politicians in his regime. They are his agents all over the country by whom he exercises the power over the powerless groups in the society. Trujillo is the most powerful man in Dominican Republic, so it seems natural for him to consider others as his slaves and speaks with them accordingly. His men also know how to speak with him in order not to be disgraced.

Johnny Abbes who is one of his major consultants in political issues, is ordered to speak briefly, clearly, and to the point, however it hurts Trujillo sometimes. Although he speaks very formally with Abbes, sometimes he turns to informal speech to get more information about his private life.

He liked reading them; the colonel didn't waste time on stupid shit, …"(chap. 5, p. 65)

Though there were times when the colonel's frankness displeased Trujillo, he tolerated it. The head of the SIM had orders to speak to him with absolute sincerity even when it might offend his ears. (chap. 5, p. 67)

Now my twenty-four hours a day are dedicated to keeping our enemies from destroying this regime and killing you.

He spoke without emotion, in the same opaque, neutral tone he normally used to express himself. (chap. 5, p. 81-82)

Senator Henry Chirinos is another person who Trujillo speaks with in different political situations. First of all it should be mentioned again that Chirinos has two nicknames given by Trujillo, "Walking Turd" and "Constitutional Sot". It shows that Trujillo feels more close to this person than to Abbes, so the way he speaks with Chirinos is different from Abbes. Most of the time, he speaks with Chirinos in an informal way, about some private issues either the country or his family.

The last but not the least addressee of Trujillo in *FOG* is the nominal president, Joaquín Balaguer. Unlike other members of the government, Balaguer is the only person to whom Trujillo speaks very formally. According to Llosa, Balaguer is a very clever politician. He never speaks in a way that may hurt him in future.

"I've always used formal address with you, haven't I? The only one of my collaborators I call 'usted'. Haven't you noticed?"

The round little face blushed.

"I have, Excellency," he murmured, shamefaced. "I always ask myself if you avoid 'tu' because you have less confidence in me than in my colleagues." (chap. 14, p. 262)

Interestingly, Llosa reveals that this person controls all the events by his language and way of speaking. He never uses physical force to convince his enemies. He always uses a formal language with everybody no matter he is more powerful or not. Unlike Balaguer, other politicians speak according to their status with their colleagues or each other.

Another important issue in institutional discourse, as it was noted, is the use of titles, and first and last names. Trujillo always addresses his colleagues by either their first names or nicknames given by him, but nobody dares to address him in this way. This is not something to need examples, but here are some which show the importance of titles and using the first or last names by other characters in *FOG*.

“Find Senator Henry Chirinos and tell him I want to see him right away, Isabel,” Senator Cabral says as he enters his office. (chap. 13, p. 239)

“President Cabral, I wanted to tell you,” he stammers, devastated by emotion. “Whatever happens, I’m with you. In everything. I know how much I owe you, Dr. Cabral.”

“Thank you, Goico. You’re new to this world, and you’ll see things that are worse. Don’t worry. We’ll weather the storm. And now, let’s get to work.” (chap. 13, p. 239)

“Senator Chirinos is expecting you at his house, Senator Cabral.” Isabelita is speaking as she comes into the office. (chap. 13, p. 239)

Cabral calls his secretary by her first name and addresses his other co-worker by his last name without any title, but Paris Goico and Isabelita address Cabral as “Senator Cabral” and “Dr. Cabral”. These examples reveal that institutional discourse is a kind of hierarchal discourse and it is based on the power status of the speakers. Llosa reveals the importance of the titles skillfully in the following excerpt from the conversation between Cabral and Quintanilla.

“Didn’t you realize that three or four days ago the papers stopped calling you a ‘distinguished gentleman’ and demoted you to ‘señor’?”(chap. 13, p. 237)

For the first time since reading the letter in “The Public Forum,” Agustín Cabral is afraid. It’s true: yesterday or the day before somebody at the Country Club joked that the society page in La Nación had deprived him of “distinguished gentleman,” which was usually a bad omen… .(chap. 13, p. 237)

These excerpts reveal clearly that the amount of Cabral’s power is determined by the titles, and after being disgraced by Trujillo, as his power decreases he loses his titles in public eyes.

3.3. Media Discourse

Apparently, media is a kind of unilateral means of communication and interaction, because its effects are revealed within a long time and abstractedly. Different kinds of media like television, newspaper, radio, magazines, and etc. are also considered among the most important sources of information and because of this they play a key role in every society.

The main discussion in this part of the article is on the construction of mental models, cognition, and their management by people in power. As it was mentioned earlier, given information through different sources is the major base on which cognition, especially political one, is founded, so controlling these sources lead to the mind control and consequently cognition management.

Generally, like any typical society, Dominican Republic's media is very crucial for its politicians and the whole country.

> Indignant at the offensive against Trujillo by the White Home, Venezuela, and the OAS, he [Simon Gittleman] gave up his business in Arizona and bombarded the American press with letters, reminding everyone that during all of the Trujillo Era the Dominican Republic had been a bulwark of anti-Communism, the best ally of the United States in the Western Hemisphere. Not satisfied with that, he funded--out of his own damn pocket!--support committees, paid for publications, organized conferences. (chap. 2, p. 17)

This excerpt reveals two kinds of media: agreed and disagreed media, according to this paragraph United State's press and media are against Trujillo, and his friend and teacher, Simon Gittleman attacks them through media and press in reaction.

> The former editor of La Nación, a frantically Trujillista newspaper, Marrero had been Minister of Labor in 1956, and again in 1959, when he began to send reports to Tad Szulc, a journalist, so that he could defame the regime in his articles for The New York Times. (chap. 5, p. 74)

Thus, La Nación is one of the Dominican newspaper which is under the government control, but The New York Times is not so. Llosa points to some of the news in The New York Times. It seems that it divulges Trujillo's regime crimes.

> In March 1956, Jesús de Galíndez, who had become an American citizen, disappeared after being seen, for the last time, coming out of a subway station on Broadway, in the heart of Manhattan. … The powerful machinery that Trujillo had in the United States--journalists, congressmen, lobbyists, lawyers, and pro-moters--could not contain the explosion of indignation in the press, beginning with The New York Times, and among many representatives in Congress, at the possibility that a tinhorn Caribbean dictator would dare to abduct and murder an American citizen on American soil. (chap. 6, p. 97)
>
> Antonio learned all this in bits and pieces (censorship did not allow the Dominican press and radio to mention the subject) in broadcasts from Puerto Rico, Venezuela, or the Voice of America, which could be picked up on shortwave, or in copies of the Miami Herald or The New York Times that filtered into the country in the bags and uniforms of pilots and airline attendants. (chap. 6, p. 98)

Thus, inner press is censored and if people want to know about the true news, they have to read foreign newspapers or to hear radios. It is clear that censorship is one way of controlling discourse, especially public discourse.

La Nación and El Caribe are the two major newspapers in *FOG* which are used mainly for political purposes. El Caribe is the newspaper in which people usually read about their own or disgraced powerful people's fate. Its main part is "The Public Forum" which is full of terrible accusations, denunciations, and columnies. According to Llosa (2008), this column:

> kept people in a state of anxiety because their fate depended on whatever was said about them there, and for the intrigues and the operations directed against sometimes a political and decent people, peaceable citizens who had fallen somehow into the infinite nets of espionage that Johnny Abbes Garcia and his vast army of caliés spread into every comer of Dominican society. (p. 43)

Johnny Abbes García is one of the columnists. He uses this column to cover his crime and deceive people. Senator Agustín Cabral is one of the victims of The Public Forum. He knows that when his name comes in this column and there is a letter against him, it means there is no hope to be pardoned by Trujillo. "Because it [The public Forum] was fed from the National Palace and served as a political barometer for the entire country". (chap. 13, p. 230)

It was mentioned earlier that Cabral was first warned by La Nación when he remembered that this newspaper addresses him just as a "gentleman". La Nación like El Caribe is used for fighting with the enemies of the regime, and the church and bishops are among major Trujillo's enemies.

As van Dijk (2008) reminds, there are always contrary ideologies or disagreements in a society. In *FOG*, Trujillo's assassinators and the church are on the opposite of the regime. Thus, they are among the important subjects of the news. It is interesting to know that according to their plan, the first measure taken after killing Trujillo is:

> "We have to force the hand of the Trujillistas before they can react. We'll call on the people, we can use the Palace connection to every radio station in the country. We'll tell them to take to the streets. In the end, the Army will support us." (chap. 19, p. 354)

It means that the best, fast, and most reliable means for informing people is media.

Trujillo's assassination is not announced immediately by the press because it causes the revolution. Till the previous nominal president, Balaguer, takes the power almost completely, all the media call the assassinators as the 'murderers' of Trujillo. After taking the power it is Balaguer himself who as the first person starts to criticize Trujillo's regime slightly in the press and radio.

> The day after the Trujillo brothers left the country, a political amnesty was declared. The jails began to open. Balaguer announced a commission to investigate what had happened to the "executioners of the tyrant." From that day on, radio, television, and the newspapers stopped calling them assassins; executioners, their new designation, would soon become heroes. (chap. 23, p. 450)

Hence, media has a great effect on the construction of cognition and mental models of people. As Trujillo himself notes while he is listening to the news about his sons whom have been chosen as the most applauded players, the news is just "A lie, to beguile Dominicans" (chap. 2, p. 23). It is clear that media is under the control of the dominant group too, and they decide what, when, and how the news to be broadcast.

3.4. Textbooks

If not more powerful, textbooks are as powerful as media in controlling the ideas, opinions, and in one word the cognition. According to different definitions of discourse, written texts are one kind of discourse. Unlike media, textbooks are obligatory during the education years and everybody has to study it at least once, accordingly it can be said that the textbooks are more powerful than the media in this respect. As media is under the control of the powerful person or group in a society, textbooks and educational materials are also designed by or under direct control of the people in power. Although this issue is not considered so specifically in *FOG*, there are some examples of textbooks which have significant effects on people's minds.

> And his wife--for that fat, stupid old woman, the Bountiful First Lady, was his wife--had taken the business about being a writer and moralist seriously. And why not? Didn't the newspapers, the radio, the television say so? Wasn't Moral Meditations, with a prologue by the Mexican José Vasconcelos, required reading in the schools, and wasn't it reprinted every two months? Hadn't False Amity been the greatest stage hit in the thirty-one years of the Trujillo Era? Hadn't the critics and reporters, the university professors, priests, and intellectuals, praised her to the skies? (chap. 2, p. 19)

There is no reference to the content of the book and the play, but since Trujillo's wife has written them, it can be guessed that whatever has been written in them is something agreeable for the regime. In other words, the content is not important here. What is important is that this textbook, which is written by a member of the dominant family, is obligatory in schools, and educational system is not free to choose the materials for the students. Llosa relates the discussion of the textbook and media in this part simultaneously and reveals the effect of media on mind.He notes that Doña María believed that she was the real writer of the book because all newspapers, radio, and television said so.

> Reissued every year by the Trujillonian Institute, Balaguer's speech was required reading in schools, and the central text in the Civics Handbook, used to educate high school and university students in the Trujillista Doctrine and composed by a trio of men he had selected: Balaguer, Egghead Cabral, and the Walking Turd.(chap. 14, p. 267)

What is Balaguer's speech? It is the famous speech orated at theFine Arts in which Balaguer introduces the well-known expression, "God and Trujillo" and relates Trujillo's sovereignty to God's will and considers it as a "decision of Divinity". This excerpt reveals three points: first, Balaguer's speech is a part of educational material which the students have to study; second, this speech is the main text of Civics Handbook taught in high schools and universities; and third, Civics Handbook is composed by three major politicians of the country, Balaguer, Cabral, and Henry Chirinos. Thus, it is politics which controls the educational materials and consequently it controls the minds of a great number of society members while their mental model is constructing. It is obvious that reading such materials and receiving such information about politics and the dominant person leads to the construction of an unreal political cognition.

Another kind of books which are very crucial in political discussions is the history books. They are also considered as a reliable information sources, but it does not mean that all given information is true and real. Again it is the powerful group who manipulates such books or composes the opposite ones immediately. Apparently, in *FOG*, history books are considered reliable by Urania, because she admits that by reading them she can understand many things about politics and Dominican history.

> "My apartment in Manhattan is full of books," Urania continues. "Like this house when I was a gift. Law, economy, history. But in my bedroom, only Dominican books. Testimonies, essays, memoirs, lots of histories. Can you guess the period? The Trujillo Era, what else? The most important thing that happened to us in five hundred years. (chap. 4, p. 55)

These thirty-one years seem very crucial to the Dominicans from Urania's point of view, because of the amount of the cruelty and evil imposed on them, also this era is very important from her father's point of view for its advantages and development.She also points to an important role of the books in a society. It is the history books which preserve the culture, the language, and the different beliefs of a nation or country. Thus, reading the history helps people to know themselves and their country, especially in regard to the politics, better.

4. Conclusion

Mental representation and context model are two key sections in CDA studies especially in political ones. These two are the fundamental sections of cognition construction. Simply put it, cognition is the mental and context models which are constructed based on given information from different sources. When the major subject of these models is politics, the constructed cognition will be called political cognition. Political cognition plays a key role in getting the implied meanings of political discourse by politician and people in power. It means that people make political decisions according to their political cognition, so they need to have a stable and true cognition in this regard. According to this article, people either have this political cognition or not. In the former case, people accept whatever the politician declares without any resistance because they do not have the power to analyze the discourses. The latter case has two phases: people have political cognition, but it is either true or not according to the given information by different sources. Since their decisions are based on their cognition, wrong cognition leads to wrong decisions and vice versa. Analyzing different examples in *FOG*, we conclude that politicians or powerful party in the society use either the lack of political cognition or the wrong political cognition of people to exercise their power over them.

Consequently, we answer three questions related to CDA, political cognition, and political discourse in *FOG*:

1. How is language used in *FOG* by different people according to their power?
2. How do the powerful groups control the public discourse?
3. How does control of the public discourse lead to political cognition?

According to the analyzed instances in *FOG*, this is political cognition that gives people power in a society. Hence, language is used based on the political cognition. In *FOG*, people with more power in their own scope of action, feel free in using the language during their conversation with their inferiors. Trujillo is the absolute power in the country, so he uses different nicknames, disdaining titles, or special way of speaking to show his power. But people who are given the same political cognition by Llosa talk with each other in a way that reveals their shared political cognition, the assassination group or the main politicians of the country, for instances.

The answers of the second and the third questions have been the main discussions of this article and in fact the answers are interwoven and have a mutual relation. Based on the presented examples from *FOG* and their analysis according to cognition theory, the powerful party controls the public discourse in the following ways:

- Controlling the minds
- Controlling the media
- Controlling the textbooks

As it was discussed fully in the second section, discourse is not necessarily the oral production of language; it can be a written text, a photo, a painting, propagandas, or any other work of art. In *FOG*, Trujillo uses all kinds of discourse in order to manage his subordinates' minds easily; oral speeches given by himself or his politicians, his statue in different places of the country, the name of the places which are given for his family members, and the famous slogan of the Republic are some instances in this regard. These are the things that people see or hear and adjust their minds to them unconsciously.

Media as the major source of information in every society must be allocated great amount of attention. Newspapers are read by different groups of people, in every house, there is at least a television set, and a great amount of news is broadcasting via radios. Thus, if the powerful party can control this section of society, in fact it will be able to control people's minds which result in discourse control. In *FOG*, it was discussed that there was plenty of censorship on news, and the press and media were under Trujillo's absolute control.

The last but not the least sources of information are the textbooks, especially the educational materials. It can be claimed that the educational materials are the most important kind of textbooks because reading and learning them is obligatory for everyone in different levels of education. Studying the instances from *FOG*, has made it clear that the powerful party tries to control the content of the textbooks and presents something which is in its favor.

We emphasize here that some of the most important texts about the positive aspects of Trujillo and his regime, even not real and true, were presented to the students at the elementary levels of education and in this way their mental and context models were constructed more easily. Trujillo knew that constructing the political cognition at the elementary levels was not enough, so this procedure was continued at universities with more emphasis in order to establish a stable positive political cognition.

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Title

An Intercultural Rhetoric Investigation: The Effect of Linear and Non-Linear Paragraphs on Students' Comprehension and Recalling

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Abstract

This research made a contrastive study of the rhetorical organization of a number of paragraphs written in English and Persian. Two linear expository paragraphs from English and Persian language and two non-linear expository paragraphs from English and Persian language were chosen.70 students took part in this research. The participants in two classes received two texts, one received Persian and English linear paragraphs and the other received Persian and English non-linear paragraphs. The results of the quantitative analysis showed that Iranian students prefer non-linear paragraphs than linear ones in both English and Persian languages. These findings lend support to the existence of cross-cultural differences between Persian and English.

Key words: Culture, Contrastive Rhetoric, Linear and non- Linear Paragraphs

1. Introduction

The study of rhetoric started after publication of Kaplan's (1966) paper "cultural through patterns in intercultural education". After reading and analyzing a larg number of students' essay in his study, Kaplan argued that the forms these essays took might reflect the "thought pattern of the writers' culture". Oriental thought, for example, was said to follow a spiral, Whereas English thought was said to follow a straight pattern of development. Matsuda's (2001) response to Ying (2000) includes a personal communication from Kaplan in which Kaplan admits having been very much influenced by the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Matsuda concludes that the origin of contrastive rhetoric was a result of Kaplan's effort to synthesize at least three different intellectual traditions: contrastive analysis, the Sapir- Whorf hypothesis, the emerging field of composition and rhetoric. The latter encouraged Kaplan to approach contrastive analysis at the paragraph level (Connor, 2002).

Kaplan (1966) suggested that all written languages contain a variety of organizational modes, and that native speakers recognize which mode to use. However, he implied that the non- native speaker does not possess a complete inventory of possible alternatives; does not recognize the sociolinguistic constraints of those alternatives, and does not know what constraints a choice imposes on the text. Kaplan's data were used by Connor (2002), Hinds (1990) and Kaplan (2001) to support contrastive rhetoric as a theory that dealt with foreign language learners' cultural barriers in their academic writing. These studies show how writers' cultural background influence their organization of writing, what they choose to use as evidence in supporting their main ideas, how they express their main ideas, and how they write in the foreign language. They also show how different rhetorical preferences are reflected in textual organization of different languages.

For foreign students, Linguistic and cultural patterns are transferred to their writing in the target language not only at the word and sentence level but also at the discourse level Moran, (1991). Since their original styles may not work with the new tasks assigned by the target language teachers, they need to adapt to the new academic context which has its own conventions (Jordan, 1997). To compose in a foreign language is not an isolated classroom activity, but a social and cultural experience. For example, the rules of other societies; Likewise, the rules of Chinese writing reflect beliefs and values that may not be found in learning the values of the corresponding foreign society (Shen & Yao 1999).

Researchers who do contrastive rhetorical studies are interested in how writers' cultural backgrounds influence the way they organize their writing, and how they write in a foreign language (usually English). As a matter of fact, students of English as a foreign language

(EFL), who come from different cultural backgrounds, often have different kinds of problems from those of native speakers of English. In Farsi, for example, the borderline between the spoken and written discourse is not clear-cut. The spoken style is more widespread and dominant in Farsi. As a result, the paragraph, as the unit of written discourse, follows the internal rhetorical structure of oral discourse (Khatib & Moradian, 2011). Besides, one of the main characteristics of oral discourse in Farsi is topic shift, i.e. the speaker, from time to time, shifts from one topic to another trying his or her best to make the issue as attractive and persuasive as possible. As a result, multi-topical paragraphs which are, to a large extent, the legacy of the oral style are common in Farsi style of writing (Meskoob, 1995). Besides, the written discourse of Farsi is characterized by too many instances of subordinate as well as coordinate clauses, resulting in many cases of T-units in a Farsi piece of writing (Hassani, 2004).

Kaplan (1966) believes that in a linear paragraph the approach is direct and the entire sentences support only the main idea in the paragraph, whereas in a non-linear paragraph an indirect approach is used and comes to the point only at the end.

The academic writings of many languages try to fit linear styles. Gonzales (1982) notes, in description of the language of the Philippines, that a priest will state his cermon in the local language but switch to English (a linear language) if the topic is academic and theological in nature. Clyne (1981) in discussion of English/German rhetorical patterns states:

> There appear to be some disciplines (e.g., mathematics, and engineering) in which German scientists have adopted a basically linear discourse structure. This may be conditioned by the discipline or by leadership of English speakers (p. 64).

Eggington (1987) has also found that Korean speakers will be better able to reproduce information presented in more traditonal non-linear rhetorical framework than information presented in the linear rhetorical patterns. Hinds (1983) have also demonstrated that Japanese students and English-speaking American students were asked to read and recall information contained in an essay written in one of the desired rhetorical patterns of Japanese. The Japanese readers were being able to retain information better than the English readers because the Japanese readers were operating within a familiar rhetorical framework.

In this study, the researcher is going to answer whether Iranian students prefer to use non-linear (indirect) paragraphs, in other words, whether understanding non-linear paragraphs is easier for Iranian students rather than linear ones and also if they keep non-linear paragraphs in mind for a longer time than linear ones. So this study will test Kaplan's claim about an oriental language (i.e. Persian). This study is going to answer the following questions:

1-Is there any difference between students' comprehension and of linear and non-linear Persian texts?

2-Is there any difference between students' recalling of linear and non-linear English texts?

2. Method

2. 1. Participants

Our research population were170 students who were studying English language at the Islamic Azad University of Ilam. All classes were defined as clusters. Two classes, including the females and the males, were randomly selected as our participants. 70 students took part in this research. They all majored in English literature and were studying in their fourth year of education at university. The reason for selecting students at the advanced level is that advanced students are better suited for the comprehension of given paragraphs, especially the English ones.

2. 2. Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of the study the following procedures were applied: In order to make the participants homogeneous, a Cambridge reading TOEFL test was used. It included 40 items in a multiple choice format.One standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen for the next stage, there remained 40 homogeneous students, 26 girls and 14 boys. These forty students were divided into two classes randomly. The participants in the two classes received two texts, one received a Persian linear paragraph (Appendix A), and the other received a Persian non-linear paragraph (Appendix B).The participants were asked to read the paragraphs in 10 minutes and were told that they would be required to recall as much information from the paragraph as they could. After the given time, the paragraphs were taken away; the participants were given a blank piece of paper and were requested to write all that they remembered from the paragraphs within ten minutes. Next the participants received two English paragraphs: the first class an English linear-paragraph (Appendix C) and the second class an English non-linear paragraph (Appendix D). After 20 minutes the paragraphs were taken away and again they were requested to write all that they remembered from the paragraphs within 15 minutes; then, the participants were requested to return the following week for another test. Upon their return, the participants were asked once again to reproduce as much as they could remember of the paragraphs. The participants' comprehension and recalling responses were analyzed by three raters. Responses were scored on a six-point scale so that if the information contained in a participant's clause, agreed exactly with the original, then a score of 1 would be assigned to the recalled clause; partial agreement results in a score of 2, 3, 4, or 5 depending on the closeness of the information in the participants' clause to the original, while total disagreement, or no mention of the sentence, resulted in a score of 6. Therefore, the less information was recalled the higher the score. No penalty was given for any new information not found in the original, and the particular ordering of the recalled clauses had no effect on the scoring system. Four standard two-tailed t-tests were used to test the reproduction differences between the linear and non-linear texts in all conditions (immediate and delay). The study was set to investigate the following null hypotheses:

1. There isn't any difference between students' comprehension of linear and non-linear Persian texts in.

2. There isn't any difference between students' recalling of linear and non-linear Persian texts.

3. There isn't any difference between students' comprehension of linear and non-linear English texts.

4. There isn't any difference between students' recalling of linear and non-linear English texts.

2. 2. 1. The Level of difficulty of the paragraphs

For finding the level of difficulty of the given text a FOG formula (Farhady, Jafarpour & Birjandy, 1994) was used, then the level of difficulty of each paragraph was calculate

Table 1: Level of difficulty of the paragraphs

Level of difficulty of the paragraphs	Persian linear paragraph	Persian non-linear paragraph	English linear paragraph	English non linear paragraph
	22	22.3	27.2	27.9

Based on table 3.1., both Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs have almost the same level of difficulty and English linear paragraph is also as difficult as the non- linear one, so we can say that the chosen paragraphs were appropriate for the research; since any difference between comprehension or delayed recalling of the linear and non-linear paragraphs will be the result of the linearity or non-linearity of paragraphs in both languages not difficulty or easiness of the paragraphs.

2. 3. Instrumentation

2. 3. 1. TOEFL Test

The TOEFL reading comprehension test used in this study contained 5 texts and 40 questions in a multiple choice format.

2. 3. 2. Paragraphs

Two linear expository paragraphs, in English and Persian and two non-linear expository paragraphs in English and Persian were chosen. The linearity and non-linearity of all paragraphs were judged by six raters, all of them were PhD of applied linguistic.

3. Data analysis

3.1. Analyzing the results

Tables: 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 show the mean of each class, the standard deviation from the mean and the results of t-tests for: Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs comprehension, Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs recalling, English linear and non-linear comprehension English linear and non-linear recalling, respectively.

3.1.1. Persian paragraphs

Table 2: Persian linear and non-linear comprehension results

Paragraphs	N	Mean	SD	t-observed
Linear	20	19	.9	.6
non-linear	20	13	.95	

The two-tailed t-test formula was applied to the results of comprehension of Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs in table 2. The next table shows the results of the first.

Table3: t-observed and t-critical for Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs comprehension results

t-observed	Degree of Freedom (df)	T critical value for a two-tailed test	
		0.05 level of significance	0.01 level of significance
.60	18	.44	.56

Here, the t-observed is .60 which exceeds the t-critical values at 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance which are .44 and .56 respectively. Therefore, the difference between the scores of the two groups is significant; that is, more than happening just bye chance. As a result, it can be concluded that the comprehension of non-linear Persian paragraphs is easier for Iranian students.

Table 4: Persian linear and non-linear recalling results

Paragraphs	N	Mean	SD	t-observed
Linear	20	27.5	.7	.9
non-linear	20	22	.9	

The two-tailed t-test formula was applied to the results of Iranian students' recalling of Persian linear and non-linear in table 4.4. Table 5 shows the results of the second t-test.

Table 5: t-observed and t- critical for Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs recalling results

t-observed	Degree of Freedom (df)	T critical value for a two-tailed test	
		0.05 level of significance	0.01 levelo f significance
.90	18	.44	.56

Table 5 shows that the t-observed (.9) exceeds t-critical at level of significant of 0.05 and 0.01 which are respectively .44 and .56. So recalling of non-linear paragraphs is easier for Iranian students. According to table 4.2 and also table 4.4 (t-tes1 and t-test2), the second null hypothesis is rejected. In other words, there is a significant difference between Iranian students' recalling of Persian linear and non-linear paragraphs in delayed conditions.

3.1.2. English Paragraphs

Table 6: English linear and non-linear paragraphs comprehension results

	N	Mean	SD	t-observed
Linear	20	57	.7	3.2
non-linear	20	48	.8	

The two-tailed t-test formula was applied to the results of Iranian students' comprehension of English linear and non-linear in table 4.5. Table 4.6 shows the result of applying t-test.

Table 7: t-observed and t-critical for English linear and non-linear paragraphs comprehension results

t-observed	Degree of Freedom (df)	T critical value for a two-tailed test	
		0.05 level of significance	0.01 level of significance
3.2	18	.44	.56

According to table **7**, t-observed (3.2) is more than t-critical at the significant level of 0.05 and 0.01 or 3.2 >.44 and also 3.2> 56. As a result, third null hypothesis is also rejected, leading to this conclusion that there is statistically a significant difference between comprehension of Iranian students of English linear and non-linear paragraphs.

Table 8: English linear and non-linear paragraphs recalling results

Paragraphs	N	Mean	SD	t-observed
Linear	20	67	.7	3.04
non-linear	20	59	.7	

The two-tailed t-test formula was applied to the results of Iranian students' recalling of English linear and non-linear in table 8. Table 9 is the result of applying the two tailed t-test.

Table 9: t-observed and t- critical for English linear and non-linear paragraphs recalling results

t-observed	Degree of Freedom (df)	T critical value for a two-tailed test	
		0.05 level of significance	0.01 level of significance
3.04	18	.44	.56

Here, the result of applying the t-test shows that t-observed is much bigger than t-critical at both levels of significance 0.05 and 0.01 (3.04>.44, 3.04>.56). It means there is a significant difference between Iranian students' recalling of English linear and non-linear paragraphs. So the fourth null hypothesis is also rejected. In other words, recalling non-linear paragraphs is easier for Iranian students than linear ones.

Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 showed that Iranian students prefer non-linear paragraphs to linear ones in both English and Persian languages. That is, understanding and recalling of non-linear paragraphs, in both English and Persian language, is much easier for Iranian students than linear ones. In other words, Iranian students may have difficulty in comprehension and recalling of linear paragraphs. So all null hypotheses are rejected, leading to the conclusion that Persian and English are different in their use of non-linearity and linearity in writing.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results of this study showed that Persian and English are different in their use of linear and non-linear paragraphs. Of course it does not mean that we just teach and accept western linear way of writing; it would be language imperialism and also a new colonialism to advocate the idea that only linear rhetorical patterns are acceptable and must be taught in our education. What here we need is the introduction of both systems of writing. It would be highly overconfident to maintain that this study presents an exhaustive description of rhetorical uses in writing in two cultures studied here. Such is not the intention of the present writers. Rather, it attempts to demonstrate that there are several important rhetorical differences between Eastern and Western writing preferences.

This study indicates that Iranian students are able to understand and retain inforamtion presented in the linear stlyes more than non-linear ones. In other words, Iranian studetns have a certain built-in expectations about the ordering of the ideas. It is clear that these findings can be useful in writing class. This tendency toward non-linear paragraphs roots in Iranian literature**.**

On the other hand, one of the main characteristics of the oral style in Persian is topic or *genre shift*. The speaker or the orator, from time to time, shifts from one topic to another trying his best to make the issue as attractive and persuasive as possible. As a result, multitopical paragraphs which are, to a large extent, the legacy of the oral style are common in Persian (Moradian, 1999, 2006). Haghshenas (1998) has also found that in Hafiz ghazal there is almost always a change of horizon (perspective) of the poem.

Another reason for non-linearity is that Persian prose of nearly all text types is heavily influenced by the poetry. In other words, Persian prose writers follow the conventions of the poetic style. Tabatabaii (2006) mentions the dominance of poem over prose in Persian language history. He states Saadi was one of the greatest men who combined poem with prose in his great work *–Golestan*-one reason that he combined poem with prose was that he was criticized for writing prose, since during those days it was beneath great writers' dignity to create their works in prose form. That is why most of the famous Persian literary works are poetry rather than the prose.

In contrast to the English writing system, the Persian writing system is nonlinear. The obvious problem that we face in the Persian composition classes is that both the teacher and the students do not exactly know what they are going to do. In these classes, teachers just want the students to write. They do not follow any special procedure. Just little guidance may come from the teacher. Teaching composition seems makes no difference at all levels of education; the students are given a subject and are asked to write a composition according to their background knowledge. Most of the teacher’s guidance is limited to correcting some grammatical points or giving some suggestions about choice of suitable words. Methodologists and researchers have suggests many different approaches as how to teach composition in EFL class, for example, process and product approaches Process approach is never used in Persian compositions classes (Hassani, 2004).

The results of this study can also be useful for syllabus designers to use linear or non-linear texts or even a careful combination of both. It is clear that we need both types of writing a paragraph (linear and non-linear), because according to Kaplan (1966) English as the international language is linear while Persian as our national language is non-linear, but Iranian students’ preference for each style was something unknown so that this research help us understand students' attitude toward these two systems of writing. The findings of the research benefit teachers who teach writing skills.

The results of this study are related to interlingual studies. When individuals write in a language other than their native language, they tend to use their native patterns in the target language. The results of the present study showed that Persian and English cultures orient their discourse differently. Now, the existence of these differences should be emphasized in the English language teaching context to minimize their interfering effects on Persian ESL/EFL students.

Over the past three decades, numerous studies undertaken within the discipline of contrastive rhetoric have supported the hypothesis that there exist preferred rhetorical styles within text. These findings cast more light on the existence of cross-cultural differences between Persian and English. So this study supports the claims made by previous research (cf. Kaplan, 1966; Regent, 1985; Vahapassi, 1988; Dantas-Whitney and Grabe, 1989) that writing is a cultural phenomenon. This is indicative of the fact that different cultures have different rhetorical preferences.

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Appendix A: Persian linear paragraph (Asgarkhani, 2004,p.78):

بررسی های مربوط به جنگ ابتدا در سطح ذات انسان موثر بوده است. سپس در سطح دولتها و بعد در سطح نظام بین ا لملل صورت پذیرفته است. ناسازگاری و جنگ و به دنبال آن همکاری در سطح نظام بین الملل بیش ازپیش مورد توجه اندیشمندان قرار گرفته است. قدرت، ماهیت و نوع آن در ایجاد نظام موثر بوده اند. به عنوان مثال اندازه نظام یعنی تعداد قدرتهای بزرگ ، میزان تعهدات بین آن قدرتها ، به هم فشردگی و از هم گسیختگی این روابط و تمرکز قدرت در داخل نظام از جمله عوامل موثر در برقراری نظام بوده اند. رژیمهای بین المللی محصول قدرتها بوده اند .آنها متاثر از اندازه نظام ، میزان تعهدات، به هم فشردگی و از هم گسیختگی و تمرکز قدرت در داخل نظام می باشند. بررسی قدرت بخش جدایی ناپذیر رژیمهای بین المللی می باشند.

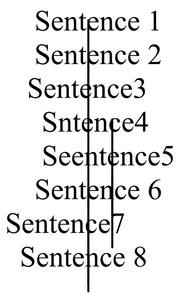

Figure4: a Persian linear paragraph

Appendix B: Persian non-linear paragraph (Asgarkhani, 2004, p.71)

سازمان پیمان آتلانتیک شمالی (ناتو) در سال 1949 به عنوان یک رژیم امنیت منطقه ای تاسیس شد. رژیم های امنیتی در چهارچوب رژیم های بین المللی فعالیت نموده و دارای اصول ،هنجارها ، قواعد و رویه های تصمیم گیری می باشند.اصول در رابطه بااهداف، هنجار ها در رابطه با رفتار وقواعد در رابطه با مکانیزم تنظیم رابطه میان اهداف ورفتار بوده ودر واقع چگونگی نیل به هدف را بیان می دارد. رویه های تصمیم گیری نیز فرایند اتخاذ تصمیم میان بازیگران را مشخص می سازد. منشور ناتو دارای یک مقدمه و چهارده ماده می باشد. اهداف معمولا درمقدمه رژیم ها می‌آید. با نگا هی به اهداف ناتو در می یابیم که اهداف منشورملل متحد یعنی برقراری صلح و امنیت منطقه ای وبین المللی از جمله اهداف ناتو نیز می باشد. گرچه در دوران جنگ سرد، ناتو مایل نبود این اهداف را در خارج از مناطق خود پی گیری نماید.

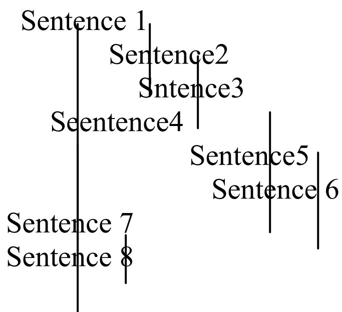

Figure5: a Persian non-linear paragraph

Appendix C: English linear-paragraph (Alexander, 1990, p.171)

Populations increase and decrease relatively not only to one another, but also to natural sources. In most parts of the world, the relation between population and sources is already unfavorable and will probably become unfavorable in the future. This growing poverty in the midst of growing poverty constitutes a permanent menace to peace. And not only to peace, but also to democratic institutions and personal liberty. For overpopulation is not compatible with freedom. An unfavorable relationship between numbers and resources tends to make the earning of a living almost intolerably difficult. Labor is more abundant than goods, and individual is compelled to work long hours for little pay. No surplus of accumulated purchasing power stands between him and tyrannies of unfriendly nature or of equally unfriendly wielder of political and economic power. Democracy is, among other thing, the ability to 'say 'no' to the boss. But a man can not say 'no' to the boss, unless he is sure of being able to eat when the boss's favor has been withdrawn. And he can not be certain of his next meal unless he owns the means of producing enough wealth for his family to live on, or has been able to accumulate a surplus out of past wages or has a chance of moving to virgin territories, where he can make a fresh start. In an overcrowded country, every few people own enough to make them financially independent; very few are in position to accumulate purchasing power; and there is no free land. Moreover, in any country where population presses hard upon natural resources, the general economic situation is apt to be so precarious that government control of capital and labor, production and consumption, becomes inevitable. It is no accident that the twentieth century should be the century of highly centralized governments and totalitarian dictatorship; it had to be the simple reason that the twentieth century is the centaury of planetary overcrowding;

This paragraph can be graphically represented as:

Sentence 1
Sentence2
Sntence3
Seentence4
Sentence5
Sentence 6
Sentence 7
Sentence 8
Sentence 9
Sentence 10
Sentence 11
Sentence 12
Sentence 13
Sentence 14
Sentence 15

Figure6: an English linear-paragraph

Appendix D: English non-linear paragraph (Swan, 1990, p.69)

At the roots of much of our cultural thinking is our actual experience of speech. In Britain the question of good speech is deeply confused, and is in itself a major source of many of the divisions in our culture. It is inevitable, in modern society that our regional speech forms should move closer to each other, and that many extreme forms should disappear. But this should be a natural process, as people move and travel and meet more freely, and as they hear different speakers in films, television, and broadcasting. The mistake is to assume that there is already a "correct" form of modern English speech, which can serve as a standard to condemn all others. In fact "public-school English ", in the form in which many have tried to fix it, cannot no become a common speech-form in the country as a whole: both because of the social distinctions now associated which its use, and because of the powerful influence of American speech from. Yet many good forms of modified regional speech are in practice emerging and extending. The barriers imposed by dialect are reduced, in these forms, without the artificiality of imitating a form remote from most people's natural speaking. This is the path of growth. Yet in much speech training, in schools, we go on assuming that there is already one "correct" form over the country as a whole. Thousands of us are made to listen to our natural speaking with the implication from the beginning that it is wrong. This sets up such deep tensions, such active feeling of shame and resentment, that is should be no surprise that we cannot discuss culture in Britain without at once encountering tensions and prejudices deriving from this situation. If we experience speech training as an aspect of our social inferiority, a fundamental cultural division gets built in, very near the powerful emotions of self-respect, family affection, and local loyalty. This does not mean that we should stop speech training. But we shall not get near a common culture in Britain unless we make it a real social process-listening to ourselves and to others with no prior assumption of correctness-rather than the process of imitating a social class which is remote from must of us, living us stranded at the and with the "two-language "problem. Nothing is more urgent than to get rid of this arbitrary association between general excellence and the habits of a limited social group. It is not only that there is much that is good elsewhere. The above paragraph can be graphically represented as follow:

Sentence 1
Sentence2
Sn**tence3**
Seentence4
Sentence5
Sentence 6
Sentence 7
Sentence 8
Sentence 9
Sentence 10
Sentence 11
Sentence 12
Sentence 13
Sentence 14
Sentence 15

Figure7: an English non-linear paragraphe