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Investigating the role of language input in the rate of first language acquisition

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The present study was meant to explore the possible effects of the amount of language input, which children receive since birth, on the rate with which their L١ is acquired; or to see whether any probable relationship exists between them. In so doing, the researchers referred to and analyzed the findings of the past and recent research done in this area together with the most prominent theories of first language acquisition. The commonalities and disparities of all the findings were obtained and classified and finally the results were reported. In general, it was revealed that so far the evidence for this possible effect or relationship between language input and L١ acquisition is either non-conclusive or not hard enough. Put another way, while the existence of input as a necessary condition for L١ acquisition is supported by almost all studies and L١ theoreticians, they argue that the quantity of input does not affect the rate of first language development. However, the findings indicated that input can play a facilitative role particularly in the uptake of vocabulary, while in terms of grammatical features and functions of language, the exposure and provided input do not influence the acquisition of L١ in most children. Additionally the findings appeared to signal the presence of a complex mechanism in children that operates independent of the mode and amount of the language input in its growing environment and even the motherese.

Keywords: language input; L١ acquisition, motherease

١. Introduction

First language acquisition has always been seen as an important issue for all parents. Many of the parents try to assist their young children in order to facilitate or speed up the processes involved in L۱ development through different practices and models of interaction. It is also believed that the kind of education and environment that is provided for their young children can exert considerable effects on the rate and the quality of the child's first language acquisition. Likewise, a number of language experts admit the fact that the specific nurture and environment, in which a child is raised, can be deemed as determining factors in one's L۱ acquisition. For instance, according to Potts et al. (۱۹۷۹), there is noticeable variability in the rate of language development among children, and some of this difference in rate may be due to aspects of input either in an enriched environment or in more deprived ones. In this respect, environments with more chances of exposure to any type of language together with a greater chance of communication with a larger number of interactants are said to be of greater advantage for the overall success of children L۱ acquisition. Among L۱ theoreticians, Piaget (۱۹۹٤) and Vygotsky (۱۹۸۷) are definitely two key figures who emphasized the role of physical and social world in language development and held that learners who are deprived of these types of interactions, would experience a delayed or defective learning of L۱.

By contrast, research into the field of L۱ acquisition has further shown that environment and language input may have no or little effect on enhancing the processes involved in the development of the mother tongue, and that children are programmed to learn an L۱ during the first ۵ years of their life, regardless of the feature of the very atmosphere in which they grow up. Nativists like Chomsky fall into this category and claim that child's L۱ acquisition is automatic and unaffected by nurturing as it is an inborn, innate endowment in every child. For example, Lust (۲۰۰٦) concluded from some empirical research on deaf children that there is an inherent capacity of the mind to impose structure on the language, given the different amount of input. In the same vein, as Meier (۱۹۹۱) nicely put, research during the last two decades, has cast doubts on the degree to which a certain model with well-formed input is required for language learning.

As with the first view, it can be seen that most parents try to communicate with their young children in many different ways as an attempt to improve and

foster the child's developing language. They believe this practice can help the child learn the first language faster more efficiently. In this regard, the proponents of the second view claim that this is a vain attempt as the child will naturally find his way through effective communication, no matter there is a poverty of stimuli in the atmosphere they are brought up or there is a lot of opportunity for learning and exposure. However, Lust (۲۰۰٦) took an intermediate view and concluded that:

> "While there can be no doubt that experience is necessary for language acquisition, the form of experience can vary widely. The genesis of a new language appears to require the existence of a community, but the ontogenesis of a first language in children can involve different amounts and types of communicative interaction. All normal children appear to contain within themselves the ability to create a language in spite of wide variations in experience" (p.۱۰٦).

Thus, further understanding in this area of L۱ acquisition can give both language experts and parents insights into a more appropriate pattern of behavior and instruction towards young children. In addition, exploring the variability that language input and environment are likely to impose on the rate and quality of L۱ acquisition, is of paramount importance in realizing the nature of language itself.

۱.۱. *Purpose of the study*
The present study is meant to explore the possible effects of the language input a child receives, on the rate and quality of the first language development in young children through a thorough investigation in the past studies done in this area. In other words, the researcher will review the related literature in order to find out to what extent the amount of language input can play a role in the rate and the quality of L۱ acquisition.

۱.۲. *Research question*
This study has tried to respond to two main questions as follows:
- Does the amount of provided language input impact the rate of L۱ acquisition in young children?
- What aspects of L۱ might be affected by the amount of provided language input in young children?

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۲. Literature review
۲٫۱. *First language acquisition theories and input*

Over the past few decades the controversy over the influence of nature and nurture on L1 learning has remained important and insightful. However, in one study Pinker (۱۹۹٤) indicated that trying to figure out "whether language behavior is caused either by environment or innate abilities available at birth, is just incoherent" (p. ٤٠٧).

As for the nativist camp, Chomsky (۱۹٦٥), as a pioneer, believed that the input children receive was degenerate and an insufficient basis for language learning. According to this theory human is equipped with inborn capabilities to pick up a language at birth. Similarly, Bickerton (۱۹۸۱) suggested that children with 'incomplete' and 'simple' input themselves create a well-established language through access to their inborn language abilities. Also Pinker (۱۹۹٤) indicated that language is an instinct that has evolved out of adaptation throughout the evolution of man. Based on the theory, the innate linguistic capacities contain universal grammatical principles that are then adjusted to the language-specific characteristics in the input. In the same vein, Borer and Wexler (۱۹۸۷) suggested that at a 'genetically predetermined time' the principles of language become available to the child.

Later a new trend in psychology called behaviorism began to influence the field during ۱۹۲۰'s. This new school of thought held that the environment and the features of the context in which a child grows was the most important factor in development of the child language. B. F. Skinner was a key figure in this regard and proposed different theories related to this area. According to Skinner (۱۹٥۷) all behavior in children is formed through stimulus, response, associations and reinforcement and in the same way the meaning of words and the grammar of the language is learned. They attributed very little internal structure to the child except general abilities (Ingram, ۱۹۸۹) and parents are probably the most important elements of the environment in which the child learns the mother tongue. Another theory associated with behaviorism is the connectionist theory. Connectionists like McClelland and Rumelhart (۱۹۸٦) hold that input to the neural network is essential and that they provide the basis for the formation of patterns of behavior.

From a cognitive perspective there are other theorists like Piaget (۱۹٥٥, ۱۹۹٤) and Slobin (۱۹۷۷) who view language as one of the many cognitive capacities or skills the child has to acquire, like memory or attention. The linguistic system is built up by the child in interaction with their caretakers and this language development goes hand in hand with the development of general forms of knowledge.

Also Vaygotsky (۱۹۸۷) emphasized the role of social interaction as a crucial criterion in developing a language. In his viewpoint, language develops as a result of interaction and communication with other members of a community like parents for a child. In this respect Wells (۱۹۸٥) took the view that:

> "If we now return to the question of the relative contribution of child and adult to the process of language learning, it is clear that the answer must be stated in terms of an interaction. Interaction, first, between the child's predisposition to learn to communicate and the model of language provided by those who communicate with him. Interaction, also, in the form of the specific conversations that provide the evidence from which the child learns and feedback on how his own communications are interpreted by others". (p.٤۱٥).

Considering all these theories in the realm of L۱ acquisition it will be useful to see whether the quality and the quantity of input can play any important role in facilitating the processes involved in L۱ development.

۲٫۲. Role of nurturing in L۱ acquisition

As mentioned earlier there exist two major concepts with regard to child language learning. Gass (۲۰۰۳) explains these two main approaches to both L۱ and L۲ learning by referring to the nature approach, "which argues that humans have an innate cognitive capacity for acquiring languages, and the nurture approach, which argues that language acquisition is inspired and stimulated by the environment and through social interactions" (p. ۲۲٥). While the nature position is based on Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar (UG) and an innate language faculty, the nurture approach argues that input and communication is most important when acquiring language. In the latter view the effects of the environmental features are said to be more influential in later developments of children's language.

According to some recent studies there exist significant discrepancies in children's early language environments, with equally significant lifelong consequences. An L^1 learning context   without enough language input including 'lexical complexity' 'joint attention', and 'reciprocity' impacts the child's developing language negatively, and in particular,   may result in acquisition of smaller lexicon and weaker 'narrative and pre-literacy skills' (Huttenlocher et al.,۲۰۱۰ ; Fernald et al.,۲۰۱۳). Hoff et al. (۲۰۰۵) stated that his difference in language input happens in children with speech and language delay, children with intellectual or developmental disabilities, children with hearing loss and children born into poor families.

In essence, according to Evans et al. (۱۹۹۹) and Weizman and Snow (۲۰۰۱) children make use of the exposure to adult speech that is diverse and rich in information about objects and events in the environment. In other more recent studies, it has also been found that parents who are highly responsive to their young children's 'verbal initiatives' and tend to describe and ask more questions, are likely to raise children with higher level oral and comprehension skills (Silven et al., ۲۰۰۲; Tamis-LeMonda et al., ۲۰۰۱). By the same token, it is true that more educated and advantaged parents have more interactions and make use of more complex language with their children than parents with lower educational and economic status, and that children from families with higher socio-economic status experience greater language development compared to their peers of less advantaged backgrounds (Hart & Risley, ۱۹۹۵; Hoff, ۲۰۰۳).

Another important contribution of the environment is about the available learning materials such as books, toys and games that can foster learning in children. These items have been shown to support young children's language growth and learning in different ways (Senechal et al., ۱۹۹۸; Tabors et al.,۲۰۰۱). In these contexts, learning materials function as a means for communicative exchange of meaning around a shared topic of conversation. Moreover, studies by Tomopoulos et al. (۲۰۰۶) and Gottfried et al. (۱۹۹۸) indicated that children's early reading and listening, 'intrinsic motivation' and positive methods to learning are affected by exposure to toys that provide 'symbolic play' and help develop better motor skills. In a similar vein, children's acquaintance with story books are said to be influencing their

'receptive' and 'productive' range of vocabulary together with early reading skills (Payne et al., ۱۹۹٤).

۲٫۳. *Motherese or child directed speech*

The concept of motherese is probably the most important term associated with the impact of input on L۱ development. In this regard, Gleitman, Newport, and Gleitman (۱۹۸٤) discussed the view that "the special properties of caregiver speech are required for language acquisition to occur" (p.٤٥). This means that mothers' speech to children comprises properties which renders motherese distinct from speech made to adults or to older children and that this kind of input is likely to facilitate the process of L۱ acquisition. Furthermore, Pinker (۱۹۹٤) found out that motherese can be associated with certain social classes while it might be totally absent with others. In other words, it may also differ from one ethnic group to another and is affect by culture. In this regard, it has been observed that Japanese mothers and fathers do not change their intonation when they address their little children (de Boysson-Bardies, ۱۹۹۹).

Motherese or baby talk is characterized by Snow and Ferguson (۱۹۷۷) as "well-formed and finely tuned to the child's psycholinguistic capacity" (p.۱٤), and has been used as an argument against the nativist position. From this perspective, children can acquire syntax so fast because of the features of their elders' speech, and the role of innate language-learning devices should not be emphasized. However, it appears that motherese provides little negative evidence against ungrammatical utterances of the child as there are often mismatches between early child language and their elders' speech. Even in cases when parents provide negative evidence or try to correct the child' faulty utterances the results are disappointing. For example, Morgan and Travis (۱۹۸۹) argued that 'corrective responses' do not happen frequently and regularly enough and the essential input for learning is mostly insufficient. The following conversation between the child and father show a the truth of this statement:

Child: *Want other one spoon, daddy.*
Father: *You mean, you want the other spoon.*
Child: *Yes, I want other one spoon, please Daddy.*

Father: *Can you say "the other spoon"?*
Child: *other...one... spoon.*
Father: *Say "other".*
Child: *Other.*
Father: *"Spoon".*
Child: *Spoon.*
Father: *"Other spoon".*
Child: *other...spoon. Now give me other one spoon.* (Braine ۱۹۷۱, p.۱٦۱)
Other findings from the work of experts like Snow and Ferguson (۱۹۷۷) have also indicated that the qualities of the language addressed to children are different from those of the language used for adults. Some of the differences are said to be exaggerated intonation, specific vocabulary items and even at times certain grammatical structures. Another distinction made by Pine (۱۹۹٤) is that declaratives are less common in motherese than in adult conversations, and that they increase in frequency as the child grows older. However, as the child becomes more competent in interactions, fewer questions will be present in the input.

In general, these are not enough to claim that there is a relationship between baby talk and the child's acquisition; in other words, as Pine (۱۹۹٤) stated, it is not as straightforward as some studies would like us to believe. In essence, mothers are primarily trying to engage their child in conversation, and are not concerned with instructing the language to the child (Snow, ۱۹۸٦). Likewise, Richards (۱۹۹٤) warns us that the effects of motherese should be interpreted with care, because the difference in the methodology and interpretation of results can lead us to an unreal understanding of this entity.

Still it is not logical to ignore the role of input in the facilitation of language learning in children. As such, evidence from a study by Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (۱۹۷۷) showed that the frequent use of yes/no questions in motherese results in the early acquisition of auxiliaries. Here the factor of age is also important. For instance, Shady and Gerken (۱۹۹٥) stated that ۲ year olds are sensitive to pitch changes and use 'prosodic cues' to spot linguistic distinctions and to select certain structures. The findings suggested that both language-internal and caregiver cues are effective in the processes involved in the comprehension of early sentences.

It appears that motherese is not playing a very important role in the rate and pace of child acquisition of the L۱. Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (۱۹۷۷, p. ۱۱۲) have supported this statement by asserting that 'the finding that Motherese exists cannot by itself show that it influences language growth, or even that this special style is necessary to acquisition – despite frequent interpretations to this effect that have appeared in the literature".

Most motherese language are said to be simplified and fine-tuned, yet adults produce higher level utterances when communicating with babies. In this respect, Wexler and Culicover (۱۹۸۰) believe that a simplified input does not necessarily enhance or improve language learning in children. They further maintained that less input will result in stronger nativist cases. Moreover, Pine (۱۹۹٤) pointed out that parents present the child with finely tuned utterances together with utterances, less finely tuned and thus beyond the child's level of language comprehension.

۲٫٤. *Differences between parents' speeches*

It is also believed that there are noticeable disparities between the language provided by mothers and fathers when addressing their children. For example, as stated by Lamb (۲۰۱۰) both mothers and fathers normally use the 'higher-pitched', 'slowed-down' form of speech, referred to as "parentese", in which fathers have a tendency to speak in a more challenging way in order to improve their child's developing language skills and teach them about social interactions.

In another study Rowe, Cocker and Pan (۲۰۰٤) concluded that fathers have a tendency to use more "wh-" questions and more requests for clarification than mothers, both of which encourage and maintain further conversation between them. Moreover, two-year-olds whose fathers use a wider range of vocabulary are said to possess greater language skills a year later (Pancsofar & Vernon-Feagans, ۲۰۰٦), while girls who are exposed to some reading by their fathers, may acquire better verbal skills later in life (Bing, ۱۹٦۳)

As for the qualities of appropriate input for children, O'Grady (۱۹۹۷) suggested that the term "comprehensible input" in the domain of L۱ acquisition would be defined as an input which expresses "identifiable meaning, independently determined", which can be inferred by reference to an

understanding of the context in which they are uttered or by resorting to lexical meanings already known.

۲٫٥. *The quantity of language input*

Regarding the amount and quantity of the input and its probable effects on the rate of language acquisition, very few studies can be found. While, there exist numerous studies investigating the amount of language produced by children, only a limited number has explored the amount of input and its role in language acquisition.

In one study, Hart and Risley (۱۹۹۹) found that "after age ۲ years and ٤ months the American parents in their longitudinal study show a strong decrease in the number of utterances addressed to their children" (۱۹۹۹, p.۱۲۱). This, as they explained, is because by this age the parents consider the children to be turning into fluent enough talkers. Moreover, in the same the study, they explicated that the parents are also ready to acknowledge the growing maturity of the children with regard to communication and interaction. In another study, Barton and Tomasello (۱۹۹٤) found that in 'dyadic interaction' children normally produce half of the conversation; however, it was not certain when this would be anticipated. This in turn, means that as children grow older the parents see them as other members of the family who can effectively communicate and no longer need further attention and simplification.

It is also suggested that the amount of language offered is considered to be facilitative to the acquisition of language in general (Hart & Risley, ۱۹۹۹). This, however, is more evident with learning vocabulary, as Snow (۱۹۹٤) considers the effects of input quantity relevant for vocabulary. In her observations, she explained "that the amount of maternal talk was the best predictor of children's growth in vocabulary" (p. ۹). That is, the wide range of vocabulary items in the provided input to children can impact their acquisition of the lexicon of their native languages (Hart & Risley,۱۹۹٥).

Thus it is clear that the presence of the input is important for L۱ acquisition. Yet, if input is provided but not noticed by the child, this may probably result in no uptake. Children may be distracted by many things, for example television background noise has been found to be distracting from input (Cooper & Clibbens, ۱۹۹۹). Harris (۱۹۹۲) defined the term 'uptake' as "that

part of the input that is actually attended to by the child" (p. ٤٤). It is clear that uptake is less than input as not all of the input is noticed by the child. Afterwards, uptake itself has to be processed by the child so that it will turn into 'intake'. Thus, intake is defined by Richards & Gallaway (١٩٩٤) as "the features attended to and processed by the child" (p. ٢٦٢).

As mentioned earlier, input by itself is not sufficient for acquisition to take place. In a related study, De Houwer (١٩٩٩) found that input in a language does not automatically imply the use of that language in the production of the children. The findings suggested that in order for a language to be used by a child, other factors may play a role; for instance, the proportion of the different languages that are offered and to the number of family members that use the languages with the children or amongst themselves.

۲٫٦. *The effect of input frequency*

Another interesting subject related to the effects of input on language development concerns the frequency of the language which is produced by parents. Studies in this area have shown meaningful relationship between the frequency of the input and L١ acquistion. As such, Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (١٩٩٨) and Theakston et al. (٢٠٠٤), suggested that there is a strong correlation between the order of emergence of certain verbs and the frequency of use in the language addressed to the children. Similarly, in a more recent study, Lieven (٢٠٠٨) has found correlations between the frequency of low-scope, auxiliary frames in child directed speech and their order of use by children. Moreover, frequency effects of input on obligatory auxiliaries and copulas have been proved by Theakston et al. (٢٠٠٥) and Pine et al. According to another study by Rowland and Pine (٢٠٠٠) the child produced correct forms of 'inverted' wh-auxiliary sentences that were used very often in the input while for sequences with lower frequency, 'non-inversion' errors were mostly made.

Based on these and some other studies input frequency can have a noticeable effect on the development of language forms and lexicon both in early and later stages of child life and probably in adults as well. For instance, Huttenlocher et al. (٢٠٠٢) found correlations between relative syntactic complexity in the speech of parents and the children's development of complex syntax as well as between the relative complexity of teacher's speech

and children's syntactic development. The influence of input frequency has also been shown by other experimental studies which in turn make the relationship between language emergence and input frequency firm and meaningful.

۳. Discussion and conclusion

As was indicated earlier, research studies into the relationship between input and the rate of L۱ acquisition are rather old or limited. Not many studies have tried to find the possible impact of the type and the quantity of the input on the language learning processes of the young children. While, apparently, input is believed to have noticeable influence on the rate and route of the first language development, research based evidence is not supporting this concept and even at times is rejecting it. In this respect, studies like Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (۱۹۷۷), Furrow, Nelson and Benedict (۱۹۷۹) and Gleitman, Newport and Gleitman (۱۹۸٤) provide contradictory evidence for the facilitative effect of input on the language acquisition of children. On the other hand the fact that input has some facilitative effect is by far accepted but it is clear now that it should not be considered as a determining factor whose absent may develop language deficiencies or stop the fulfillment of this great task for children during their first years.

Furthermore, motherese or baby talk was discussed as a way of communicating with young children. Parents fine-tune their speech so that they can get their baby's attention and if possible teach them a bit of language. However, it was found that in most cases parents are not trying to teach or correct their children but indeed they intended to get them to talk. In this case, parents tended to provide little negative evidence against the faulty language produced by children. The previous studies, however has shown that the effect of motherese is more evident in learning vocabulary and noun phrases rather than other parts of speech or even the grammatical structures or functions of different language forms.

Also, it was argued that mere input is not enough to trigger language learning and that language that is noticed and processed by the child can result in better acquisitional developments. Children may be easily distracted by the noise from their immediate environment, such as TV or telephone; therefore, if they

do not attend to the language directed to them, that particular piece of language is less likely to be taken up.

The effect of input frequency was a further issue whose relationship with language emergence was studied in the present article. Concrete evidence supports this relationship and maintains that words with a higher frequency are more likely to show up or emerge in the child's language.

As with the type and the quality of input, there are also very few studies to date, and as Richards (۱۹۹٤) stated, still there is not much concrete evidence for the probable connection between qualitative spheres of input and the output. It not yet proved whether children with differing types of exposure to first language would be equipped with different levels of language proficiency or even languages whose features may vary from one another.

On the whole, based on the findings from the previous studies and further with reference to the prominent first language theories mentioned earlier, it can be deduced that although the presence of input is essential in forming the overall shape of the child's language, the quantity or even the quality of the input may have only a negligible effect on the rate of L_1 acquisition. It appears that other innate mechanisms, which only require a minimum or 'threshold' (as some experts put it) of language exposure, are at play. As most nativists believe, this is mainly because the quality of the language to which a child is exposed is markedly different from that of the language they produce themselves. It may be the case that the child draws on a complex language processing system in which input, interaction, and other features of their environment are attended to either selectively or haphazardly.

Finally, more longitudinal case studies are required to shed light on the murky areas of the probable connection between first language development and the amount of the input the child receives. It is definitely important for all parents to find out whether there exists a meaningful relationship between child directed speech and the rate of language learning in young children during the first years.

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Domestication and Foreignization Strategies in the Persian

Translation of "*Dubliners*" Based on Venuti's Definitions

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Abstract

Translation theorists have considered many factors in translation studies (TS). "Domestication and foreignization" is one of the most important factors in the process of translation. According to Venuti (۱۹۹٥, p.۲۰) domestication refers to "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text". He defined foreignization as "an ethnodeviant pressure on those values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad" (ibid). The present study attempts to illustrate the Persian translator's using of domestication and foreignization strategies in Persian translation of Dubliners (Joys, ۱۹۱٤) based on Venuti's (۱۹۹٥) definitions of domestication and foreignization in translation. Achieving this aim, the researchers selected some sentences from Dubliners (Joys, ۱۹۱٤) along with its related Persian translation to see which strategy is more used by the Persian translator. The results showed that using these strategies is inevitable by the translator and he has used both "domestication" and "foreignization". Moreover, the results revealed that whenever there is an appropriate equivalent in the target text (TT), in most of the cases the translator has used "domestication". "Foreignization" also has

been used by the Persian translator when there is no appropriate equivalent for the word in the TT. According to the results of the present essay, this may also related to the culture of the received language. In the cases when there is an item in the source text (ST) which is absent in the TT, the translator may use "foreignization" according to the text.

Keywords: Domestication, Foreignization, Venuti, translation, *Dubliners*

۱. **Introduction**

Many researches have been done in the area of domestication and foreignization. But not much has been written in this domain in an applicable way. There are different types of translation among translation theories. Venuti (۱۹۹٥, pp.۱۹-۲۰) discusses two types of translation that served by the translators: domestication and foreignization. "These strategies concern both the choice of text to translate and the translation method" (Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱٤٦). These strategies are not new in translation studies (ST). However, domestication has been known at least since ancient Rome, and foreignization at least since the Classical and Romantic periods of German culture (Venuti ۱۹۹۸b, p.۲٤۰), but they are still one of the important concepts in TS. Almost all the translators encounter these two aspects in the process of translation and their concern is that how they can find the best equivalent in these situations. But the main question here is whether Persian translator can benefit from the foreignization and domestication. The present paper seeks to see which strategy is more used by the Persian translator in the Persian translation of *Dubliners* (Joys, ۱۹۱٤).

۲. **Venuti's (۱۹۹٥) Domestication (Naturalization, acculturation)**

The term "domestication" and "invisibility" are discussed by Venuti (۱۹۹٥, pp.۱-۲۰). These two words are somehow interrelated. Therefore, before defining "domestication" it is better to be familiar with the concept of "invisibility". What "invisibility" stands for in TS? How it can be applied by

the translator? Whether it is acceptable by all the translators or not? Venuti (۱۹۹۵, p.۱) used the term invisibility "to describe the translator's situation and activity in contemporary Angelo-American culture". In this way the translation will be "fluent", "readable" (Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱٤٦). According to this definition some translators tend to be "invisible" in their translation. It means that they prefer "no trance" of the translation and translator can be found in their translated text. These types of translators try to "domesticate" their translation. As the result, Venuti (۱۹۹۵, p.۲۰) knows domestication as dominating Angelo- American translation culture and he said that domestication involves "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target language cultural values". Domestication also called "naturalization". Therefore, it can be said that:

> Naturalization is a method of translating target cultural concepts embedded in the source text by encoding them in their original target language forms. It is a domestication process which aims to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text to the target reader. It is found that naturalization is a prominent strategy for translating target cultural concepts from the source text, and that its deployment is determined by the relevant target context and the knowledge system of the translator (Jing and He, ۲۰۱۲, p.۵۰).

As we see, "to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text" in naturalization is directly related to domestication. Moreover, Holmes (۱۹۸۸, pp. ٤۷-٤۸) believes that naturalization is a process that the element of the original linguistic context, the literary intertext, or the sociocultural situation is replaced by one which in some way matches or is equivalent in the target context, intertext or situation. On the other hand, Venuti (۱۹۹۵, p. ۲۰) defines domestication as an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target language cultural values. Venuti (۲۰۰۰, p.٤۷۱) says:

…foreign text is rewritten in domestic dialect and discourses, registers and styles, which results in the production of textual effects that signify only in the history of the domestic language and culture.

Based on these definitions we can conclude that both "domestication" and "naturalization" are the same. Domestication can also be described as "non-literal translation", "free translation" and "dynamic translation", etc (Kemppanen, et.al, p. ۹۵). The term "acculturation" also used instead of domestication (Bassnett, ۲۰۰۵). Thus, domestication "means that the foreign elements in the text have been recast into elements that are familiar to the target readers" (Machali, ۲۰۱۲, p.۷۵).

۳. Venuti's (۱۹۹۵) Definition of Foreignization (resistancy, minoritizing, exotisizing, alienating)

Foreignization "entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which are excluded by dominant cultural values in the target language" (Venuti, ۱۹۹۷, p.۲۴۲).The term "cultural values" is emphasized in this definition. It means that in this strategy the culture of the ST is important for the translator. If it is needed the same culture should be transfer in the process of translation. Venuti (۱۹۹۵, p.۲۰) believes that foreignization is "an ethnodeviant pressure on values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad".

According to Yang (۲۰۱۲, p. ۷۷) foreignization "means a target text is produced which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original". Therefore, something of the original text must be clear in this strategy of translation and this is occurs when the translator "moves the reader toward the writer" (Schleiermacher, ۱۹۹۲, pp.۴۱-۴۲). This strategy is preferred by Schleiermacher (Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱۴۷). Based on the aim of the text, in foreignization strategy the translator tries to

give "the same impression" to the reader of the TT. Therefore, the translator adopts "alienating" (Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۲۸) or foreignization strategy. Of course, it should be mentioned that all the factors can be determined based on the type, genre and the aim of the text. Evaluating the text, the translator can identify which strategy is the best. For example, a word may be translated by domestication strategy in a literal text from English to Persian. The same word may be translated by the foreignization strategy or even other strategies of translation (see Hosseini Maasoum and Davtalab, ۲۰۱۱, pp.۱۷۶۷- ۱۷۷۹) in a political or social text by the same translator. Thus, the type of the text is of paramount importance.

It is important to know that different terms are used instead of the word foreignization such as resistancy (Venuti, ۱۹۹۵, p. ۳۰۵-۳۰۶), minoritizing (Venuti, ۱۹۹۸, p.۱۱), exoticizing (Nord, ۱۹۹۱, pp. ۷۰-۷۱) and alienating (Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۲۸). All the mentioned terms are referred to the same concept in TS. Here we try to explain these terms briefly.

According to Nord (۱۹۹۱, pp. ۷۰-۷۱) there are four types of translation. One of them is called "exoticizing translation" that "tends to preserve cultural words (realia) and other features of the source culture, producing an exotic effect on the target text reader". In addition, Suo (۲۰۱۵, p. ۱۸۱) explains that "Foreignizing translation or exoticizing translation means to retain the source culture setting of the story so as to create the impression of strangeness or cultural distance for the target audience".

Venuti (۱۹۹۸, p.۱۱) relates foreignization to "minoritizing". He said that as far as the language is concerned, the minoritizing or foreignizing practice of Venuti's translation comes true in the deliberate inclusion of foreignizing elements to make the translator visible. Of course, Venuti (ibid) mentioned that the meaning of these terms may change by the time and location. Deleuze and Guattari (۱۹۸۷, pp. ۱۰۵-۱۰۶) mentioned that the aim of minoritizing translation is never to acquire the majority, never to erect a new standard or to establish a new canon but rather to promote cultural innovation by

proliferating the variables within English: "The minority is the becoming of everybody".

Venuti's (۱۹۹٦, p.۹۳) preference for minoritizing translation, issues from an ethical stance that recognizes the asymmetrical relations in any translation project. In addition, He (ibid) believes that:

> Good translation is minoritizing: it releases the reminder by cultivating a heterogeneous discourse, opening up the standard dialect and literary canons to what is foreign to themselves, to the substandard and the marginal. This does not mean conceiving of a minor language as merely a dialect, which might wind up regionalizing or ghettoizing the foreign text, identifying it too narrowly with a specific cultural constituency (even though certain foreign texts and domestic conjunctures might well call for a narrow focus.

Venuti (۱۹۸۷, p. ۹۷) added that in minoritizing translation the choice of the strategies depends on the period, genre and style of the foreign text in relation to the domestic literature and the domestic readership for which the translation is written.

"Resistancy" can be also considered as "foreignization". According to Sun (۲۰۱۲, p.٤۲) the translator exercises productive and interpretative leeway either in conformity with, or in resistance of, a given political and cultural preference. Therefore, she (ibid) said that the duty of the translator is shaping the outcome of the translation; the creativity of the translator has been foregrounded to a large extent by translation scholars

٤. A Review of the Discipline

Machali (۲۰۱۲, pp.۷٤-۸۲) in her paper examines how cultural translation is interrelated with the notions of domestication, foreignization and power She also examines translation cases involving Indonesian-English languages in this

interrelation. Her findings showed that when the cultural elements are considered as foreign the translator tends to use the domestication strategy and when the foreign element is related to a known genre the translator choose foreignization strategy.

Amin pour and Dastjerdi (۲۰۱٤, pp.۸۱-۸۷) investigated the ways in which foreign literature has been portrayed in Persian through virtual and hardcopy translations of novels. They considered these two strategies and investigated four English novels along with their Persian virtual and hardcopy translations. They concluded that domestication is the dominant strategy in hardcopy renderings and virtual renderings tend to make use of foreignization strategy.

Davoodi et al (۲۰۱۳, pp.۹٤-۹۹) investigated domestication and foreignization strategies in translation of English-Persian phrasal verbs in news texts. They wanted to know whether English-Persian translators tend to domesticate the news headlines or foreignize them. They analyzed the news containing phrasal verbs. The results showed that English to Persian translators tend to apply the domestication strategy more frequently. They also revealed that "since culture-specific terms and words are difficult to be understood in the target language, the translators mostly tend to localize or domesticate them".

Suo (۲۰۱۰, pp.۱۷٦-۱۸۳) investigated domestication and foreignization strategies in Skopos theory. She (ibid) mentioned that the adequacy of translation should be the translation criterion that the translated text "should be adequate to its Skopos, that is, so long as a translation fulfills its Skopos it is considered as an "adequate" translation regardless of the selected strategy".

Zare's and Firoozkoohi's (۲۰۰۹, pp.۱۵۷٦- ۱۵۸۲) research is about domestication and foreignization in Persian translation of six books of Hemingway in a specific period. They tried to "explore the dominant cultural translation strategy in the dichotomy of domestication and foreignization". The results showed that both domesticating and foreignizing strategies have been used in their considered specific period, but domestication was "the most pervasive cultural translation strategy" in this period.

Schmidt (۲۰۱۳, p.۵۳۷-۵٤۸) in his diachronic study discusses foreignization and domestication in a novel. He compares the three translations in order to see to what extent these strategies are used in the different translations and whether there is a diachronic change. At the end, he concluded that in the corpus of his study foreignization prevails. He also believes that "there seems to be a diachronic change, showing a growing tendency towards more domestication".

۵. Methodology

Doing the present study, the researchers applied descriptive method. First, the book *Dubliners* (Joys, ۱۹۱٤) was read closely by the researchers. After that, some appropriate English sentences were selected across their related Persian translation. Finding and analyzing the instances of domestication and foreignization, the researchers examined the Persian translation of the related samples. Through a descriptive and comparative method, the researchers attempted to describe and interpret the mentioned strategies. It should be mentioned that the present research is a comparative case study of a literal text in English and its related Persian translation on domestication and foreignization translation strategies in TS. The researchers attempted to find out whether the Persian translated samples are more domesticated or foreignized in the samples derived from Persian translation of *Dubliners* (Joys, ۱۹۱٤).

٦. Procedure

In this part we review some samples extracted from *Dubliners* (Joys, ۱۹۱٤) and their Persian translation by Saleh hoseini and Saffaryan (۱۹۹۳). First, we list some examples of foreignization based on above definitions.

۱. ST: The Rev. James Flynn, aged sixty- five years.
جناب قدسی مرتبت جیمز فلین در شصت و پنج سالگی به رحمت ایزدی پیوست.
۲. ST: Near it on plate lay a very light plum-pudding.

کنار آن در بشقاب تکه ای پودینگ آلوی بسیار نرم قرار داشت.

۳. ST: His parents went to eight o'clock mass every morning in Gardiner Street.

هر بامداد پدر و مادر او به مراسم عشای ربانی ساعت هشت در خیابان گاردینر می رفتند.

۴. ST: He had a little library made up of old numbers of the union Jack, Pluck and The Halfpenny Marvel.

کتابخانه ی کوچکی داشت از نسخه های قدیمی مجله های دیونیون جک، پلاک و هاف پنی مارول

۵. ST: She was still the leading soprano in Adam and Eve church.

هنوز خواننده ی سوپرانوی درجه یک کلیسا به حساب می آمد.

۶. ST: After a while they went out and he calls for another punch.

بعد از مدتی آن ها خارج شدند و او گیلاس پانچ دیگری خواست

۷. ST: And finally a contract was drawn up by which Kathleen was to receive eight guineas, for her service.

سر انجام قراردادی بسته شد که به موجب آن کاتلین هشت گینی دریافت کرد.

۸. ST: Villona played a waltz for Farley

ویلونا آهنگ والسی برای فارلی نواخت

۹. ST: The general of the Jesuits stands next to the pope.

ژنرال یسوعی ها مقامی بعد از پاپ دارد

۱۰.ST: Paid her fees at the royal academy of music.

شهریه ی او را در آکادمی سلطنتی موسیقی پرداخت.

۱۱.ST: He had sent his son to England to be educated in a big catholic college.

پسرش را به انگلستان فرستاده بود تا در کالج کاتولیکی بزرگ درس بخواند

۱۲.ST: He emerged from under the feudal arch of the king's Inns.

با اندامی تمیز و فروتن از زیر رواق فئودالی کینگزاینز بیرون آمد.

۱۳.ST: Mr. kernan came of protestant stock.

آقای کرنال از پیروان آئین پروتستان بود.

۱۴.ST: In the Sacred College, you know, of cardinals and against it ops and bishops there were two men who held out against it.

در حوزه ی علمیه مقدس کاردینال ها و سر اسقف ها و اسقف ها دو نفر مخالف آن بودند

۱۵.ST: The maynooth catechism, sewn into the cloth cover of a notebook.

کتاب شرعیات مای نوث در جلد پارچه ای دوخته شده بود

۱٦. ST: like the word gnomon in the Eucilid and the word simony in the Catechism.

مثل کلمه ی نومون در هندسه ی اقلیدسی و کلمه ی «شمعونی» در شرعیات

Here, there are some samples of domestication translation strategy from the book *Dubliner* (Joys, ۱۹۱٤).

۱. ST: Farley acts as cavalier.

فارلی نقش شوالیه را بر عهده گرفت.

۲. ST: A companion dish on which lay a solid rectangle of Smyrna figs, a dish of custard topped with grated nutmeg.

یک ظرف فرنی با رویه ای از جوز هندی سوده آنجا بود.

۳. ST: He revealed many of the secrets of religious houses on the continent.

بسیاری از اسرار اماکن مذهبی اروپا را فاش کرد.

٤. ST: Ignatius Gallaher made a catholic gesture whit his right arm

ایگناتیوس گالاهر با دست راست به خود صلیب کشید.

۵. ST: He was now safe in the dark snug of O'Neill's shop.

اکنون در گوشه ی دنج میخانه اونیا در امان بود

۶. ST: He knew that people went there after the theatre to eat oysters and drink liqueurs.

می دانست مردم بعد از تئاتر به آنجا می روند تا غذای خرچنگ بخورند و مشروب بیاشامند

۷. ST: My aunt was lading out my stirabout.

زن عمویم داشت شوربای مرا با ملاقه می کشید

۸. ST: But there he was, sitting up by himself in the dark in his confession-box.

تنها در تاریکی اتاقک اعتراف نشسته بود.

۹. ST: In the Sacred College, you know, of cardinals and against it ops and bishops there were two men who held out against it.

در حوزه ی علمیه مقدس کاردینال ها و سر اسقف ها و اسقف ها دو نفر مخالف آن بودند

۱۰. ST: One of the side tables were four very big barmbracks.

روی یکی از میزهای کناری چهار کیک کشمشی قرار داشت

11.ST: …talking of faints and worms, ...

از ارواح خبیثه و کرم ها حرف می زد

12.ST: As he stood in the hall giving a last equation to the bows of his dress tie.

او همچنان که در سرسرا ایستاده بود آخرین دست را به پاپیونش می کشید.

13.ST: Mrs. Kearney wrapped the cloak round her daughter.

خانم کرنی بالاپوش را بر دوش دخترش انداخت.

14.ST: One the glass of the window were two flying inscriptions: ginger beer and ginger ale.

روی شیشه مغازه دو نوشته به چشم می خورد: آبجو زنجبیلی،لیموناد زنجبیلی.

15.ST: Bring me a plate of peas," he said," and a bottle of ginger beer.

لنه هان گفت: یک ظرف نخود فرنگی و یک بطری آبجو برایم بیاور.

16.ST: After a while they went out and he calls for another punch.

زن عمویم داشت شوربای مرا با ملاقه می کشید.

17.ST: He felt his great body again aching for the comfort of the public-house.

وی باز احساس کرد که بدن بزرگش آسایش میکده را می طلبد.

18.ST: He had been employed for thirteen years in a great catholic wine-merchant's office.

در دفتر یک تاجر شراب کاتولیک کار میکرد.

19.ST: My aunt was lading out my stirabout.

بعد از مدتی آن ها خارج شدند و او گیلاس پانچ دیگری خواست.

20.ST: They drank however it is bohemian.

مشروب هم نوشیدند هرچند که بوهمی بود.

21.ST: There would be a retreat that week in her convent.

این هفته در صومعه مجلس ذکر و عبادت داریم.

22.ST: It was his own fault for he frequently mistook his cards.

تقصیر خودش بود چون اغلب ورق هایش را عوضی میگرفت.

23.ST: Artistes from the music halls

گاه نیز هنرمندانی از تالار موسیقی تشکیل می شد.

24.ST: There would be a retreat that week in her convent.

این هفته در صومعه مجلس ذکر و عبادت داریم.

۲۵.ST: We have renewed our baptismal vows.

پیمان های مراسم تعمیدمان را تکرار کنیم.

۲٦.ST: He attended to his religious duties.

هنوز هم هر هفته تکالیف مذهبی اش را انجام می داد.

۲۷.ST: Remembering that the next morning was a mass morning.

با یادآوری اینکه بامداد رز بعد بامداد روز عشاء ربانی است.

۲۸.ST: She could believe also in the banshee and in the holy ghost.

اگر پیش می آمد به بانشی و روح مقدس هم معتقد بود.

۲۹.ST: I haven't such a bad opinion of the Jesuits.

من نظر بدی نسبت به یسوعی ها ندارم.

۳۰.ST: As the most generally useful of all catholic devotions.

آن را از دیگر پرستش های آیین کاتولیک مفیدتر می دانست.

۳۱.ST: He emerged from under the feudal arch of the king's Inns.

با اندامی تمیز و فروتن از زیر رواق فئودالی کینگزاینز بیرون آمد.

۳۲.ST: Ignatius Gallaher made a catholic gesture whit his right arm.

ایگناتیوس گالاهر با دست راست به خود صلیب کشید.

۷. Conclusion

Domestication and foreignization are the strategies applied by all the translators. Each translator may use either domestication or foreignization in the process of translation. In this study, the researchers considered some samples of the book *Dubliners* (Joys, ۱۹۱٤) along with its related Persian translation to see which strategy is more used by the translators of the book for the words. The results showed that both strategies are used by the Persian translators, but the use of domestication is more than foreignization in the selected corpus. It reveals that the translators tend to render the English words in a way which is familiar for the reader. Therefore, they have used domestication instead of foreinization in most of the cases. According to Yang (۲۰۱۰, p.۷۰) domesticating translation is easier for the readers to understand and accept.

The cases that are translated by foreignization strategy may relate to the culture of the received language. It means that there is an item in the source

text (ST) which is absent in the TT, the translator may use "foreignization" according to the text. However, we should consider that domestication and foreignization are two total strategies in the process of translation and there is a blank space between them that we called it "neutral translation" (Kemppanen, et al. ۲۰۱۲, p. ۱٤٤). Many sentences also were translated in this way.

Anyway, this is the text which determines the appropriate strategy for the translation and this is the translator who should determine the best way for transferring form and meaning.

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The use of reading comprehension strategies by advanced EFL learners

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Abstract

The purpose of this was study was to investigate the use of reading comprehension strategies by a group of advanced EFL learners. A quick placement test (version ۲) was administered to ۵۰ EFL learners to achieve this goal. Based on the scores, a group of ۲۰ EFL learners where selected. The reading comprehension strategy questionnaire (version ۳), was administered to the selected group after a process of translation and modification of redundant items. The result, analyzed by the SPSS software, indicated that EFL advanced learners use the selected reading comprehension items.
Key words: reading comprehension strategies, advanced EFL learners.

Introduction:

In the teaching and learning of English as a Second Language (ESL) or Foreign Language (FL), the achievement of the four language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking are measured important. However, reading is by far one of the most important skills for many second language (L۲) students (Carrell, ۱۹۹۸; Eskey, ۱۹۷۳) particularly for the university students. This is because reading is highly interrelated with the educational process in that the success of learning at the tertiary level banks upon the students' ability to read written language with a relatively good comprehension (Dechant & Smith, ۱۹۷۷).

Saudi Researches have shown that students reading comprehension is beneath the desired level and that they lack the knowledge and application of effective reading strategies. (Matar, ۱۹۹۰; AlSamadani, ۲۰۰۸). In a study conducted by Al-Arfaj, results revealed that students lack self confidence in themselves as readers (Al-Arfaj, ۱۹۹۶).

Good comprehenders are self- managed readers who have their own strategies that they employ before, during and after reading while poor comprehenders are not Good readers employ a variety of reading strategies that help them to understand… they predict, ask questions, look for the author main interest, and make use of hints and clues in the text . Poor Comprehenders on the other hand do not, they merely start at the top of the page and read all the way to the bottom without stopping or thinking very much about why or what they are reading (Khanji, ۲۰۰۱; Duke and Pearson ۲۰۰۲; Greenday, ۲۰۰۷; Yin, ۲۰۰۲).

A great deal of educational research was conducted to investigate and list reading comprehension strategies which are commonly used among successful readers .The results of these descriptive studies were utilized by empirical educators who investigated the probability of training poor comprehenders in using these strategies to enhance their reading performance .Results of empirical studies revealed that instructing poor readers the strategies of good readers can improve their reading.(Eilers and Pinkley, ۲۰۰۶; Butler, ۲۰۰۷).

When teaching writing, students are usually instructed how to use strategies for identifying and summarizing main ideas, asking questions about texts, inferring. For example, strategies like About/Point (Morgan, Meeks, Schollaert, & Paul, ۱۹۸٦) helps students distinguish between main ideas and supporting details. Graphic Organizers aids students in reading comprehension by providing a tool for organizing information and making connections across the curriculum, aiding in reading comprehension (Cromley, ۲۰۰٥).

Since the late ۱۹۷۰s, many ۱۲ learning theorists have advocated teaching students to use a variety of reading strategies or skills in other to read better.

As implicitly defined by these specialists, reading strategies are the mental operations involved when readers approach a text effectively and make sense of what they read. these problem-solving techniques include guessing word meaning from context and evaluating those guesses, recognizing cognates and word families, skimming, scanning, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting details.

Methodology:

To discern the usefulness of individual strategies and reader perception of strategy use, it is best to examine each strategy separately; to compare strategy efficacy, we must use similar research design in each study .To investigate the use of reading comprehension strategies by advanced EFL learners, the reading comprehension strategy questionnaire (version ۳), was administered to a group of EFL learners in MA who are studying in Mashhad universities, after a process of translation and modification of redundant items (appendix A). It should be added that the students were selected according to their mean of final exam results.

The subjects were ۲۰ sixth-semester English students who have been selected from a group of ۵۰ English students according to the result of their scores in previous semesters.

The questionnaire was in English since it was definite that the students under stood the choices and possibilities within each question appeared in scrambled order so that no correct sequence of choice would be implied.

During the experiment, students were given ten minute to choose the one strategy in each situation that best described their reading habits, and they were asked to answer all questions.

Data analysis

Each student's perceived-use score is the total number of generally accepted strategies he/she uses when reading (possible range ۰-۱۷).

In one analysis, all strategies received equal weight (unweighted scores). Another analysis was conducted to determine any specific impact of those strategies pertaining to reading through context (۱, ۶, ۷, ۱٤, ۱۷ in Appendix A); in this case, such strategies were weighted twice as much as strategies not related to considering context while reading.

The factor of two was chosen in order to increase the perceived-use score of students who think they use context-related strategies without eclipsing the impact of strategies in general.

In two-factor analysis of variance, the dependent variable was comprehension scores and the independent variables were strategy-use and perceived-use scores (both weighted and unweighted).

Result

The actual strategy-use scores, which has been analyze by the use of SPSS software, is ۷۳٫٦٪.

The score reveals this conclusion that more than ۷۰٪ of advanced foreign EFL learners actually use selected reading comprehension strategies.

This experiment is an early look at the use of reading comprehension strategies by advanced EFL language learners, which can be a commencement for other researchers to investigate the impact of these reading strategies on EFL learners. This result also helps teachers in giving importance to such strategies in order to seek better results in reading courses.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire to Elicit Perceived Strategy Use

What do you do when you read?

Please complete each statement according to what you do as you read in English; *your gut reaction to each question is best you can give.*

Mark on your red and white answer sheet the letter of the answer that best describes how you read.

Thanks very much of your help!

۱. When I read, I pay most attention to

a. What individual words mean.

b. What the reading passage means.

c. What the form or grammatical function of the words are.

d. What the structure of the passage is.

۲. When I read English, I

a. Read the whole passage once and then reread it.

b. Read part of the passage, then reread that part before going on.

c. Reread only the difficult sections.

d. Read straight through or reread, depending on the passage.

۳. I read an English reading passage because

a. I find the topic interesting or I want to find out how the story ends.

b. I have questions to answer about it.

c. It has been assigned.

d. I want to find out what the author has to say.

٤. When I begin reading an English passage, I

a. Don't usually consider how it relates to what I already know.

b. Think about what I know about about the topic or source of the passage.

c. Think about what I know about the author's style or point of view.

d. Simply begin reading the text itself.

۵.I read different English passages

a. The same way because English passages are usually difficult.

b. The same way because they're in English.

c. Differently depending on what I need to learn from them.

d. Differently depending on what kind of passages they are.

٦. When I read in English, I find that I hypothesize about what might come next

a. often

b. sometimes

c. hardly ever

d. never

٧. when I read in English, I

a. Can't tell what the structure of the reading passage is.

b. Expect certain things because of the reading passage structure.

c. Read each paragraph by itself.

d. Look for a logical structure.

٨. When an English reading passage has a title, I

a. Read the title but don't consider it s I read the passage.

b. Read it first and imagine what the passage might be about.

c. Think about what I already know and how it might relate to the title.

d. Read the title but don't think much about it.

۹. When an English reading passage has illustrations with it, I

a. Imagine what the reading passage might be about, considering what the illustrations are.

b. Look at the illustrations without relating them to the reading passage.

c. Look at the illustrations but don't think much about them.

d. Expect the reading passage to reflect what is in the illustrations.

۱۰. When I read in English, I think that

a. All the words are important.

b. I can skip some words and still understand.

c. I don't know which words I can skip.

d. It's a mistake to skip any words.

۱۱. When I read in English, I

a. Feel uneasy ifI don't know what most of words mean.

b. Look up most of the words I don't know.

c. Want to know exactly what is in the passage.

d. Am willing to guess what some words mean.

۱۲. If I come to a word I don't know, I

a. Skip the word and come back to it later.

b. Guess what the word might mean and go on.

C. Guess what the word might mean and reread the sentence.

d. Look the word up in a glossary or dictionary and reread the sentence.

۱۳. If a paragraph contains several words I don't know, I

a. Guess what they all mean.

b.Look up the one's that seem most important and guess the others.

c. Look them all up in a glossary or dictionary.

d. Skip that paragraph.

۱٤. To figure out what an unfamiliar word might mean, I

a. Consider what the rest of the sentence or paragraph says.

b. Note whether the word looks like a Persian or other English word I know.

c. Analyze the grammatical form of the word.

d. Consider any illustrations.

۱٥. When I figure out what new words mean, I find that my guesses are

a. usually correct.

b. ometimes correct.

c. usually incorrect.

d. untrustworthy.

۱٦. When an unfamiliar word looks like a Persian word or other English word, I

a. Assume the unfamiliar word means the same thing as the similar word.

b. Consider whether the unfamiliar word may mean the same thing as the similar word.

c. Consider how the two words might relate to each other.

d. Rarely see that type of similarity.

۱۷. When I read in English, I

a. Am often confused by what I read.

b. Expect to be confused by what I'm reading.

c. Don't often make much sense of what I read.

d. Expect what I read to make sense.

Linguistics and Translation Studies: Imposing Linguistic, Cultural and Ideological norms in the Translation of Literary Texts

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Abstract

Linguistics, translation studies and literature have always been hand in hand. In translation of literary texts, a translator needs to be familiar with linguistic domains and its different areas. In the process of translation, the translator should also be familiar with the limitations of the target language as well. Although some changes will naturally happen when translating from a source text to a target language, it is also seen that the process moves to a bigger level of manipulating the translation. 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". The theoretical framework for this study is based on Lambert and van Gorp. The methodology of this article is also based on the four steps as Lambert and van Gorp suggest. The corpus of this study consists of selected novels in English by Milan Kundera, and their Persian translations. The results of the study show that the dominant type of manipulation strategy applied by the translator was deletion which is the most severe manipulation strategy among others. The subjects being manipulated in the examined corpus were cultural subjects including moral issues, ideological and cultural mismatches between the two languages.

Keywords: Novel, Conscious Manipulation, Unconscious Manipulation, Cultural norms, Ideology

۱. Introduction

It has always been necessary for necessary for a translator to master both source and target languages. knowing a language in itself, 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 (۱۹۹٦) 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. ٦)

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, ۲۰۰۷, p.۷).

Polysystem theory which was first developed in the ۱۹۷۰s 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, ۲۰۰٤, pp.۱٦۲-۱٦۳) 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,۲۰۰۱, p.۱۱۱). Toury (as cited in Munday, ۲۰۰۱) 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.۱۱۲). So Toury (as cited in Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱۱۲) 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 (۱۹۹۹) 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. ۱۵۶)

۲. 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. A translated text may also reproduce 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.

۲٫۱ Research Questions

Q۱: Does manipulation occur in selected translations?

Q۲: In which level manipulative shifts mostly have been made?

Q۳: What are the different strategies and norms applied by various translators?

۲٫۲ Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework of this study is based on Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, ۲۰۰۱) scheme presented in a paper called '*On describing translations*' in ۱۹۸۵. 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, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱۲۰).

 In this model selected pieces of literature are examined in four steps as Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱۲۰) suggest:

۱. **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 ۲ and ۳.

۲. **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 ۳).

۳. **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 ۲) and lead to their 'consideration in terms of the broader systemic context'.

٤. **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 (۱۳۸۳(۲۰۰٤)) 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.

۲٫۳ Data Collection

The corpus of this study consists of four books, two English novels and their Persian translations. So the total number of pages equals to ٤٥۰ English pages and ٦۳۰ Persian pages. The source texts are English versions of two novels by Milan Kundera, *Slowness* and *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*.

With regard to Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday,۲۰۰۱) 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.

۲٫۳٫۱ Preliminary Data

As Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱۲۰) 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.

۲٫۳٫۲ 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 *Slowness* is 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 other book, *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* is translated directly from French into Persian.

The fact that the books are translations, is not mentioned in the Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*. 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.

۲٫۳٫۳ 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 (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵)) 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 ۳۰ years. But what is important for the researcher is what Farzad quotes from one of his intellectual friends. (Kabir as cited in Jahed, ۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰٤), pp.۱۵-۱٦):

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 Unbearable Lightness of Being

The Persian Translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* translated by Homayounpour (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵)) 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 (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵), p.۸) 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. Then he analyzes story's 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 (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵), p. ۱۳) 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 (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵), p.۱۵) 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 (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵), p.۱۵) 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.

۳. 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.

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.

۳٫۱ Macro-level

As Lambert and van Gorp (as cited in Munday, ۲۰۰۱, p.۱۲۰) suggests, this section looks at questions like the division of the chapters, titles of the texts and also any overt authorial comments.

۳٫۱٫۱ Titles

The Persian title of *Slowness* (آهستگی) reflects 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 ((۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵), p.۱۵), 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)

۳٫۱٫۲ Presentation of Chapters

The division of chapters in the two translations of *Slowness* and *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* are the same as English texts.

However in Persian translation of *Slowness* the numbers of chapters are different from English text from chapter ۲۸ 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 ۵۱ chapters, the Persian translation includes only ٤٤.

۳٬۱٬۳ 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 ۱.Instance is taken form translation of Slowness

English Version	Persian version
Revolt against the human condition we did not choose (p. ۷۹)	شورش بر علیه شرایطی که انسان آن را برنگزیده است. (۱۰۱)

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 ۲.Instance is taken form translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English Version	Persian version
They can make it hard for anybody... (p.۱٤)	با کی تسویه حساب نمی کنند؟ (۵٦)

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 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.

۳٫۲ 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, ۲۰۰۱)

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 M.A thesis.

In this step, first gathered data are categorized based on Zauberga (as cited in Dukāte, ۲۰۰۷) typology of ideological manipulation.

Then manipulated subjects are divided into three groups based on Nitsa's (۲۰۰۰) definition of ideological manipulation.

۳.۲٫۱ Manipulation Strategies

According to Zauberga (as cited in Dukāte, ۲۰۰۷, p. ٥٤) ideological manipulation can take the following forms:

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

۳٫۲٫۲ 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 ۱٥۹ cases of deletion, ٥٥ cases were found in Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*, ٥٤ cases in Persian translation of *Slowness*.

Instances:
Table ۳.Case of Deletion in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version
Chapter ۳٤(pp. ۱۱٥-۱۲۰)	- (۱۲۹)

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 ٤.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. ۱۹)	کارنین در بغل او پرید و لحظهٔ دیدار را آسان ساخت. (۶٥)

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.

۳٫۲٫۳ 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 ۱۲۶ out of ۳٤۳ cases of substitution were found in the corpus. Among them Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness Being,* had the most frequency with ٥۱ cases of substitution and Persian translation of *Slowness* included ٤۹ cases of substitution.

Instances:

Table ٥.Case of Substitution in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version
Two other whiskies (p.۸٤)	دو لیوان دیگر(۱۰٤)

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 ٦.Case of Substitution in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	Persian version
…and her soul lay somewhere at the level of the stomach or pancreas (p. ۲۳)	(.۷٦)... و روح در درونش خفته بود.)

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.

٣,٢.٤ 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 ۳٤۳cases of manipulation, ٦ cases were addition which ٥ of them belonged to Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* and ۱ to Persian translation of *Slowness*

Instances:

Table ۷.Case of Addition in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version
I don't give a damn what you detest!	دیگر اهمیت نمی دهم که چه هستی! تو یک زن

(p.۱۱۰)	**بی عاطفه هستی! (۱۲٤)**

   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 ۸.Case of Addition in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	**Persian version**
A mass happened to be in progress (p. ۵۷)	**همان وقت به یاد فدا شدن خون و تن عیسی مسیح دعا می خواندند. (۱۳۹)**

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.

۳٫۲٫٥ 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 ۳٤۳ cases of manipulation, ٥۲ cases of attenuation were found. The Persian translation of *Slowness* had ۲۱ cases of attenuation and Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* had ۱٦ cases.

Instances:
Table ۹.Case of Attenuation in translation of Slowness

English version	**Persian version**
Mistress (p.۱۰٤)	**خواهان (۱۱۸)**

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 ١٠.Case of Attenuation in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	Persian version
Between the whores' world and God's world (p. ٥٦)	میان دنیاي روسپي ها و جهان کلیسا (۱۳۸)

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.

figure ١: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of Slowness
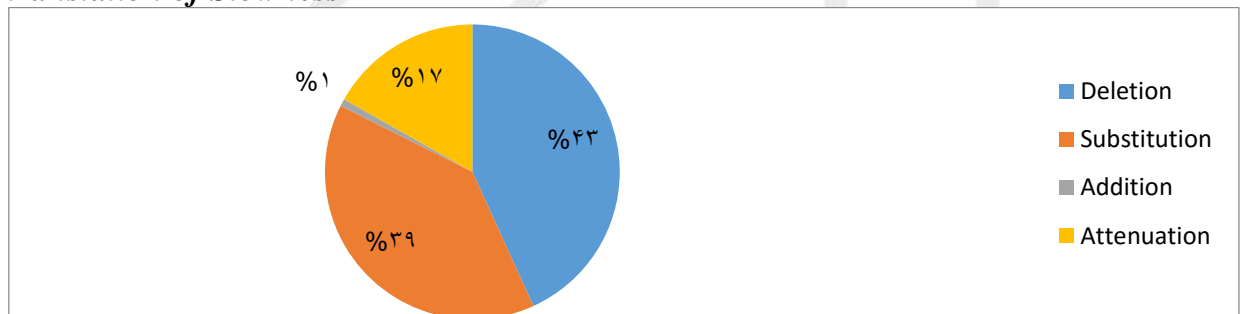
The total number of manipulation strategies in Persian translation of *Slowness* translated by Hamideh Jahed (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵)) was ۱۲۵ cases. Among them ٥٤ cases (٤٣٪) were deletion, ٤٩ cases (۳۹٪) were substitution, ۲۱ cases (۱۷٪) were attenuation and only one case (۱٪) was addition. As it is obvious from 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.

figure ۲: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being
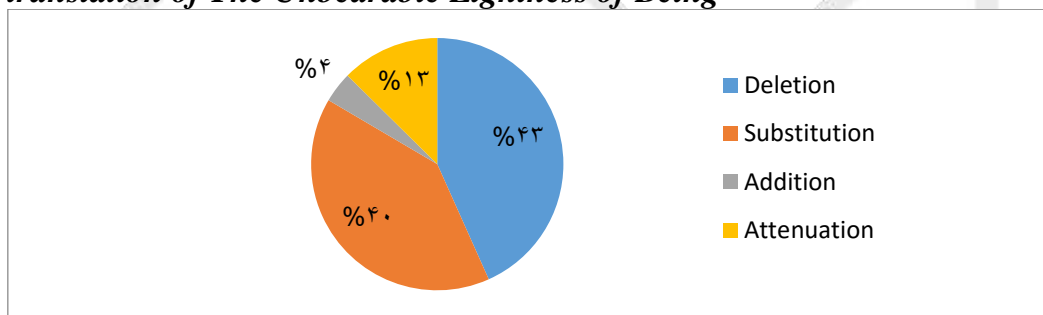
The Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*, which was done by Parviz Homayonpour (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵)), is the translation with the most (۱۲۷) cases of manipulation. It contained ۵۵ cases (٤۳٪) of deletion, which is again the most frequent manipulation strategy in this translation. There were also a number of ۵۱ cases (٤۰٪) of substitution, ۱٦ cases (۱۳٪) of attenuation and ۵ cases (٤٪) of addition. This book has the most cases of addition (۵ cases) compared to other examined translations which had (۲ cases) and (۰ case).

٤. Manipulated Subjects

According to Nitsa (۲۰۰۰, p.٤۳) 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.

٤٫۱ 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 ۳٤۳ cases of manipulation, ۳۰۰ cases were cultural subjects which ۱۰۷ of them belonged

to Persian translation of *Slowness* and ۱۰٤ of them to Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*.

Instances:
Table ۱۱.Manipulation of cultural subjects in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version
Chapter ۲۸ (pp. ۹۵-۹۷)	(۱۱۵ (-

As it is clear from this example, chapter ۲۸ is totally omitted from Persian translation due to abundant moral excuses.

Table ۱۲.Manipulation of cultural subjects in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

English version	Persian version
You used to say you wanted to sleep with me .(p. ۳۸)	تو مي خواستي با من باشي.(۱۰۲)

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'.

٤،٢ 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 ۳٤ cases of manipulation of religious subjects were found in examined corpus. The Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* had ۱۸ cases and Persian translation of *Slowness* consisted of ۱٤ cases.

Instances:
Table ۱۳.Manipulation of religious subjects in translation of Slowness

English version	Persian version

آخرین معشوق او با سایرین متفاوت است. (۷۱)	The latest of her lovers is particularly worshipful. (p.۵۲)

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 ۱۴.Manipulation of religious subjects in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being

Persian version	English version
چیزي که ناگهان در کلیسا با آن مواجه شد، نوعي زیبایي بود. (۱۴۰)	What she had unexpectedly met there in the village church was not God; it was beauty. (p. ۵۷)

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

۳٫٤ 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 ۳٤۳ cases of manipulation, ۹ cases were political. ٤ of them belonged to Persian translation of *Slowness*. Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* included ۵ cases of manipulation of political subjects.

Instances:
Table ۱۵.Manipulation of political subjects in translation of Slowness

Persian version	English version
صاحب منصب اروتیکالیسم (۲۰)	Apparatchik of Eroticism (p.۲)

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, ۱۹۹۰, p.٦٥). But it is translated as **صاحب منصب** (official) which is a neutral word.

Table ۱٦.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. ۳٤)	**...، دانشجویان در حال اعتصاب بسر مي بردند. (ص ۹٤)**

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.

figure ٤: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of Slowness
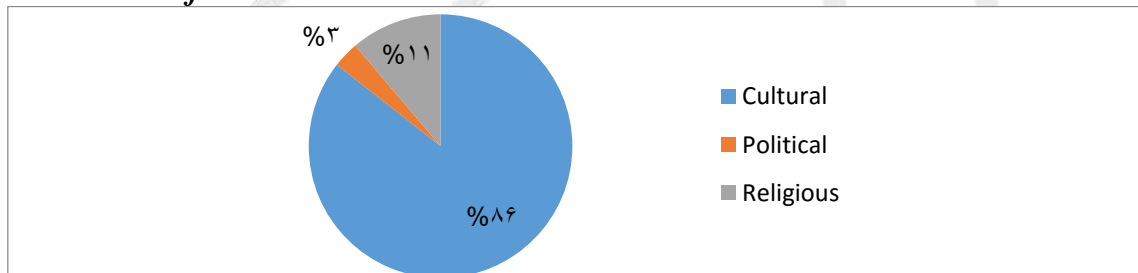
The total number of manipulation of cultural, political and religious subjects in Persian translation of *Slowness* by Hamideh Jahed (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰٥)) was ۱۲٥ cases. As it is clear from the chart, ۸٦ % of these manipulations applied for cultural subjects, which are ۱۰۷ out of ۱۲٥ cases. The number of manipulation within the religious subjects in this translation was ۱٤ cases (۱۱٪) and this number for political subjects is ٤ cases which is only ۳٪ of the whole manipulation.

figure ۵: Frequency of different types of manipulation strategies in translation of The Unbearable Lightness of Being
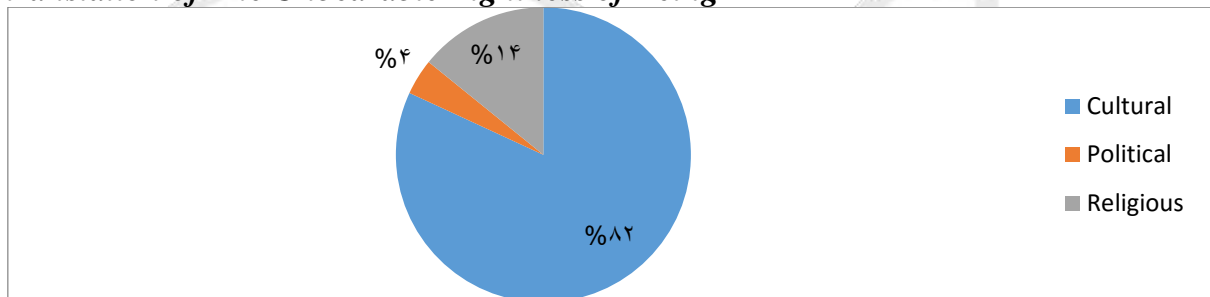
In the above chart again, the most portion related to cultural subjects. Of the total ۱۲۷ cases of manipulation in Persian translation of *The Unbearable Lightness of Being* translated by Parviz Homayonpour (۱۳۸٤(۲۰۰۵)), ۱۸ cases (۱٤٪) belong to manipulation of religious subjects, ۵ cases (٤٪) were within the political subjects and the remained ۱۰٤ case (۸۲٪) were manipulation of cultural subjects.

۵. Discussion and conclusion

Persian translations' title pages, introductions and prefaces were examined. The results show 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 led 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 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.

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

۱. Based on gathered information from examined books, it was proved that all the translations have gone under some degrees of manipulation.

۲. 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.

۳. The dominant type of manipulation strategy applied by all the translators was deletion which is the most severe manipulation strategy among others.

٤. The most subjects being manipulated in examined corpus were cultural subjects including moral issues and cultural mismatches between two languages.

٥. Generally speaking, in all translations the same norm was at work. The 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.

٦. 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 that, 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 seven complete chapters

comparing to English text and consequently chapter numbers of English and Persian texts were different from chapter ۲۸ 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 ۳٤۳ cases of manipulation were found. These cases were categorized based on types of manipulation strategies and manipulated subjects.

The most frequently manipulated strategy applied by the translators is deletion.

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.

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.

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On the Effect of Employing Mobile Apps on Iranian Upper-Intermediate EFL learners' Vocabulary Achievement

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Abstract

The current study aims at investigating the effect of Viber, the creative idea of the researcher, as an innovative technique of language Learning, on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' effective learning of vocabulary. The participants consisted of ٥٠ upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners in ٢ groups of Experimental and Control. The researchers used a quasi-experimental design with a pretest- treatment-posttest sequence. Having compared the mean scores and the independent sample and paired sample t-test, the researcher found that there is a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest of Experimental and control group. Therefore, viber, as an innovative technique of language learning, has a significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' effective learning of vocabulary; in addition, it helps students to enjoy and develop a positive attitude towards learning. As an implication of this study, viber as an educational tool, the creative idea of the researcher, is introduced as an innovative technique in language Learning which proved to be significantly effective in developing a positive attitude in learners towards learning, boosting effective learning and autonomy.

Keywords: Viber, language Learning, Effective Learning, Innovative technique, ocabulary, Autonomy, Attitude

Introduction

Over the years learning new language has been considered synonymous with learning vocabularies of that language. Many scholars don't think so but it shows the importance of vocabulary as an integral part of learning a new language. Laufer (۱۹۹۸) and Nation (۲۰۰٦) estimated that a learner of English should know at least ٥۰۰۰ lexical items in order to understand nontechnical English texts. It seems a daunting task. Limited class hours don't let students learn and practice these whole ranges of vocabularies and poses some problems for teachers and learners. One way to overcome this problem is for the teachers to teach the vocabularies explicitly in the classroom and according to Nation (۲۰۰٥) it's an important part of a well-established vocabulary program. However, memorizing and learning large number of vocabulary items is a frustrating task in the eyes of the learners. Rivers (۱۹۸٤) believes that vocabulary should be presented, explained and demonstrated for the students along with the other tasks and activities. He claims that individuals differ in their capacity and ability to learn new vocabularies and they should approach this task from different perspectives. According to cook (۱۹۹۱), the problem of vocabulary learning is not just learning new words but finding the ways to memorize and remember them. Bahrick (۱۹۸٤) as cook (۱۹۹۱) quotes him, declare that remembering something in our mind depends on how we process it. He claims that putting words in the context and remembering them based on that context will greatly improve the process of learning new vocabulary.

For these purposes, researchers have been urged to find alternative ways to the traditional vocabulary classroom and make the vocabulary learning a life-long process for the students. One of the most important ways for the effective teaching of vocabulary is the incorporation of technology into the language classroom. According to Prensky (۲۰۰٥), among the important technologies available for the students in the language classroom, mobile phone plays a

very important role. They are user-friendly devices with lots of applications helpful for the process of learning a foreign language. O'Malley et al. (۲۰۰۳) consider mobile learning as the learning that is not in a fixed state and can take place at any time and in any place, and so extends language learning outside the walls of the classroom. Klopfer et al. (۲۰۰۲) identified the following properties of mobile learning: ۱) connectivity: it's possible to connect mobile devices to each other or to connect them to an established network, ۲) social interactivity: mobile phones enable us to exchange data and collaborate with other learners, ۳) context sensitivity: the data on the mobile devices can be gathered and responded uniquely to the current location and time, ٤) portability: mobile phone are easily handled and are available anywhere and anytime, and ٥) individuality: mobile phones can be easily customized for a particular person. Using mobile phones in the language classroom introduced a new concept in teaching languages that is Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). Over the past decade, MALL has developed into a sophisticated field within its own right and a large number of articles have examined different mobile devices within various environments. Kukulska-Hulme (۲۰۱۳, p. ۳۷۰۱) defines MALL as the use of "mobile technologies in language learning, especially in situations where device portability offers specific advantages". According to him, Mobile learning consists of the use of any portable learning materials including portable radios, cell phones, audio cassettes, DVD players and audio CDs. Though a young field, some ٥٧٥ works regarding Mobile Assisted Language Learning have been published over the past two decades. These related works include considerations of technical specifications, mobile device ownership, pedagogical design, learning theory, user attitudes, motivational effects, institutional infrastructure, and teacher training (Burston, ۲۰۱۳). Nevertheless, the major purpose of the present quasi-experimental study is to explore the effects of using mobile-apps on development of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge and autonomy. Deci and Vansteenkiste (۲۰۰٤) consider that autonomy as one of the main requirements for L_2 learners in achieving a sense of self-fulfillment. In fact, L_2 learners are autonomous when they are quite willing to do an activity. According to Paiva (۲۰۰٦), autonomy is a sociocognitive system which has close associations with the L_2 learning

system. For the purposes of this study, the following research questions are proposed:

Q۱: Does employment of mobile-app have any significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary achievement?

Review of literature

In the early ۱۹۸۰s, there was stark condemnation of the negligence of vocabulary research (Meara ۱۹۸۰; ۱۹۸٤). Despite little devotion to research, the prominence of vocabulary was not completely disregarded in language pedagogy, even during the peaks of growth of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). For example, Wilkins (۱۹۷۲; ۱۹۷٤), as an early representative advocate of the Communicative Approach, obviously suggested that learning vocabulary is as vital as learning grammar. He considers that near native speaking levels can be illustrated by whether learners can use, say, collocations well. Without such skill, even if there are no grammatical errors, consumers cannot be considered as native speakers.

Allen (۱۹۸۳, p. ٥) also highlighted that "lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words". This underscores the position of vocabulary in classroom instruction, as minus vocabulary, it is tough to connect to the others. However, at that time precedence to instruction was given to the notional and functional features of language that were whispered to benefit learners attain communicative competence in a straight line, thus the instruction of vocabulary was much less straightly stressed in many ELT classrooms. But definite consideration was given to the standing of assimilating it in a general agenda of foreign language teaching (Ostyn & Godin, ۱۹۸٥).

Read (۲۰۰٤) noted that in studies on L۲ vocabulary learning, a distinction had long been made between incidental and intentional learning, with the main focus on the former, especially exploring the extent to which students can learn vocabulary items incidentally while engaging in other language-learning activities.

With regard to vocabulary retention, Hulstijn (۱۹۹۲) demonstrated that target vocabulary items were retained significantly longer when their meanings were correctly inferred than when explained by their synonyms. Joe (۱۹۹٥) argued that the retention of unfamiliar words was significantly facilitated when students engaged in a text-based task that demanded a higher level of generativity. Similarly, Hulstijn and Laufer (۲۰۰۱) demonstrated that EFL students who participated in a composition task could retain target words better than those engaged in a reading comprehension or fill-in task, which suggests that students who were involved in higher levels of vocabulary production-processing remembered target words better than those who were not. Plass, Chun, Mayer, and Leutner (۱۹۹۸) stated that students remembered unknown words better when provided with both pictorial and written annotations than when provided with only one kind or no annotation.

Considerable research has recently been conducted into the effectiveness of vocabulary teaching and learning through various activities or tasks. Lee and Muncie (۲۰۰٦) showed that a post-reading composition task helped ESL students improve the productive use of higher-level target vocabulary. Newton (۱۹۹٥) pointed out that students made more vocabulary gains when engaging in communicative tasks that demanded interactions than when negotiating word meanings explicitly. Wesche and Paribakht (۲۰۰۰) demonstrated that students learned vocabulary more effectively when they engaged in text-based vocabulary exercises in addition to reading a text than when they read multiple texts without exercises, because in the latter case, they could learn not only target words, but also their lexical features. Further, Folse (۲۰۰٦) suggested that how frequently students retrieved unfamiliar words influenced their retention more than how deeply they were involved in processing them, which demonstrates that students could improve their retention of new target words more while engaging in multiple fill-in-theblank exercises than while writing one original sentence with each target word. Finally, Nassaji (۲۰۰۳) suggested that ESL students might grope ineffectively for lexical inferences about word meanings from context, so that teachers should provide them with a chance to identify and define exact meanings for unknown words.

Several studies have been done in the area of extensive reading and vocabulary development. Nishino (۲۰۰۷) reported that the students develop

"very positive attitudes toward books as they raise their literacy level in English". Besides, Bell (۲۰۰۱) adds that extensive reading leads to increasing reading rate and general language proficiency. Writing proficiency is also considerably impacted by reading extensively. This includes both primary students (Asraf & Ahmad, ۲۰۰۳) and university students. While Read (۲۰۰۰) emphasizes the role of large vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension and its relationship with fluency, Richards and Renandya (۲۰۰۲) argue strongly for including extensive reading in the second or foreign language curriculum. There is now compelling evidence that extensive reading can have significant impact on learners' second or foreign language development.

Nassaji (۲۰۰٦) examined the particular role that learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge plays in lexical inference. The result indicated that those who had stronger depth of vocabulary knowledge used certain types of strategies more efficiently than those who had weaker depth of vocabulary knowledge. This finding supports the result of Frantzen's (۲۰۰۳) study which showed that students' vocabulary knowledge was the most important factor affecting L۲ readers' abilities to make use of context clues. Teachers and researchers are increasingly aware of the importance of reading in the development of L۲ proficiency and the role reading plays in expanding vocabulary knowledge. "Reading is important because comparison of many studies shows that written texts are richer in lexis than spoken ones" (Nation, ۲۰۰۱).

Marefat and Ahmadi (۲۰۰۳) investigated the result of training of direct vocabulary strategies of learning (memory, cognitive, and compensation) and their subcategories on long and short term retention of ٦۰ Iranian English language learners. Actually, they didn't interest on vocabulary learning strategies; instead they examined the effect of learning strategies on vocabulary retention. The findings as presented by the students in the questionnaire; showed that cognitive and memory strategies were used more than other strategies.

Elsewhere in an experimental study, Naeimi and Yaqubi (۲۰۱۳) studied the effect of Structure Reviewing as a sub branch of direct vocabulary learning strategy in reading comprehension of university students. They set two groups of EFL language learners at pre-intermediate language proficiency level as

experimental and control group. Though both groups were taught how to utilize vocabulary learning strategies for a period of ۱۰ weeks, only the experimental group received Structure Reviewing vocabulary learning strategy. The model of training was based on the theoretical framework for direct and indirect language learning strategies instruction suggested by Oxford (۱۹۹۰). The result of the study indicated that Structure Reviewing as direct strategy training could significantly enhance the vocabulary learning of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL undergraduate students.

In Saran, Çağıltay and Seferoğlu's (۲۰۰۸) study, results showed that students specified positive feedback to the use of mobile phones in language learning. Students stated that they were delighted to use the instructional materials in their mobile phones. In another study about mobile learning, Thornton and Houser (۲۰۰۵) used emails to send English vocabulary lessons to the mobile phones at specific times. The researchers wanted to find out whether mobile learning promoted learning for Japanese university students. They found that students using mobile phones in learning became more successful compared to the students who used identical materials on paper or web and they concluded that using mobile phones was a valuable teaching method. In a similar study, Cavus and İbrahim (۲۰۰۹) used a mobile learning tool to investigate the use of wireless technologies in learning English vocabulary using Short Message Service (SMS) text messaging. The results showed that students expressed positive attitudes while learning new words via mobile phones. In another study, McConotha, Praul and Lynch (۲۰۰۸) conducted a research giving the students the opportunity to use an m-learning product for the purpose of assisting them in preparation of two scheduled exams. Practice and review questions were made available on m-learning devices. The results showed that by using mobile devices in the learning process, students made better scores while they were reviewing and practicing for the exams. Investigating the effectiveness of using a mobile phone while browsing WAP sites to learn listening skills and students' attitudes towards using a mobile phone, Nah, White and Sussex (۲۰۰۸) found that while using mobile phones for this purpose, the students expressed positive attitudes to the activities and they found the activities convenient and interactive. The students could study at anytime and anywhere spontaneously so it was a student-centered learning

process. As seen from the findings of the studies, mobile phones offer many opportunities in language learning and learning in other domains since they are widely used and have various features; such as personalization, localization and mobility.

Similarly, Thornton and Hiuser (۲۰۰۵) sent short mini-lessons for learning vocabulary through email to mobile phones of the students three times a day. They used new words in multiple contexts for the learners to infer the meaning. The results showed an improved range of scores on post-tests which were very encouraging.

Learning vocabulary can also be accompanied by the pictorial annotation shown on learners' mobile devices for better understanding of new words. In a study conducted by Chen, et al. (۲۰۰۸), learners were provided with verbal as well as pictorial annotation for learning English vocabulary. Results of a post-test showed that the pictorial annotation assisted learners with lower verbal and higher visual ability to retain vocabulary.

To offer an effective and flexible learning environment for English learning, Chen and Hsu (۲۰۰۸) attempted to present a personalized intelligent mobile learning system known as PIM in which the learners were provided with English news articles based on their reading abilities evaluated by fuzzy item response theory. To promote the reading abilities of English news, the PIM system would automatically discover and retrieve unknown vocabularies of individual learners from the reading English news articles. The experimental results of the study indicated that English news reading learning along with unfamiliar vocabulary learning with self-assessing feedback response are very effective in prompting reading comprehension and reading abilities of the learners.

Recently, a few studies have investigated the pedagogical use of mobile phones for vocabulary learning. The projects (Thornton & Houser, ۲۰۰۵; Cavus & Ibrahim, ۲۰۰۹; Nwaocha, ۲۰۱۰; Lu, ۲۰۰۸; Zhang et al.,۲۰۱۱) integrating text message and vocabulary learning were generally well received. Students learn more effectively when exposed to spaced-repetition of vocabulary than massed repetition. These findings echo the claim of Nation

(۲۰۰۱) that spaced repetition of vocabulary items seems more effective than massed repetition. Compared with the traditional paper-based self-directed vocabulary learning, mobile phones provide learners with opportunities for the exposure of spaced vocabulary items. Thornton &Houser (۲۰۰۵) compared the effect of different vocabulary learning modes, one using paper material and the other supported by mobile phones and the results showed that mobile phone group gained significantly more vocabulary than the paper group. The success of such vocabulary learning is mainly due to the "push media" effect, which promote frequent rehearsal and spaced study, and utilize recycled vocabulary (Thornton & Houser, ۲۰۰۵).They argue the "spacing effect" generated by the regular delivery of target words facilitates the retrieval of the vocabulary. Lu (۲۰۰۸) and Song (۲۰۰۸) state that flexibility and motivation afforded by mobile phones enable learners to learn anywhere and anytime.

Cavus & Ibrahim (۲۰۰۹) also investigated the use of wireless technologies in education with particular reference to the potential of learning new technical English language words using SMS text messaging. This regularly-delivered intensive content represents a form of deliberate learning beyond the classroom context and such activities aim at vocabulary development predominantly. The system, called mobile learning tool (MOLT) in their design, has been tested with ۴۵ ۱st-year undergraduate students. The knowledge of students before and after the experiment has been measured. The results show that students enjoyed and learned new words with the help of their mobile phones. Therefore, using the MOLT system as an educational tool expands the learning experience into the informal setting and particularly contributes to EFL language learners' achievement.

In some other studies (Cavus& Ibrahim, ۲۰۰۹; Kennedy & Levy, ۲۰۰۸; Levy & Kennedy, ۲۰۰۵; Lu, ۲۰۰۸; Stockwell, ۲۰۱۰; Thornton & Houser, ۲۰۰۵, Zhang, Song &Burston, ۲۰۱۱), language learners considered vocabulary learning via mobile phones effective and motivating. Vocabulary lessons delivered through Short Messaging Service (SMS) were welcome among language learners primarily because of their screenful content for learning. As learners in Kennedy and Levy's (۲۰۰۸) study stated, their vocabulary knowledge about English was consolidated and extended in the process of SMS vocabulary lessons. The effects of multimedia annotations for

vocabulary learning on cell phones were discussed in terms of their interactions and learners' cognitive processing abilities (Chen et al., ۲۰۰۸; Taki & Khazaei, ۲۰۱۱). For learners with high visual or high verbal abilities, annotations with pictures worked more effectively, while for learners with low cognitive abilities, the basic textual information was conducive to learners (Taki & Khazaei, ۲۰۱۱), and the pictorial one may cause cognitive overload (Chen et al., ۲۰۰۸).

A variety of mobile applications has been already investigated by some EFL scholars. For example, Dang (۲۰۱۳) investigated learners' previous experience and beliefs on the employment of mobile phones for English language learning in the future. In order to collect the required data, the questionnaire was used by the author. According to the findings, the vast majority of students had used their mobile phones for general educational purposes and English learning. In addition, participants had clear positive attitudes towards the employment of mobile phones to study English in the future in that vocabulary, listening and reading are the three skills most of learners would like to acquire through their mobile phones (ibid).

Motallebzadeh and Ganjali (۲۰۱۱) examine the effects of Short Message Service (SMS) on vocabulary retention and reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners and indicated that mobile phones as tool and SMS as an application can facilitate specific learning forms. Since SMS can be easily sent at predetermined times and intervals, they can be saved systematically and accessible at a later period. Accordingly, participants in SMS group could significantly outperform those in conventional/paper group in vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension (Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, �2011).

Similarly, Khazaei and Dastjerdi (۲۰۱۱) explored the application of SMS to the blended method of teaching second language vocabulary. They supported the significant supplementary role of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in the teaching of new vocabulary. According to Khazaei and Dastjerdi (۲۰۱۱), in comparison with the traditional classes which are mainly based on the printed texts, juniors enjoyed and took advantages from the pedagogical merits of messaging. In agreement with findings obtained by Motallebzadeh and Ganjali (۲۰۱۱), the results obtained to Khazaei and

Dastjerdi (۲۰۱۱) seem to support the claims that proper use of SMS aid the learners to consolidate and enhance their vocabulary knowledge.

Alzu'bi and Sabha (۲۰۱۳) investigated the role of Mobile-based Email in improving Ajloun College English students' achievement. Their statistical analyses showed that there was a positive influence of employing Mobile-based Email strategy on vocabulary improvement. Students can easily carry mobile phones and check their e-mails anytime and anywhere; therefore, the mobile phone can be a more effective medium for self-learning English vocabulary compared to existing paper materials (Alzu'bi & Sabha ۲۰۱۳). Students also felt that they made improvements in vocabulary skills since they learned some knowledge of local life and leisure activities which they were unfamiliar with before the study (ibid).

Meurant (۲۰۱۱) in his study entitled "Developing EFL/ESL Cognitive Structures Using a Mobile App to Exploit a Spatial Morphology of Verb Forms in Simple Sentences" refers to Fiaidhi (۲۰۱۱) and affirms that the pervasive effect of the Internet, mobile apps, smart-phones and now tablets means that online learning objects are required to meet the need to ubiquitous learning at the right time and in the right place. Since the ways in which language is conceived, imagined, learnt, and employed are rapidly changing, these learning objects will also need to be offered in the right form (Meurant ۲۰۱۱).

Concerning the effect of digital technology on EFL learners' autonomy, Hoven and Palalas (۲۰۱۱) report on the mobile-assisted component of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course which concentrated on listening and speaking skills. Their program employed web-enabled MP٤ players to deliver ۲-٨ minute workplace audio/video podcasts and to access an online class blog. It was trialed for ۱٥ weeks by twelve L۲ English college students, who appreciated the mobile resources and specifically the non-reciprocal audio podcasts, which may have been indicative of a general lack of preparedness for autonomous learning.

۳. Methodology

۳٫۱. Participants and Setting

Fifty upper-intermediate EFL learners studying English as their foreign language in Torbat-e-Heydarieh language institutes were selected based on a standard placement test adopted from Interchange/Passages Placement and Evaluation Package (۲۰۰٥). The age of these participants ranged from ۱٥ to ۱۹. Due to gender segregation in these language institutes only female learners were selected. These participants were randomly assigned into two groups: experimental and control. The setting of the study was an English language institute in Torbat-e-Heydariyeh.

۳٫۲. Instrumentation

Different instruments have been used in this study for different purposes. The researcher used a placement test at the beginning of the study in order to find the qualified participants for the study. Steps to understanding series (intermediate and advanced levels, total of ٦۰ stories) were used in order to teach experimental and control groups the new vocabularies based on fun and interesting short stories. There was learner autonomy questionnaire developed by Kashefian (۲۰۰۲) which was used to estimate what were the effects of technology use on the students learning autonomy. This questionnaire includes two main parts: The first part solicits the demographic information of the participants, and the second part has ٤۰ items on a ٥-point Likert scale ranging from ۱ (strongly agree) to ٥ (strongly disagree). The questions asked about the learner's perceptions of the roles of the teacher/the learner, self-evaluation, learner's goal, planning, ability, progression, and mistakes in the course of learning, all of which contribute to the development of learner autonomy. In order to estimate the reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher asked ۲٥ students to fill it and then used Cronbach Alpha to give the index of reliability. The Cronbach Alpha showed the value of ۰٫٦۹ for the questionnaire that can be considered a good index for the reliability. Also, in order to investigate the study results about students' vocabulary learning, the teacher developed two different vocabulary tests as pretest and posttest based on steps to understanding vocabularies. Steps to understanding series totally include ۳٦۲٥ head word for the intermediate and advanced level. The vocabularies to be

included in tests were chosen from this book and they were different in pretest and posttest. The tests comprised of three subsections: multiple choices, fill in the blank and synonym and there were ۱۰۰ vocabulary items in each test.

۳,۳. Procedure

After selecting qualified participants based on a test of homogeneity, experimental (N=۲۵) and control (N=۲۵) groups were formed. Learner Autonomy Questionnaire and researcher-made tests (vocabulary) were administered to both groups prior to the implementation of the treatment as the pretest. The important point to mention here is the role of researcher. The treatments in both classes were conducted with a teacher separate from the researcher. The researcher's role was only as an observer in the process of treatment in both classes. Participants in experimental group received treatment. In other word, the teacher asked the participants in the experimental group to activate viber on their smartphones. Then, the teacher made a group for the class in the viber. Every night, the teacher uploaded two stories from steps to understanding (۳rd and ٤th level) book to the group and asked the students to read the short stories and learn the vocabularies. All the students in the experimental group were present in the viber sessions and the teacher checked that before starting the teaching. If some of the students were absent, the teacher would check their learning during the day and when they could answer. Once the teacher posted the stories to the group, the students started to discuss about the meaning of known and unknown words. Sometimes they needed some help and they asked the teacher for that. The meanings of new vocabularies were presented in Persian translation, English meaning taken from monolingual dictionaries and some synonyms. After presenting the meaning, the teacher asked students whether they had any questions or there was something vague for them. The other night, before introducing new stories, the teacher and students practiced the last night vocabularies in the viber. This procedure continued for one month when the students finished the ۳rd and ٤th levels of the book. After one week from the end of the treatment, the students on the experimental group undergone vocabulary test as their posttest and were asked to fill the autonomy questionnaire.

Participants in the control group didn't use any mobile-based applications during the course and the stories' texts were taught in the classes with the use of books. The students read the stories and discussed the meaning of new vocabularies with the teacher in the classroom. The teacher helped students in discovering new vocabularies' meaning and helping some students on how to use monolingual dictionaries. Some of the meaning of difficult words were explained in Persian to the students in order to stop them being confused. In order to be the same as experimental group, the teacher didn't work on the exercises of the stories provided in the book. The scores in both control and experimental groups before and after the treatment and also the scores of a delayed posttest for the experimental group (two weeks after their first posttest) were compared and analyzed through independent sample T-test in SPSS package (version ۱۹) to investigate the hypotheses and evaluate the results.

For both groups, the teacher developed a specific lesson plan that will be explained here:

Table ۱

Lesson plan for control group

Lesson plan for teaching vocabulary to upper-intermediate learners in the control group.

Materials:

Steps to understanding book level ۳ and ٤

Direction:

- Students are asked to read every story in ۳ minutes.
- Then the teacher asks students to form small groups and explain what the story was about (۲ minutes).

> - After the students explained the summary of the story to the teacher, they start working on the new vocabularies of the story, providing definition, synonym, explanation about part of speech and etc. (۵ minutes).
> - Every story in the books follow the same procedure
>
> **Evaluation:**
>
> - At the beginning of next session, the teacher ask students about the vocabularies of last session stories and give them positive or negative marks
> - There is a complete vocabulary test at the end of ۱۰ sessions

Table ۲

Lesson plan for the experimental group

> **Lesson plan for teaching vocabulary to upper-intermediate learners in the viber**
>
> **Materials:**
>
> Steps to understanding book level ۳ and ٤
>
> **Direction:**
>
> - Students in the viber group are asked to read every story in ۳ minutes.
> - Then the teacher asks students to find the meaning of difficult vocabularies from different sources such as monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, asking their classmates and sometimes asking teacher (۲ minutes).
> - After the students found the meaning of difficult words, they share it to with the group (۳ minutes).
> - Every story in the books follow the same procedure

> **Evaluation:**
>
> - At the beginning of next session, the teacher ask students about the vocabularies of last session stories and give them positive or negative marks
> - There is a complete vocabulary test at the end of ۱۰ sessions

۳٫٤. Study Design

To explore the effects of mobile apps on upper-intermediate students' vocabulary learning an experimental design was employed. In order to investigate the difference between experimental and control group, the researcher used independent sample T-test. The independent-samples t-test is used to determine if a difference exists between the means of two independent groups on a continuous dependent variable. More specifically, it will let you determine whether the difference between these two groups is statistically significant. For example, you could use the independent-samples t-test to determine whether (mean) salaries, measured in US dollars, differed between males and females (i.e., your dependent variable would be "salary" and your independent variable would be "gender", which has two groups: "males" and "females"). Variables of this study include the effects of mobile apps (independent variable) and EFL learners' vocabulary learning (dependent variables).

٤. Results

In order to find the differences between the experimental and control group regarding vocabulary learning, the researcher divided the first research question into five sub-research questions and null hypotheses. It's important to point out that all the data were analyzed by SPSS software, and the corresponding statistical test was considered to be independent and paired sample t-tests. The researcher used these test because it is used to find the differences between the mean of two independent groups or one paired group respectively.

In order to find out if there has been any significant difference between pretests' scores of control and experimental groups, we used interdependent sample t-test. The result of this test of significance is provided in the following table.

Table ۳

Independent sample t-test result

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for equality of means		
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (۲-tailed)
Treatment	Equal variances assumed	.۲۲۰	.٦٤١	-.٤٦۳	٤۸	.٦٤٥
	Equal variances not assumed			-.٤٦۳	٤۷,۹۳۹	.٦٤٥

According to Table ٤،۳ and based on the independent sample t-test result, the difference between experimental and control groups' scores in the pretest is not significant (p<۰,۰٥) with t = -.٤٦۳ and sig = .٦٤٥.

In order to find out if there has been any significant difference between pretests and posttest scores of control groups, we used paired sample t-test. The result of this test of significance is provided in the following table.

Table ٤

Paired Samples Statistics

		Paired Differences							
					۹٥٪ Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		M	SD	SEM	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (۲-tailed)
Pair ۱	pretest - posttest	٤,۱٤	۹,٥٦	۱,۹۱	۳۷,٤۹	٤٥,۳۸	۲۱,٦۷	۲٤	.۰۰۰

According to Table ٤،۸, the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the control group is considered to be statistically significant with a value of p < ۰،۰٥ and t=۲۱,٦۷.

In order to find out if there has been any significant difference between pretests and posttest scores of experimental group, we used paired sample t-test. The result of this test of significance is provided in the following table.

Table ٥

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences						
					۹٥٪ Confidence Interval of the Difference			

		M	SD	SEM	Lower	Upper	t	Df	Sig. (۲-tailed)
Pair ۱	pretest - posttest	٥,٥٠	۱۰,٤٤	۲,۰۸	‎-٥٩,۳۹	‎-٥۰,۷٦	‎- ۲٦,۳٥	۲٤	.۰۰۰

Being shown in the above table, the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the control group is considered to be statistically significant with a value of ۰,۰۰<۰,۰٥ and t= - ۲٦,۳٥.

In order to find out if there has been any significant difference between posttests' scores of experimental and control groups, we used independent sample t-test. The result of this test of significance is provided in the following table.

Table ٦

Independent sample t-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for equality of means		
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (۲-tailed)

Treatment	Equal variances assumed	۱٫۱۶	٫۲۸۶	۵٫۸۶-	۴۸	٫۰۰۰
	Equal variances not assumed			۵٫۸۶-	۴۷٫۶۳	٫۰۰۰

As you can see in the above table, the difference between learners' scores in the posttests are significantly different ($p<۰٫۰۵$).

Then, in order to find out if there is any significant difference between experimental group learners' posttest and delayed posttest scores, the researcher used paired sample t-test. The result of paired sample t-test is provided in the below tables.

Table ۷

Paired Samples t-test

		Paired Differences							
					۹۵٪ Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		M	SD	SEM	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (۲-tailed)
Pair ۱	pretest – posttest	۳٫۸۸	۳٫۹۴	٫۷۸	۲٫۲۵	۵٫۵۰	۴٫۹۲	۲۴	٫۰۰۰

According above Table, the difference between learners' scores in the posttest and delayed posttest are significantly different ($p < ۰٫۰۵$).

۵. Discussion

In this part, the researcher will discuss the results obtained from the analysis of control and experimental groups. Regardless of the point that there have been diverse suggestions in employing specific procedures in teaching vocabulary, some techniques are supposed not to be employed suitably (Oxford & Crookall, ۱۹۹۰). Furthermore, what instructors consider beneficial procedures in teaching vocabulary may merely be grounded on assumptions (Carter, ۱۹۹۸; Tinkham, ۱۹۹۳), rather than founded on seeing pertinent theories and research findings. Yet, this is not devoid of its motives, as it may be that instructors are at loss and do not recognize on which research results they should trust (Crookes, ۱۹۹۸). For example, selecting between the extreme of if to study vocabularies from a list or from a context can be arguable. Stevick (۱۹۸۲) suggests that learning from a vocabulary list is often sanctioned by teachers but learners often do it. Nation (۱۹۹۰) observed that learning from a word list can be either worthy or evil, while learning vie the contexts can be laborious and slow. Carter (۱۹۹۸) was hesitant of the profits of learning from the context alone, and thought that an assortment of diverse procedures can be better. These three influential attitudes brighten the quandary of applying specific instruction and learning vocabulary strategies straightly from the research results without studying their efficacy for different facets of vocabulary learning in detail.

This research intended to propose an effective technique in teaching English vocabulary to foreign language learners. For this purpose mobile assisted language learning was proposed. As right to use of wireless networks grows and possession of devices that can communicate with such networks intensifies, the application of mobile devices to help language learning come to be ever more frequent. MALL diverges from computer-assisted language learning in its employment of personal, portable platforms that permit new methods of learning, highlighting continuity or naturalness of access and

communication across diverse contexts of use. As has been claimed by Laurillard (۲۰۰۷), "a typical m-learning activity could build in more opportunities for digitally-facilitated site-specific activities, and for ownership and control over what the learners do" (p. ۱٦٥).

In this study, the researcher used the smartphones platform to find out its advantages on students vocabulary learning. Regarding the first research question, it was divided into ٥ sub-research questions and then they were analyzed separately.

The first sub-research question argued about experimental and control groups' pretest scores. In order to be sure that the students are at the same level of proficiency before starting the research, the researcher administered a vocabulary test to both groups. The result of independent sample t-test showed that there is no statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups' vocabulary knowledge proficiency. Based on this result, the researcher can claim that before starting the research, both groups were at the same level of vocabulary knowledge.

The second sub-research question argues about the differences between the control group pretest and posttest scores. As it was explained in the procedure, the control group studied new stories and vocabularies in the traditional classroom. In order to see whether there is any significant difference between control group pretest and posttest result, the researcher used paired sample t-test. The result of paired sample t-test showed that there is statistically significant difference between the mean of control groups' scores in pretest and posttest. As the researcher review the means of students' scores in pretest and posttest in this group, it becomes clear that learners have scores higher in the posttest compared to the pretest. So, based on this result, the researcher can claim that teaching vocabularies in traditional language classroom has been effective in improving learners' scores in vocabulary test.

Regarding the third sub-research question, the researcher examined whether there is any significant different between the pretest and posttest's scores of experimental group or not. The learners in experimental group had their classes held vie viber where they read the stories and practiced the

vocabularies. There was a pretest to check whether they know the meaning of vocabularies or not and a posttest to see whether they have learned the new vocabularies or not. In order to check for the differences, the researcher used paired sample t-test. The result of paired sample t-test showed that there is significant difference between pretest and posttest scores of students in the experimental group. As the descriptive statistics for the mean of pretest and posttests showed in the last section, the leaners' scores in the posttest are higher than their scores in the pretest. From this result, it can be claimed that the treatment has been effective for the experimental group in which the learners' learned most of the vocabularies that were taught to them.

In order to check for the effectiveness of treatment the fourth sub-research question was developed. This question examined whether the result of posttest scores between control and experimental group is different or not. To check for that the average mean of learners posttests' scores in experimental and control group where compared using independent sample t-test. The result of independent sample t-test showed that there is significant difference between posttests' scores of experimental and control group. By looking at the group statistics table, we can easily see that the mean of experimental group is higher than the mean of control group. Based on this result, the researcher can claim that the use of viber has been effective in teaching vocabularies to the students.

Regarding the long term retention of vocabulary items, the researcher proposed the last sub-research question. In this research question, the aim was to check whether the vocabularies that leaners in the experimental group learned, can be remembered after two weeks passing from the treatment or not. The statistic test used for that purpose was paired sample t-test. The result of this test showed that the difference between experimental group posttest and delayed posttests' means are not statistically significant. By looking to the table of group statistics (Table ۲۰), we can easily see that the average means of posttest and delayed posttest scores are not very different from each other and it shows that students have not forgotten the vocabularies after two weeks.

٦. Conclusion

The obtained findings of the analysis of the results of the quantitative data revealed that Viber, as an innovative educational tool for language learning, had a statistically significant effect on the increasing of the upper intermediate Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge and their effective learning of vocabulary as the cornerstone of language learning in language classrooms. The findings revealed that:

Working with authentic, daily life software of learning English- especially those used for vocabulary knowledge and involving in the process of discussing how to use it practically and effectively- attracted students' attention and affected their performance and achievement in viber course and created a positive attitude towards it.

Students, who are engaged in the process of learning, feel autonomous and responsible for their learning and others' learning, work in pairs and groups and share information and care about each other's problems increased their achievement in viber course and created a positive attitude towards it.

Experiencing learning foreign language vocabulary by an innovative technique besides the creative strategies of the teacher and involving online educational technology as the mainstream classroom activities made students feel experience something up-to-date and not the same. Moreover, the idea of having a lot of fun in a friendly and stress-free atmosphere with caring peers and a supportive teacher all increased the students' achievements significantly, created a positive attitude toward viber, and made the experience of language learning amusing, pleasurable, and haunting for the students in a way that they whispered it was one of the best learning experience they have ever had.

This study raises some pedagogical implications that will be considered here:

This study has investigated the effect of using viber, as an innovative technique of vocabulary learning, on only Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge, and autonomy. In order to investigate the effect of viber on other skills and sub-skills such as speaking, listening, reading, writing and grammar more studies should be conducted.

Since viber, as an pioneering technique of language learning, verified being successful and effective in it, probably it would be successful and effective in other learning areas. Therefore, as another pedagogical implication of this study, it is suggested to use viber in other areas of learning separate from language learning.

Since the productivity of viber as an educational tool was intertwined with different factors, as other pedagogical implications of this study, it is suggested that before its implementation in language learning curriculum, all the factors affecting its use such as internet connections, smartphones, students' social class, etc should be taken into considereation.

Moreover, being tangled in a new process of learning, learners would alter their outmoded habits of language learning such as rote learning for better learning practices. Furthermore, having the responsibility for learning and feeling autonomous make students independent in their process of learning and at the same time help them to work cooperatively, share information and care about each other's problems in a fun and enjoyable atmosphere.

However, this study has some limitations that will be considered here:

The sample was selected from among Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners, and other EFL learners with different levels of language proficiency will be excluded. Also, Torbat-e-Heydarieh, Iran, was selected as the context for conducting this study and the results may vary for other populations and contexts. The effects of mobile-apps was explored and other educational aids will be disregarded. In addition, only participants' vocabulary knowledge was considered and their knowledge in other fields including, listening, grammatical, speaking, and etc. was not regarded. There is a limitation in working with mobile apps in context of Iran. The problem is that based on some social and cultural issues, it is possible that these apps will be filtered by Iranian government so their accessibility will be possible with the use of anti-filter software that may not be available for every user.

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Effects of morphological and syntactic cues on the processing of English main verb versus reduced relatives clauses by Iranian L۲ learners of English

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Abstract

This study tried to investigate the processing of regular/irregular past forms in the morphosyntactically complex structure of English reduced relative clauses by Iranian EFL learners. Two groups of participants, an advanced EFL group (n = ۲۲) and a group of native speakers (n = ۱٦) participated in this study. Two sets of offline and online tasks were conducted to collect data. A series of independent samples t-tests were conducted to analyze the collected data. The results of the study revealed that the advanced group performed as accurately as the native speaker group on the offline task. The L۲ learners performed statistically the same with the native speakers on the online task. However, the L۲ learners were slightly slower. Based on the similar performances found for the two groups, it was concluded that there is a shared system for processing L۱ and L۲, and the observed difficulties are not due to incomplete grammars of deficit L۲ knowledge rather to performance issues such as online pressure and/or L۱ interference.

Key terms: Morphological cues, offline and online tasks, syntactic cues, L۱ interference

۱. Introduction

Psycholinguistic and neurocognitive studies on typologically different languages (L۱ vs. L۲) have focused, amongst others, on the acquisition and processing of L۲ morphology (see White, ۲۰۰۳ for a review). Results obtained from most of these studies have indicated that inflectional morphology is among the difficult areas for L۲ learners especially for adult L۲ learners starting to learn the L۲ after their childhood (Clahsen, Felser, Neubauer, Sato, & Silva, ۲۰۱۰; Hahne, Muller, & Clahsen, ۲۰۰۳; Lardiere, ۱۹۹۸a, ۱۹۹۸b; Meisel, ۱۹۹۱; White, ۲۰۰۳ among others). The morphological variability observed among L۲ learners including eliminating, generalization, and/or overgeneralization of inflectional morphology has been reported by many studies (White, ۲۰۰۳); however, the sources of these difficulties are still under study.

Lardier (۱۹۹۸a), for instance, argues that L۲ morphological knowledge is available to L۲ learners; however, these learners fail to realize inflectional morphology – a phenomenon which is mostly production-specific in nature. In other words, L۲ learners possess the required morphological representations, but they fail to produce the corresponding forms due to performance related issues such as communication pressure (Lardier, ۱۹۹۸a; Prevost & White, ۲۰۰۰). At the same time, Hawkins and Chan (۱۹۹۷) attributed the observed difficulties in correct usage of L۲ inflectional morphology to incomplete grammars and representational syntactic deficits. More recently, however, it has been argued that the proposed deficits are more a case of uninterpretable features rather than the interpretable features of tense and aspect features of verbs, for instance (Hawkins & Casillas, �2۰۰۸; Tsimpli & Dimitrakopoulou, ۲۰۰۷).

Regarding L۲ morphological processing, two mainstream ideas are in position. One view asserts that there is a shared systems for processing L۱ and L۲; however, L۲ processing is more demanding regarding fundamental cognitive processes such as working memory, processing speed, and even L۱ interference (Neubauer & Clahsen, ۲۰۰۹). This view, therefore, holds that L۲

processing follows the same mechanisms applied for L1 processing. This is supported by data obtained from brain imaging techniques showing activations on the same regions while processing L1 and L2 (see Indefrey, ۲۰۰٦ for review). An alternative view holds that the processing mechanisms underlying L1 and L2 are fundamentally different.

Ullman (۲۰۰۱, ۲۰۰٤, ۲۰۰٥) proposes that there are two different brain memory systems involved in language processing (either morphological or sentences level information), namely the declarative (i.e. mental lexicon) and procedural (i.e. mental grammar) ones. The declarative memory is involved in the storage of memorized words and phrases. Ullman (۲۰۰٥) believes that much of L2 processing is undertaken through this memory system, and further asserts that L2 learners' overreliance on this memory system can be due to the maturational changes. For the processing of inflectional morphology, this can mean that L2 learners rely more on the meaning of the inflected words rather than their morphological or morphosyntactic forms in L2 input. The present study, therefore, has tried to investigate the online processing of regular versus irregular past forms in English by a group of advanced L2 learners and compare their performance with a native speaker control group. The main focus of this study is the morphosyntactic role these inflected forms play in processing complex morphosyntactic structures such as passive reduced relative clauses.

۲. Literature review

In their well-known study, Silva and Clahsen (۲۰۰۸), studied regular past-tense forms among advanced L2 learners in comparison with English native speakers. The results obtained from the masked-priming experiments revealed that, although the L1 group showed priming effects for the inflected forms, the L2 learners showed no priming for the same forms. Based on the observed priming effects, it was concluded that the L2 learners rely more on lexical storage than morphologically processing of inflected forms in comparison with native speakers.

Neubauer and Clahsen (۲۰۰۹), applying acceptability judgments, lexical decision, and masked priming tasks, studied regular and irregular participle

forms among German adult native speakers in comparison to advanced Polish adult second language (L۲) learners of German. Investigating L۱ vs. L۲ processing of these inflected forms, they found striking L۱-L۲ contrasts between the two groups. Though L۱ learners showed to be influenced by the structure of past participle forms, the L۱ participants did not show much sensitivity to these forms. The findings were interpreted under the assumptions of Ullman's declarative/procedural model suggesting that L۱ learners are less sensitive to morphological structure than native speakers. That is, L۱ learners rely more on lexical storage than on morphological parsing while processing the L۲.

In another attempt, Clahsen, Martzoukou, and Stavrakaki (۲۰۱۰) studied perfective past tense of Greek among a group of L۲ learners. The participants were intermediate and advanced L۲ learners of Greek with different L۱ backgrounds and were compared with Greek native speakers. The results of the study obtained from oral and written elicited production tasks as well as an offline acceptability judgment task revealed that neither the intermediate nor advanced L۲ learners showed native-like performance on perfective past tense in Greek. It was therefore concluded that L۲ learners rely more on stored inflected forms than native speakers.

Some other studies, on the other hand, did not find the same L۱-L۲ differences in processing inflected words neither for processing speed (Beck, ۱۹۹۷; Lalleman, van Santen, & van Heuven, ۱۹۹۷) nor priming effects (Basnight-Brown, Chen, Hua, Kostić, & Feldman, ۲۰۰۷) considering inflected word forms. These studies came to the conclusion that L۲ learners and native speakers follow the same processing mechanisms regarding processing morphologically complex words. Regarding the mixed results obtained from previous research, more research seems to be necessary on adult L۲ processing on morphological forms in different languages. Accordingly, the present study, applying both online and offline tasks, tried to investigate the processing of regular versus irregular verbs in morphosyntactically complex structures such as reduced relative clauses by advanced L۲ learners of English and compared them with baseline data obtained from English native speakers.

۳. Methodology

۳٫۱. Participants

The participants of the study were consisted of two different groups. The first groups were a group of advanced L۲ learners who were studying English in a private language institute. Based on the grammar part of Allen's Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (۲۰۰٤), the participants (n = ۲۲) who received ۸۵±۱۰ out of ۱۰۰ (based on the OPT's manual) were selected to participate in the study. The second group of participants were a group of English native speakers recruited on the internet (n = ۱٦). The L۲ learners were ranged in age from ۲۵ to ۳۵, and the native speakers were between ۲۰ and ۳۲ in age. Both groups participated in the offline and online tasks.

۳٫۲. Procedure

An offline (error correction task) and online test (self-paced reading task: SPR task) were conducted to collect the data. The online test was administered using DMDX software package (version ٤٫۲٫۲٫۰) designed by Kenneth I. Forster and Jonathan C. Forster at the University of Arizona, in two forms of local and remote testing. The local mode was used for the advanced learners who were at reach and the remote mode was used to collect data from the native speakers. The detailed information on the instruments are provided below.

۳٫۳. Instruments

۳٫۳٫۱. The offline task (error correction task)

The offline task was intended to evaluate the processing of regular vs. irregular past participles in reduced relative clauses. The test contained ۳٦ items with ۱۸ experimental and filler items each. Half the items in each set of items were ungrammatical. The participants were required to read the items and decide on the grammaticality of them. They were also asked to provide correct forms for the items they decided as ungrammatical. Examples (۱) and (۲) provide sample items.

(۱) The children rescued from the storm were put in a shelter.

(۲) The children taken too far from the shore were ordered back by the lifeguard.

۳.۱.۲. The online task (self-paced reading task)

The online task was performed to evaluate the online processing of these participles. The participants were supposed to press two pre-defined keys on the keyboard to move phrase by phrase in test items. The phrases were presented in a non-cumulative manner (Just, Carpenter, & Woolley, ۱۹۸۲), i.e. previous phrases disappeared from the screen after pressing the forward key. A grammaticality judgment test was provided after each test item to make sure the mindful reading of the items. The reaction times (RTs) obtained from pressing the forward key was considered as the time taken for the participants to process the target structures. There were a number of ۵٦ test items containing both real and filler items. As with the error correction task, half the items on each set were ungrammatical. Example (۳) illustrates a sample item. The slashes represent the way the items were presented to the participants; the participants could not see the slashes.

(۸) The young teachers۱/criticized at work place۲/demanded more money۳.

٤. Results

The results obtained from the two tasks are each presented below. The results will be presented according to the accuracy of responses in both online and offline tasks as well as reaction times for the online tests. Alpha was set at .۰۵ for all statistical analysis.

٤.۱. The offline Error correction task

In this task, the participants were given a set of both grammatical and ungrammatical items to correct and provide the correct form as well. The corrected items received ۱ and the uncorrected or wrongly corrected items received ۰. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the two groups' performance on this test. Table ۱ demonstrates descriptive statistics for the groups.

Table ۱. Descriptive statistics for the error correction task

	N	Mean	S.D
Advanced	۲۲	۱۹	۲٫۷۲
Native	۱٦	۱۹	۲٫٤۸

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare groups on the error correction task. The results of which are provided in Table (۲).

Table ۲. Independent samples t-test for the error correction task

		N	t	Sig.
Error correction	Advanced	۲۲	۰٫۰۷	۹٤۱.
	Native	۱٦		

The results of the independent samples t-test indicated that the advanced group were able to gain similar results with the native speaker group in the offline error correction task.

٤٫۲. The online self-paced reading task

The data obtained from the online task was analyzed for the accuracy of scores on the GJ task and RTs on regions two and three. The descriptive statistics related to the accuracy of scores and the independent samples t-test comparing the two groups are illustrated in Tables (۳) and (٤), respectively.

Table ۳. Descriptive statistics for accuracy in the self-paced reading task

	N	Mean	S.D
Advanced	۲۲	۱۹٫۸۱	۵٫۹۵
Native	۱٦	۲۱٫٦۲	۵٫۳۸

Table ٤. Independent samples t-test for accuracy in the self-paced reading task

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
Accuracy in the SPRT	Advanced	۲۲	۱٫۰۵	۳۰٤.
	Native	۱٦		

The results of the independent samples t-test indicated that the advanced group performed the same with the native speaker group regarding the accuracy scores on the GJs. The second part of analysis for the self-paced reading task was to investigate the reaction times on the third region of test items. As with the analyses for accuracy, an independent samples t-tests was conducted to compare the two groups. Table (٥) presents the descriptive statistics for the obtained RTs.

Table ٥. Descriptive statistics for RTs in the self-paced reading task

	N	Mean	S.D
Advanced	٢٢	٢٠٥١,٦١	٨٨٤,٢٥
Native	١٦	١٨٤٦,٩٤	٦٢٩,١٠

The results of the independent samples t-test is presented in Table (٦) below.

Table ٦. Independent samples t-test for RTs in the self-paced reading task

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
RTs in the SPRT	Advanced	٢٢	١,٦٥	.٢٠٣
	Native	١٦		

As mean scores on processing speed show, the native speakers were faster than the advanced group; however, the different mean scores were not significantly different. The overall speed (RTs) of the participants in the two groups could give us a deeper understanding of the processing speed. Therefore, a sum of RTs on both regions ٢ and ٣ was calculated for each test time. Table (٧) shows the descriptive statistics for the sum RTs.

Table ٧. Descriptive statistics for sum RTs in the self-paced reading task

	N	Mean	S.D
Advanced	٢٢	٤٠٣٥,٢٠	٧٠٤,٦٠
Native	١٦	٤٥٢٣,٣٤	١٣١٠,٧١

Table (٨) presents the results of the independent samples t-test comparing the two groups on the sum RTs on the online task.

Table ۸. Independent samples t-test for sum RTs in the self-paced reading task

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
Sum RTs in the SPRT	Advanced	۲۲	۱,٤٥	۱۵۱.
	Native	۱٦		

As illustrated in Tables (۷) and (۸), the native speakers gained smaller RTs compared with the advanced group indicating their higher processing speed. However, the difference found between the RTs for the two groups was not statistically significant. A detailed discussion of the obtained results is going to be presented in the following section.

۵. Discussion

The present study tried to investigate the processing of English regular vs. irregular past participles in morphosyntactically complex forms by L۲ learners compared with English native speakers. To investigate the processing of these forms by the two groups, both the online accuracy scores and RTs on the second and third regions of the online task together with the accuracy scores from the offline task were analyzed. As the results indicated, no significant difference was found between groups regarding the online accuracy scores on the GJs in the SPR task. In other words, the two groups performed similarly in judging RRCs containing regular past participles and irregular past participles.

The same results were obtained for the overall RT scores obtained from the second and third regions of the SPR task. That is to say, both accuracy judgments on the whole item in the SPR task, and RTs on each region of items were the same across groups. The similarity between the advanced and native speaker groups is in line with the overall accuracy scores reported for the offline task, which in turn points to the fact that the differences between L۱ and L۲ performance can be more of processing difficulties than of a fundamental nature (see Juffs, ۱۹۹۸; Juffs, ۲۰۰۱; Harrington, ۲۰۰۱; Hope, ۲۰۰٦, ۲۰۱۰).

The accuracy data cannot provide the whole picture needed to understand the processing behavior on a specific structure, and it has to be interpreted together with time latencies on the word-by-word reading of sentences. Therefore, the RTs obtained from the second region of the SPR task containing the regular and irregular past participles were also analyzed. The advanced group were found to have similar RTs on the second region of the SPR task with the native speaker group for RRCs with regular/irregular past participles. This was consistent with the accuracy data on the same regions reported earlier.

Reaction times obtained from the SPR task for second regions of RRCs with irregular past participles were also analyzed. For these items, the native speakers were found to be faster than the advanced group, though the difference was not statistically significant. That is, the advanced group did not show any significant difference with the native speakers for regions containing irregular past participles. The slower performance of the advanced group on items containing irregular past participles was somehow surprising as RRCs containing irregular past participles are assumed to be less ambiguous than the RRCs with regular past participles (MacDonald, ۱۹۹٤).

This finding can be justified by saying that for the L۲ learners in this study, in RRCs with regular past participles, the past participle can be interpreted as a past participle or the main verb leaving the parser with both active and passive RRCs. Therefore, the parser holds on to the different competitors and waits until the rest of the sentence, i.e. region three, is read. In case of RRCs with irregular past participles, the parser has to make a decision right after encountering the irregular past participle, and as this structure is absent in the L۱, it takes longer for the intermediate learners to read this region.

Another explanation for this finding can be a pure morphological one. Irregular past participles are idiosyncratic in nature and must be learned in the L۲. Moreover, irregular past participles do not happen in Persian. Therefore, the L۲ learners might have had difficulty processing the irregular past participles.

A noteworthy issue regarding second region RTs on RRCs with irregular past participles is that, though the advanced learners showed slight latencies in comparison with the native speakers, the differences were not statistically significant. If the L۱ influence assumption is true, it can be argued that whatever the L۱ influence is, i.e. morphological or syntactic, it subsides by L۲ development. Therefore, it can be argued that the differences between the L۲ learners' and native speakers' performances are more of a gradual nature than a fundamental one (Juffs, ۱۹۹۸; Juffs, ۲۰۰۱; Harrington, ۲۰۰۱; Hope, ۲۰۰٦, ۲۰۱۰). Reaction times on the third regions of the SPR task were also subject to analysis. No significant difference was found between groups in terms of RTs on this region.

Overall, the results obtained from the offline error correction task showed that the advanced group performed as accurately as the native speakers. The results from the online self-paced reading task showed that the advanced learners were slower than the native speakers in processing the target structures; however, the observed difference was not statistically significant. The results of this study can be interpreted based on the idea that L۱/L۲ processing systems are shared; however, L۲ processing can be more demanding due to fundamental cognitive processes such as working memory, processing speed, and even L۱ interference (Neubauer & Clahsen, ۲۰۰۹). The similarities between the performance of the L۲ learners and native speakers on the offline task as opposed to the slower performance of the L۲ learners on the online task can provide evidence to this claim as the time pressure on the online task can have more cognitive loading and therefore slower performance. However, this slower performance cannot be indicated as incomplete grammar or L۲ knowledge deficits (e.g. Johnson, Shenkman, Newport, & Medin, ۱۹۹٦; Hawkins & Chan, ۱۹۹۷; Hawkins & Hattori, ۲۰۰٦). The findings of this study gain support from brain imaging studies in which similar activation have been found for both L۱ and L۲ processing (see Indefrey, ۲۰۰٦ for a review). Regarding the morphological knowledge of the participles, the findings are in line with Lardier (۱۹۹۸a) and Prevost and White (۲۰۰۰) maintaining that L۲ learners possess the required morphological representations, but they fail to produce the corresponding forms due to performance related issues such as communication pressure.

٦. Conclusion

Overall, the findings of the present study from both online and offline tasks indicated that, regarding the morphological forms here, the L۲ learners possessed the same morphological representations as the native speakers. This was supported by the fact that these learners performed as accurately as the native speakers on the offline task. Furthermore, the somewhat slower processing of the target forms by the L۲ learners, though not statistically significant, was attributed to the time pressure present on the online task which can be demanding on the parsing apparatus. This study was only concerned with advanced adult L۲ learners. Further studies can be conducted comparing learners in different age groups with different proficiency levels to observe possible maturational effects on L۲ processing and compare their results with those of native speakers.

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An Analysis of the Miss –applications of Howarth's Strategies to Overcome Translation Insufficiencies in Translation of Collocations

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Abstract

The major aim of the present study was to gain some insights about the students' awareness of collocations, and the different problems which the students might face when translating different types of collocations from English language into Persian language, and vice versa. In this study, a pool of ٥۸ homogeneous students majoring in Translation Studies participated from different universities. To gather dada, the researcher designed sample tests from literary texts and employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The results from descriptive statistics confirmed that the students resorted to some strategies to overcome their inadequate knowledge of collocations from English into Persian and vice versa. The strategies included *negative transfer, synonym, paraphrase, repetition, and avoidance*. During the second step of the study, the results obtained from the Pearson Correlation Coefficient showed that there was a *positive moderate correlation* between students' scores obtained from translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English. During the last step of the study, using Independent Sample T-test, the study revealed the differences between EFL male and female students with regard to using translation strategies. A practical implication of the study was for the teachers to raise students'

awareness of the importance of collocations and strategies employed by them and help them become more accurate and fluent in translation of collocations.

Key words: Collocational knowledge, Collocation strategies, translation studies

۱. Introduction

Today, translation is viewed as a relatively communicative activity in which language can be practiced at all levels within a meaningful context and it is the communication of the meaning of a source-language text by means of an equivalent target-language text. Nida (۱۹٦٤) stated, "Translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language, the closest natural equivalent of Source Language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (p. ۸۳). Catford (۱۹٦٥) considers translation as the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language.

The issues of genre and text type have recently been a very important topic of serious discussions in the field of translation. Every genre has its own conventions and approaches, which distinguishes it from other text types; therefore, the matter of word choice and structure cannot be the sole determining factors in the act of translation. Various text types including literary texts require different techniques and strategies for translation in order to be efficient in conveying the intended message of the source text into the target text.

Abbasi and Dastjerdi (۲۰۰٥) note "translation of literary texts with the view to convey their intended message undistorted has always been a matter of concern to translators" (p.۳۰). They also declare what literary translators follow is a translation in which the techniques, beauty, meaning, and form of the original text are reserved and these factors make the task of translation a challenge. One of the important elements that cannot be ignored in translation of a literary text is the translation of collocations. Collocations as regular co-occurrences of words play a very important role in conveying the message from the ST into TT.

Collocations as one of the devices require considerable attention when they appear in a text to be translated. Since they are considered one of the subtleties of language, one can guess how effective cultural information of the source text could be in grasping the meaning of collocations in that they are like many other aspects of language, highly culture-bound. This feature of collocations makes them complex and difficult to understand. Another reason for the complexity of collocations in the act of translation is that they can be translated in various ways for different purposes. Thus, a translator should reach a complete understanding of collocations and their contexts of use in both SL and TL. In translation in general, and in translation of the literary texts in particular, prevention of using ill-formed sequence of lexemes and the ill-formed co-occurrence of two lexical items is necessary.

۲. Literature Review

The term *collocation* was proposed by Firth (۱۹۵۷) to the field of linguistics when he discussed that we know a word by the company it keeps. Later, Lewis (۲۰۰۰) suggested the notion of collocational competence who asserted that at least ۷۰٪ of the English language is made up of chunks of lexicon that co-occur together to produce language. The most serious problem that translators encounter in dealing with the translation of collocations is to find properly the appropriate equivalents in target language for the message of the source message. A literary piece may pose more problems because of the literary style with the use of various collocations and complex sentences or in a special style. In Sinclair's view (۱۹۹۱), a collocational structure is a co-occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a piece of discourse. The notion of collocation is similarly referred to as a sequence of two or more consecutive words with a particular relation between them in a way that it has the characteristics of a single unit whose meaning cannot be extracted from the meaning or connotation of its components.

The present study set out to explore the translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English collocations. The literature shows some previous research on collocations in the field of applied linguistics and translations from English into Persian. However, a contrastive analysis of the translation of collocations from Persian into English seems to

be of the same importance. Indeed, translators facing a collocational problem have a tendency to use one of the strategies of lexical simplification including synonym, avoidance, transfer, repetition, and paraphrasing (Howarth, ۱۹۹۸). The use of transfer is mainly due to the translators' L۱ influence, and the application of repetition can be taken as a direct consequence of the translators' inadequate knowledge of word combinations. Synonym is regarded as the unawareness of collocational restrictions between lexical items. Translators adopting avoidance strategy avoid translating a certain sentence due to their lack of collocational knowledge or The risk of Translation. Therefore, the goal of this study was to identify the strategies that Iranian translators employ when they attempt to manage their lack of collocatioal knowledge.

It seems that the issue of collocations in literary texts is a matter at hand as a phenomenon which helps one to understand the message of a target text in a more natural and accurate way. This study tries to reveal the difficulties that translators may find in understanding and guessing the meaning of words in translation of collocations and revealing the strategies that are mis-applied because of the lack of sufficient knowledge when words are combined together, though the translators know the meaning of each word individually.

Because of the sensitivity and salience of literary texts and even because of the creative minds of the literary authors, there seemed it would be an urgent need to focus on the literary texts. There exist a lot of works in translations of collocations from English into Persian, and to the best knowledge of the researcher, less work has been done in translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English with regard to short stories and Howarth's model of translation. It seems that the transmission of the Iranian literary authors and writers were underrated; therefore, there exists a crucial problem that is going to be solved.

The purpose of this study was to gain insights about the students' awareness of collocations, and the different problems which the students face when translating different types of collocations. The researcher tried to test and evaluate thestudent'sawareness by examining their translation of English collocations into Persian, and vice versa. The study tried to help students of

Translation Studies recognize the essential role of collocations in translation from both the source language to target language and vice versa.

It is very important to get to know if the students use the same strategies in the translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English and to see the difference between EFL male and female students with regard to using translation strategies.

The researcher believed that English collocations should be explicitly focused to develop their English transition abilities. Students should pay attention to the fact that there is no direct equivalent for collocations from English language to their own language and vice versa. Therefore the students' reaction may differ in translation of collocations regarding the application of Howarth's strategies.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, there is a severe lack of research in finding out the strategies including synonym, avoidance, transfer, repetition, and paraphrasing in translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English; accordingly, the purpose of the study was to bridge this gap. It is documented that collocations are an important part of language use and it is collocational proficiency that differentiates native and non-native speakers (Ellis, ۲۰۰۱; McCarthy, McCarten & Sandiford, ۲۰۰۵).

It is, therefore, the goal of this study to identify the strategies that Iranian translators resort to when they try to manage their lack of collocatioal knowledge. In so doing, through an interpretive qualitative research, the current study set out to explore the students' application of Howarth's strategies in the translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English and to see the difference in using the mentioned strategies, To examine the relationship between students' scores in the translation of collocations from English into Persian and vice versa, to find out the difference between EFL male and female students with regard to using translation strategies if any, and to reveal the students' reaction in translation of collocations regarding the application of Howarth's strategies.

The researcher, following the guidelines proposed by Howarth (۱۹۹۸), attempted to examine the use of strategies of lexical simplification including

synonym, avoidance, transfer, repetition, paraphrasing, and analogy by EFL Iranian learners in written English.

With regard to the above mentioned purposes, the following research questions guided the study:

۱.   Do the students use the same strategies in the translation of collocations from English into Persian and from Persian into English?

۲.   Is there any significant relationship between students' scores in the translation of collocations from English into Persian and vice versa?

۳.   Is there any significant difference between EFL male and female students with regard to using translation strategies?

۳. Methodology

۳٬۱ Participants

The sample consisted of ٥۸ university students based on Dörnyei (۲۰۰۷), who were selected based on their performance on Nelson Proficiency Test out of ۸٤ students. Of course, to make the data homogeneous with reference to gender, ۸ female students were also discarded from the study and therefore the researcher finally worked with ٥۸ students (۲۹ male and ۲۹ female). The students were randomly selected from BA students majoring in Translation Studies from Islamic Azad University of Quchan, Imam Reza University of Mashhad, Tabaran University of Mashhad, and Payam Noor University of Bojnord. The classes were fairly mixed and all the participants have already passed their Course of Simple Text Translation. Nearly all of the students were between the ٥th and ۸th semesters. In order to make our sampling fairly homogenous in terms of their level of proficiency, the researcher just included those students whose scores on their performance on *Nelson Proficiency Test* used in this study fell one standard deviation below or above the mean and ignored the rest.

۳٬۲ Corpus

The corpus of the study consisted of three English stories, Danial Defoe 'Robinson Crosoe ,translated by Ayaz Haddadi and also Margaret Mitchel

'*Gone with the wind*, translated by Mohammad Sadegh Shariati, and the last one being Alexander Doma ' *Robinhood*, translated by Ayaz Haddadi from English into Persian. It also included two Persian story books, Sadegh Hedayat's *The Stray Dog*, translated by Dr.Kambiz Parsa'ee, and Sadegh Hedayat's *The Blind Owl* translated into English by D.P. Costello (۱۹۵۷).

۳٫۳ Instrumentation

۳٫۳٫۱ Nelson Proficiency Test

The first instrument used in this study was Nelson Proficiency Test to make the sample homogeneous.

۳٫۳٫۲ English to Persian Test

The second instrument designed was a sample test of English language containing ۳۰ items to be translated into Persian language . The tests were regarded as samples to elicit students' translation knowledge and in this regard, they were asked to produce their translation knowledge; therefore, these tests were not in Likert scale or so and there was no need to concern about their reliability. The researcher used the contents of the tests from the textbooks and in this way; he tried to cope with the content validity of the tests and followed straightforward instructions to come up with appropriate face validity. Since he did not want to construct and validate a specific questionnaire but just to measure the students' translation performance, and tried to gather data using sample tests.

۳٫۳٫۳ Persian to English Test

The third instrument designed was a sample test of Persian language containing ۳۰ items to be translated into English language. The tests were used to elicit students' responses regarding the use of the strategies in translation of collocation. The tests measured students' knowledge of translation of non-idiomatic translation and whether they are able to convey the message.

۳٫٤ Data Collection Procedure

To gather relevant information regarding the strategies used by the students, the two sample tests were distributed to the students majoring in translation. Students' demographic information including their name, age, term, field of study, and gender were obtained by the questionnaire. Each of the tests included ۳۰ items and students were asked to translate each sentence. The part containing collocation in each item was highlighted for the students to draw their attention to them. The contents of the items were extracted from the storybooks. The collocations were contextualized and the students were required to translate them from English language into Persian language for the first test and from Persian language into English language for the second one. The researcher evaluated the students' translations to see how well the students could translate the items applying their collocational knowledge including strategies used to overcome their inadequate knowledge of collocations: Negative transfers, synonymy, paraphrase, repetition, and avoidance.

۳٫٥ Data Analysis

For the quantitative data, the researcher began correcting the students' translations gathered by means of the sample tests and employing the descriptive statistics to figure out the frequency of the wrong translations with reference to negative transfer, synonymy, paraphrase, repetition, and avoidance. Moreover, the correct translations were calculated with reference to positive translations. The dependent variable was the students' translations and the independent variable was the application of the strategies. The researcher judged whether a lexical or grammatical collocation was acceptable with the help of the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Learners of English* (Lea, ۲۰۰۲). To judge the accuracy of the students' translations, the researcher asked help from two experts who were teaching translation courses for more than ten years including his advisor. Moreover, he compared the students' translations with the translations of the story books by the eminent translators to have a better judgment of the accuracy of the students' translations.

To analyze the data for the second research question, T-test Formula was used to examine whether the difference between male and female was statistically significant with respect to the use of collocation strategies.

٤. Results

٤٫١ Quantitative Analysis

In the first step, Nelson Proficiency Test was performed for the homogeneity of the participants. The mean of the scores was ۳٤ and standard deviation was۱۱. Therefore, given one standard deviation above and below the mean, students whose scores obtained from Nelson Proficiency Test were between ۲۲ and ٤٤ were selected to take part in the study. Therefore, the researcher left with ٦٦ students out of ۸٤ students. However, to make the data homogeneous with reference to gender, ۸ female students were also discarded from the study and therefore, the researcher finally left with ٥۸ students (۲۹ male and ۲۹ female

To testify the truth or falsity of the first research hypothesis, the researcher used Descriptive Statistics. The results displayed in Table ٤٫١. The most commonly used strategies from the most to the least included positive transfer (٠٫٥٦), negative transfer (٠٫۲۲), synonym (٠٫٠۹), paraphrase (٠٫٠٦), repetition (٠٫٠٤), and avoidance (٠٫٠۱).

Table ٤٫١: Strategies applied by students translating from English language into Persian language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Positive Strategy	۱٠۱	٥٦٫۱	٥٦٫۱	٥٦٫۱
	Negative transfer	٤۱	۲۲٫۸	۲۲٫۸	۷۸٫۹
	Synonym	۱٦	۸٫۹	۸٫۹	۸۷٫۸
	paraphrase	۱۱	٦٫۱	٦٫۱	۹۳٫۹
	Repetition	۸	٤٫٤	٤٫٤	۹۸٫۳
	Avoidance	۳	۱٫۷	۱٫۷	۱٠٠٫٠
	Total	۱۸٠	۱٠٠٫٠	۱٠٠٫٠	

Table ٤٫٢: Strategies applied by students translating from Persian language into English language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Positive Strategy	۸۱	٤٥٫٠	٤٥٫٠	٤٥٫٠
	Negative transfer	۳۹	۲۱٫۷	۲۱٫۷	٦٦٫۷
	Synonym	۲٥	۱۳٫۹	۱۳٫۹	۸۰٫٦
	paraphrase	۱۸	۱۰٫۰	۱۰٫۰	۹۰٫٦
	repetition	۱۲	٦٫۷	٦٫۷	۹۷٫۲
	avoidance	٥	۲٫۸	۲٫۸	۱۰۰٫۰
	Total	۱۸۰	۱۰۰٫۰	۱۰۰٫۰	

As it can be seen, the most commonly used strategies from the most to the least included Positive transfer (۰٫٤٥), Negative transfer (۰٫۲۱), Synonym (۰٫۱۳), paraphrase (۰٫۱۰), repetition (۰٫۰٦), and avoidance (۰٫۰۳)

٤٫۳ Correlation

To testify the truth or falsity of the second research hypothesis, the researcher conducted Pearson Correlation Coefficient.

Table ٤٫۳: Correlations

		English into Persian	Persian into English
English into Persian	Pearson Correlation	۱	.٤۸٥**
	Sig. (۲-tailed)		.۰۰۰
	N	٥۸	٥۸
Persian into English	Pearson Correlation	.٤۸٥**	۱
	Sig. (۲-tailed)	.۰۰۰	
	N	٥۸	٥۸

		English into Persian	Persian into English
English into Persian	Pearson Correlation	۱	.٤٨٥**
	Sig. (۲-tailed)		.۰۰۰
	N	٥٨	٥٨
Persian into English	Pearson Correlation	.٤٨٥**	۱
	Sig. (۲-tailed)	.۰۰۰	
	N	٥٨	٥٨

**. Correlation is significant at the ۰٫۰۱ level (۲-tailed).

   The relationship between scores obtained from English into Persian and Persian into English was examined for the students using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. As Table ٤٫٥ shows, there is a **positive moderate correlation** between the two variables [r=.۳۰, n=۲۸, p<.۰٥], based on the guideline proposed by Cohen (۱۹۸۸) .

Guideline:

r=.۱۰ to .۲۹ or r=–.۱۰ to .۲۹ small

r=.۳۰ to .٤۹ or r=–.۳۰ to .٤٫۹ medium

r=.٥۰ to ۱٫۰ or r=–.٥۰ to ۱٫۰ large

٤٫٤ Independent Samples Test

To testify the truth or falsity of the forth research hypothesis, Using SPSS Software version ۱۸:۰۰, the researcher made use of Group Statistics and Independent Samples Test.

Table ٤٫٤: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (۲-tailed)	Mean Differ ence	Std. Error Differe nce	۹٥٪ Confidence Interval of the Difference Low er	Upper
English into Persian scores	Equal variances assumed	۸,۲٦۳	.۰۰٦	۱,۸۹	٥٦	.۰٦٤	۱,۸۹	۱,۰۰	-.۱۱٤	۳,۹۰
	Equal variance s not assumed			۱,۸۹	٤٦,۳	.۰٦٥	۱,۸۹	۱,۰۰	-.۱۲۳	۳,۹۱

As for Table ٤٫٧: If the Sig. value is larger than .۰٥ (e.g. .۰٧, .۱۰), we use the first line in the table, which refers to **Equal variances assumed**. In this table, the significant value is .۰۰٦, which is less than .۰٥; therefore, the second line is followed.

To find out whether there is a significant difference between the two groups (male and female), we refer to the column labeled **Sig. (۲-tailed)**. If the value in the **Sig. (۲-tailed)** column is *equal or less* than .۰٥ (e.g. .۰۳, .۰۱, .۰۰۱), then there is a significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable for each of the two groups. If the value is *above* .۰٥ (e.g. .۰٦, .۱۰), there is no significant difference between the two groups.

In Table ٤٬۷, the Sig. (۲-tailed) value is .٠٦. As this value is *above* the required cut-off of .٠٥, we conclude that there is *no* statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female.

In order to examine the third research question, there is a significant difference, another independent sample t-test was conducted.

٤٬٥ Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					۹٥٪ Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (۲-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Persian into English scores	Equal variances assumed	٤٬۸۷	.٠۳۱	۲٬۷۱	٥٦	.٠٠۹	۲٬٤٤	.۹٠	.٦٤	٤٬۲٥
	Equal variances not assumed			۲٬۷۱	۳۸٬۹	.٠۱٠	۲٬٤٤	.۹٠	.٦۲	٤٬۲۷

As for Table ٤٬۹: If the Sig. value is larger than .٠٥ (e.g. .٠۷, .۱٠), we use the first line in the table, which refers to **Equal variances assumed**. In this table, the significant value is .٠۳, which is less than .٠٥; therefore, we follow the second line.

In Table ٤٫٩, the Sig. (٢-tailed) value is .٠١. As this value is *less than* the required cut-off of .٠٥, we conclude that there is *a* statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female.

٤٫١٫٤ Calculating the effect size for independent-samples t-test

Effect size statistics offer an indication of the magnitude of the differences between the two groups. There are a number of different effect size statistics, the most commonly used being eta squared. Eta squared can range from ٠ to ١ and represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent (group) variable. SPSS does not provide eta squared values for t-tests. However, it can be calculated using the information provided in the output. The procedure for calculating eta squared is provided below.

The formula for eta squared = $t^2 / t^2 + (N1 + N2-2)$

As the table shows, in this study, t=٢٫٧١. Therefore:

$(٢٫٧١)^2 / (٢٫٧١)^2 + (٢٩ + ٢٧) = ٧٫٣٤/٦٣٫٣٤ = ٠٫١١$

The guidelines (proposed by Cohen, ١٩٨٨) for interpreting this value are:

.٠١=small effect,

.٠٦=moderate effect,

.١٤=large effect.

Thus, in this study, the effect size of .١١ is moderate.

٥. Discussion and Conclusion

Having collected the quantitative data, the researcher corrected the students' translations gathered by means of the sample tests and employed the descriptive statistics to figure out the frequency of the wrong translations with reference to negative transfer, synonymy, paraphrase, repetition, and avoidance. Moreover, the correct translations have been calculated with reference to positive translations. The dependent variable was the students'

translations and the independent variable was the application of the strategies. The researcher judged whether a lexical or grammatical collocation was acceptable with the help of the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Learners of English* (Lea, ۲۰۰۲). To judge the accuracy of the students' translations, the researcher asked help from two experts who were teaching translation courses for more than ten years included his advisor. Moreover, he compared the students' translations with the translations of the story books by the eminent translators to have a better judgment of the accuracy of the students' translations.

As shown in the previous chapter, the translator students mis- applied the translation strategies from English language into Persian language and vice versa in translation of collocations. The most commonly used strategies that the students applied in translation of collocations from English language into Persian language from the most to the least included Positive transfer (۰,٥٦), Negative transfer (۰,۲۲), Synonym (۰,۹), paraphrase (۰,٦), repetition (۰,٤), and avoidance (۰,۱).Whereas from Persian language into English language The most commonly used strategies from the most to the least included Positive transfer (۰,٤٥), Negative transfer (۰,۲۱), Synonym (۰,۱۳), paraphrase (۰,۱۰), repetition (۰,٦), and avoidance (۰,۳).

The data revealed that the students had more tendencies in application of the translation strategies in translation of the collocations as they were translating from Persian language into English language. As a matter of fact, the students resorted to use them for lexical simplification because of their inadequate and insufficient knowledge. On the other hand, because the native language of the students was Persian, they were more familiar with the Persian collocations and as the statistics revealed the students had less tendency to apply them.

The results of the study showed at first, most of the students' errors in translation came not from their insufficient knowledge of grammar but from their inability with regard to the combination of language units, emphasizing that no piece of written English is totally free of collocation. Second, *transfer* stands out as being the most widely employed strategy that the students apply to overcome their collocational problems, emerging from their negative transfer of both English and Persian collocations, and also language

interference was the main source of translator students' errors in their performance.

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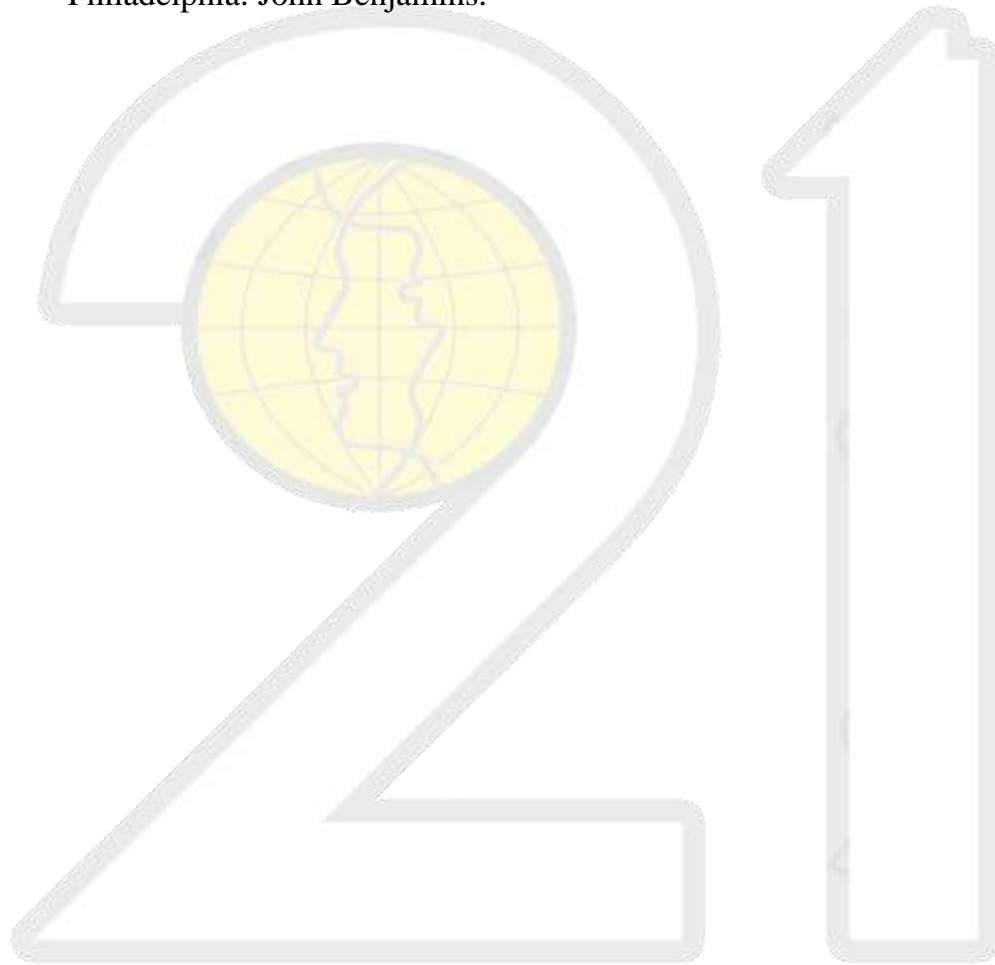
Sluicing in Persian language: nonstructural approach

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Abstract

In this paper sluicing will be investigated in Persian language. Sluicing is a type of ellipsis that is introduced by a wh-expression and everything is elided from the clause except the interrogative phrase. This syntactic phenomenon has been studied on the basis of structural and nonstructural approaches. In structural approach, Merchant (۲۰۰۱،۲۰۱۲) proposes that words are elided because of syntactic and semantic similarity. Also this analysis includes two process: wh-movement and deletion of TP. Wh-movement is an obligatory operation that moves (the highest) wh-phrase of a clause to Spec-CP followed by deletion of TP and Toosarvandani (۲۰۰۸) proposes that sluicing in Persian language is not like English but it is a focus movement process and it is because of two reasons: to be ungrammatical sentences and to solve island violations, he studied and discussed his approach in Persian, and confirmed his claim (PF analysis). Merchant's (۲۰۰۱) analysis is proposed on sluicing with an antecedent. The following study displayed that there are two types sluicing in Persian language (Vaezi, to appear). These two types are as follows: with an antecedent, without an antecedent. Structural approach is not sufficient to answer all cases in Persian. This paper will be discussed in

Jackendoff and Culicover's framework (۲۰۰٥); particularly,   without antecedent ones (sprouting). The aim is to show how analysis of nonstructural approach and to compare it with structural approach. Finally, the author proposes that nonstructural approach is able to present great achievement on sluicing according to syntactic analysis of data.

Key words: Sluicing, Sprouting, Structural approach, Nonstructural approach

۱. Introduction

In syntax, sluicing is a type of ellipsis that occurs in interrogative clauses. This ellipsis is introduced by a wh-expression, in most cases, everything except the wh-expression is elided from the clause and sluicing is illustrated in (۱).

۱. Ali ye čizi xord, amâ nemidunam či

   Ali one thing,IND ate.PST.۳SG, but NEG,know what

 'Ali ate something, but I don't know what'[1]

The sluices in (۱) should be compared to their non-elliptical counterparts in (۲).

۲. Ali ye čizi xord, amâ nemidunam[CP či[TP Ali<či> xord]]

   Ali one thing,IND ate.PST.۳SG, but NEG,know what Ali what ate.PST.۳SG

   'Ali ate something, but I don't know what Ali ate.'

Sluicing has been studied in recent years by many linguists and it occurs in many languages. The first, Ross (۱۹٦۹) argued that sluicing is formed by wh-movement and the deletion of the remaining structure under identify with some antecedent, then Lasnik (۲۰۰۱) and Merchant (۲۰۰۱) analyze sluicing as

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[1] The author uses the following abbreviations in this paper: IND – indefinite, NEG – negation, PRES – present, PST – past, Q – question, ۱SG – first person singular, ۳SG – third person singular

involving movement of a wh-phrase out of a constituent (S, IP or TP)[1] followed by deletion of node. This analysis includes two parts: movement + deletion. Sluicing is two processes: wh-movement and deletion of TP. Wh-movement is an obligatory operation that moves the (highest) wh-phrase of a clause to Spec-CP. This derivation is shown in (Tree diagram ۱) and angled brackets show deletion:
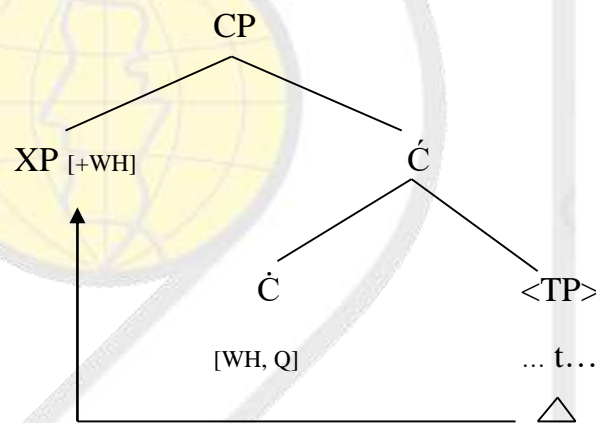
Tree diagram ۱

(Vicente, ۲۰۱٤: ۱)

Merchant's (۲۰۰۱) approach to the identity conditions, which stipulates a deleted TP is recoverable if a mutual entailment relationship exists between the deleted TP and the antecedent TP in the surrounding discourse. This constraint is the e-giveness constraint (Merchant, ۲۰۰۱:۳۱). This approach can justify sluicing with an antecedent but it is not able to answer the acceptable grammar of sprouting.

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[1] TP , a tense phrase, and IP, a inflectional phrase, basicly stand for the same thing, what they mark is a linguistic phrase with a subject(doer) and a predicate(action).
CP is a complementizer phrase. It is the node that connects two sentences (two TPs or two IPs)-for example, main clause and embedded clause.

This paper includes four sections. The first part is the review of literature and investigations on sluicing in Persian language. The second one is the theoretical framework on sluicing analysis. The third part is to investigate different types of sluicing in Persian language. To examine Persian evidence on the basis of Jackendoff and Culicover's framework is the main part of this paper. The last section is conclusion of this study.

۳) Review of the literature

Toosarvandani (۲۰۰۸) studies Persian sentences on the basis of Merchant approach (۲۰۰۱). He examines how well the movement-plus-deletion analysis extends to Farsi as a wh-in-situ language that, has a sluicing construction nearly identical to its English counterpart.

He argues that the interrogative phrase in Farsi sluicing escapes deletion not by wh-movement in English but by a type of focus movement (۲oo۸, p.۶۷۷).

(۳) Reza ye čizi goft, amâ nemidunam [FP či[TP Reza<či>goft]].

   Reza one thing,IND said.PST.۳SG, but NEG,know what Reza

   <what> said.PST.۳SG

 ' Reza said something, but I don't know what Reza said'

Persian has a construction that is identical on the surface to sluicing in English. In both languages, sluicing leaves behind an interrogative phrase, but English is an obligatory wh-fronting language and Farsi is wh-in situ. In the constituent question corresponding to the sluice above, the wh-phrase 'či' (what) does not raise out of TP.

Sluicing in Persian is derived by movement of an interrogative phrase to the specifier of a focus projection, Spec-FP, followed by deletion of TP with presence of feature E. Toosarvandani (۲۰۰۸) proposes that the E feature can only appear on the Foc head when it also bears a feature requiring a wh-phrase in its specifier. Since focus fronting applies equally to all major constituents of the clause (Tree diagram ۲).

FP

[wh]   Ḟ

F   <TP>

[E,uwh]   …<wh>…

Tree diagram ۲

(Toosavandani, ۲۰۰۸:۷۰۰. Vaezi, to appear)
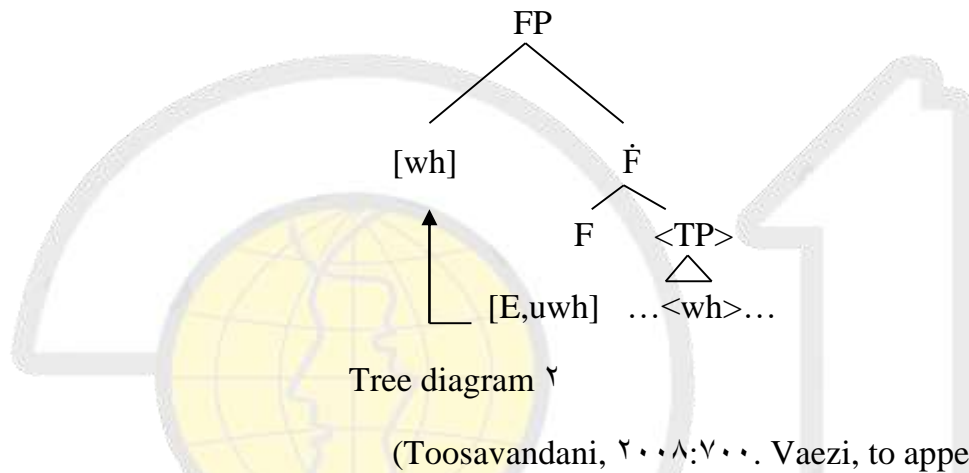
Shafiee Nahrkhalaji and Rashidi Ashjerdi (۲۰۱۲) argue that the movement of wh-phrase is not obligatory. In fact, the main purpose of their study is to explore sluicing as a real wh-in-situ language that displays optional wh-movement analysis rather than wh-movement, they examined the movement-plus-deletion approach and the role of focus fronting in moving the remnant out of the deleted constituent in Persian sluicing to a position where it can be stranded. They propose that in languages such as Persian, Japanese and Bulgarian where multiple wh-fronting is possible, multiple sluicing is acceptable. Multiple sluicing can be simply defined as construction with two or more remnants like the following example:

(٤) Ye kesi be pedar ye čizi goft amâ nemidunam ki čio.
   One person to father one thing said.۳SG but NEG.know who
   what.CASE
   'Somebody said something to father but I don't know who what'
          (Shafiee Nahrkhalaji and Rashidi Ashjerdi, ۲۰۱۲: ۸۰٤)

They and Toosarvandani (۲۰۰۸) state that sluicing isformed by movement and deletion.

Vaezi (to appear) introduces two types of clausal in Persian named sluicing (with an antecedent) and sprouting (without an antecedent). Her studies

indicates that one of the most popular analysis about this kind of structures, named 'Deletion analysis' doesn't cover all the grammatical diversities in Persian sentences and relying on another approach, 'Re-Use analysis', based on views of Chung et al (۲۰۱۱) examines the Persian sentences. She indicates that embedded clause is elided, but the wh-phrase outside the clause has remained, and hence, before the ellipsis of the clause, the wh-phrase goes out of its place and moves up, to a higher place which in English belongs to 'internal questions'

Vaezi (ibid) examines this type of ellipsis and states besides syntactic considerations, pragmatic ones could be mentioned in Persian such as argument structure, voice, case system, discourse markers and lexical selection.

٤) Theoretical framework of study

Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰٥) state that " Sluicing " is showed by a bare interrogative phrase in a context where an indirect question would be expected. They define Sluicing in their Simpler Syntax Theory and argue against structural approach. In their framework, the author can analyze sluicing in a different way in Persian language because they consider the semantics and syntax in the same level.

This approach in terms of indirect licensing is very simpler, and in that the wh-phrase has no further underlying structure (Jackendoff & Culicover, ۲۰۰٥: ۲٦۸). Simpler Syntax Theory avoids Merchant's (۲۰۰۱) assumption and Ross's (۱۹٦۹) original proposal that PF deletion can save island violations. In English, Merchant (۲۰۰۱) believes that after the wh-movement, the rest at the embedded clause should be deleted because it makes the sentence ungrammatical, so island violation can be improved by deletion.

This study proposes that Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰٥) states different approach to analyze sluicing in Persian language. They believes in the sluicing is one type of BAE[1] (bare of argument ellipsis), and orphan is marked as a wh-

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[1] BAE: Bare argument ellipsis is an ellipsis mechanism that elides everything from a clause except one constituent.

(A) a. What did you buy?
      b. A handbag

question, whiles Merchant (۲۰۰۱) states the connection between BAE and sluicing. This approach posits no structure in sluicing site, and Jackendoff and Culicover's (۲۰۰٥) idea, showed in (٥) below:

(٥)   Someone just left-guess   S

vp

who

(Vicente, ۲۰۱٤: ٥)
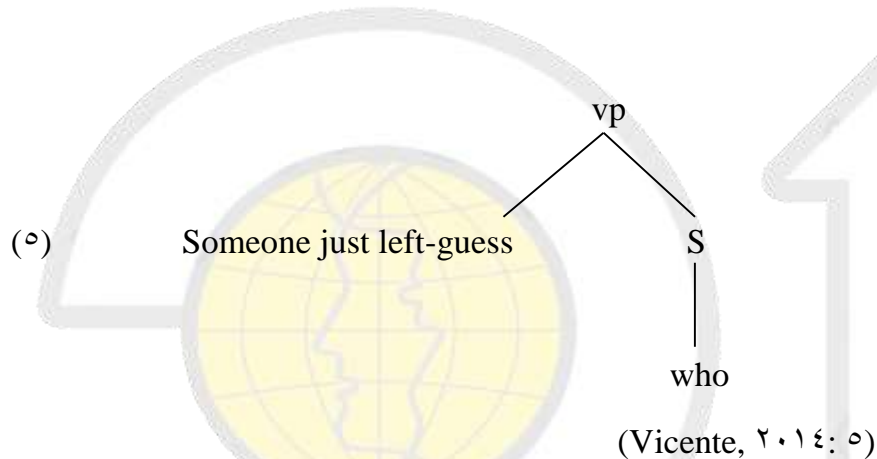
The remnant "what" is a direct complement of the embedding verb, and the correct form of the sluiced takes from a syntax-semantics rule in (٦).

(٦)   Indirect licensing of sluicing remnants

syntax: $[_s \text{wh}_i{}^{\text{ORPH}}]^{\text{IL}}$ semantics: $QX[f(x_i)]$

(Jackendoff & Culicover, ۲۰۰٥: ۲۷۰)

According to (٦), "S" is the first sentence in Sluicing structure and orphan in linguistics means something that is singular and alone like wh-question in sluicing. Indirect licensing (IL) is referential content of "missing" pronouns in the fragment inferred from the discourse, i.e. from the question that elicited the fragment as a response, also corrective function of elliptical utterance like "not teach any subject" effectuated by use of fixed expression + ellipsis.

The superscripts IL and ORPH are triggers for the general rule of Indirect licensing, which matches the IL-marked constituent to an antecedent and the orphan to target within the antecedent (Vicente, ۲۰۱٤: ٥).

Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰٥: ۲۷۰) argue that the semantics contains a question operator Qx, which binds the semantics of the wh-word. This makes the meaning that of a wh-question. The function f is the propositional content

of the question, to be filled in by indirect licensing. The syntactic category is S, in order to account for the distribution of sluicing shown above.

٥) Analysis of sluicing on the basis of Jackendoff and Culicover's approach as a nonstructural approach

٥,١. Analysis of sluicing with an antecedent

As mentioned before in this paper, there are two subtypes of sluicing. Sluicing with an antecedent (classical sluicing); in some examples of sluicing, the missing material might be something that corresponds to something in the antecedent.

In (٧) the missing material is ' t Sara xund' (t Sara read) where is the trace of the extracted wh-phrase and corresponds to something in the antecedent "čizi" (something). So, ' t Sara read ' is structurally identical to 'something Sara read' and this fact permits it to be sluiced.

(٧)   a. Sara ye čizi xund, hads bezan či

  Sara one thing=IND read.PST.۳SG, guess IMP-hit, what

   'Sara read something, guess what'

    b. Sara ye čizi xund, hads bezan [Sara či xund].

    Sara one thing=IND read.PST.۳SG, guess IMP-hit, [Sara

    what read].

     ' Sara read something, guess what Sara read'

     c. Sara ye čizi xund, hads bezan [či۱[Sara t۱ xund]]

     Sara one thing=IND read.PST.۳SG, guess[what[Sara

     read.PST.۳SG

     ' Sara read something, guess what Sara read'

According to Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰۵) as a theoretical framework of this study, the remnant či (what) in (۸) is a direct complement of embedding verb "nemidunam" (I don't know). They propose that sentence (۸) contains no syntactic material in ellipsis site. Instead, the wh-phrase či (what) is the sole daughter of an "S" node which is the complement to "nemidunam"(I don't know).

(۸)   a. Ali ye čizi xarid ama nemidunam [S či].

　　　Ali one thing=IND bought.PST.۳SG. but NEG.know, [S what]

　　　'Ali bought something, but I don't know what'

```
                                               vp
                                              /  \
  b. Ali ye čizi xarid ama nemidunam ────────/    \──────── S
                                                            |
  Ali one thing=IND bought.PST.۳SG                          |
                                                            |
  NEG.know, what                                       či (what)
```

　　　'Ali bought something, but I don't know what'

According to (٦), či (what) binds to "S" and the "S" node has the construction type sluiced-interrogative-clause "či Ali xarid"(what Ali bought). The "S" node či (what) is notated "IL" (for indirect licensing) and the wh-phrase is an orphan; the semantics is a free variable f that is constructed by indirect licensing from context. The function $f[…]$ is constructed by reference to the antecedent. In (۸) the meaning of či (what) is constructed by reference to the antecedent "ye čizi"(one thing). Each interrogative sentence has a question operator (QX) and in fact the semantics contains a question operator which binds the meaning of the wh-word. The function f (a variable) is the propositional context of the či (what) to be filled in by indirect licensing. Sluicing with an antecedent have been examined on the basis of Merchant's (۲۰۰۱) approach and this approach have analyzed this kind of sluicing, but

this approach is not able to examine sluicing without an antecedent in "movement-plus-deletion" analysis.[1]

٥,٢. Analysis of sluicing without an antecedent (sprouting)

In some sluicing examples, the trace doesn't correspond to anything in the antecedent and it needs "sprouting" like (۱۰b, ۱۰c, ۱۰d, ۱۰e).

(۱۰)   a. Reza ye čizi xord ama nemidunam či.

Reza one thing ate.۳SG but NEG,know what.

'Reza ate something but I don't know what.'

b. Reza dobâre xord ama nemidunam či. ?

Reza again ate.۳SG but NEG,know what

'Reza ate again but I don't know what.'

c. Reza dobâre bastani xord amâ nemidunam čerâ. ?

Reza again ice-cream ate.۳SG but NEG, know why.

'Reza ate ice-cream again but I don't know why.'

d. Reza dobâre bastni xord amâ nemidunam če noʔi.??

Reza again ice-cream ate.۳SG but NEG,know če noʔi

'Reza ate ice-cream again but I don't know what kind.'

e. Reza hamiše bastanye vânili karxoneye xâsi mixore amâ

nemidunam kodum ???

---

[1] Merchant proposes that PF deletion in sluicing with an antecedent can save island violations, but his approach is not able to answer sluicing without an antecedent and even deletion is not sufficient and they are ungrammatical, like the following example:

(A) * Ye mâšin jolo dare, amâ nemidunam mâle kye
     one car in front of the door, but NEG.know, whose
     'There is a car in front of the door, but I don't know whose this'   (Vaezi, to appear)

Reza always ice-cream vanilla factory special eat.۳SG but

NEG,know which.

'Reza always eats special factory vanilla ice-cream but I don't

know which'

A deletion analysis is acceptable in (۱۰a), the missing material is something like "*Reza xord t "(Reza ate),* where t is the trace of the extracted wh- phrase and corresponds to "*ye čizi"(one thing)* in the antecedent. But analysis is less acceptable for other examples like ۱۰b, ۱۰c, ۱۰d, ۱۰e. Analysis is quite problematic for examples where extraction from full clauses is impossible. In (۱۱a, ۱۱b) the trace doesn't correspond to anything in the antecedent (sprouting), in (۱۱c, ۱۱d) the syntactic extraction is impossible, according to Jackendoff and Culicover's (۲۰۰۵) approach, there are not regular and apparent constraints on movement because there is no movement and in fact no offending structure, it means there is no feature that extracts wh and moves it in the clause and (۱۱e) it is not grammatical.

(۱۱) a. Reza dobâre xord amâ nemidunam či ~~Reza dobâre xord t.~~

Reza again ate.PST.۳SG but NEG.know, what Re~~za again ate t~~

'Reza ate again, but I don't know what'.

b. Reza dobâre bastani xord amâ nemidunam čerâ ~~Reza dobâr~~

~~b~~astani ~~xord t~~

Reza again ice-cream ate.PST.۳SG. but NEG.know, why

~~Reza again ice-cream ate.PST.۳SG t~~

' Reza ate ice-cream, but I don't know why'.

c. Reza dobâre bastani xord amâ nemidunam če noʔi ~~Reza dobâre~~

~~bastani xo~~rd. **?**

Reza again ice-cream ate.PST.۳SG. but NEG.know, what

kind ~~Reza again ice-cream ate.PST.۳SG~~

'Reza ate ice-cream again, but I don't know what kind'.

d. Reza hamiše bastanye vânili kârxoneye xâsi mixore amâ

~~nemidunam kodum Reza hamiše bastanye vanili [kârxoneye~~

~~xâsi t mixore]~~.**??**

Reza always ice-cream vanilla factory special eats.Pres.۳SG. but

~~NEG.know.Pres.۱SG which Reza always ice-cream vanilla~~

~~factory special eats.Pres.۳SG.~~

'Reza always special factory vanilla ice-cream, but I don't know which'.

e. *Reza yâ bastani mixore yâ sigar mikeše ama nemidunam

kodum.

Reza either ice-cream eat.۳SG or cigarette smoke.۳SG but I

NEG.know.۱SG. which.

*' Reza either eats ice-cream or smokes cigarette but I don't know

which.'

In contrast of Ross (۱۹٦۹) , Merchant (۲۰۰۱) and Toosarvandani (۲۰۰۸), Simpler Syntax solution is that there are no apparent constraints on movement because there is no movement, in fact no offending structure.

Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰٥) suggest that sluicing is a construction that utterance meaning is that of a wh-question. So, it can be used in context where an indirect question can be semantically licensed. The structure that they propose for sluicing is shown in (٦).

The syntax-semantics interface supplies the interpretation of the empty categories through their correspondence with antecedent clause. It can be shown in (۱۰a):

Syntax: [NP e] [či] [VP e]

Syntax: [NP e][what][vp e]

Semantics: 'Reza či xord'.

Semantics: 'Reza what ate'.

In (۱۰a) či binds to S node that is 'Reza či xord'(Reza what ate) and the wh-phrase is an orphan that can be mtched with a trace in the clause, i.e. či (what) is an orphan in (۱۰a) that matched with 'ye čizi'(one thing) in the antecedent clause.

The semantics is made with a free variable *f* that is constructed by 'Indirect licensing' from context and the function *f* in the interpretation is constructed by reference to the antecedent and semantics contains a question operator (QX) which binds the meaning of the wh-word. The propositional content of či (what) can be formed by indirect licensing that is the function *f*.

As it mentioned above, in (۱۱a, ۱۱b) the trace doesn't correspond to anything in the antecedent (sprouting). Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰۵) argue against Ross (۱۹٦۹) and Merchant (۲۰۰۱) and their approach in terms of indirect licensing is far simpler and wh-phrase has no underlying structure and there is no movement, so wh-questions like či (what) in (۱۱a) and čerâ (why) in (۱۱b) have no movement and they are like a fragment that hanging on node 'S' by indirect licensing. In fact wh-question in these examples is dominated by a clausal node, and sluiced phrases appear in positions occupied by clauses. The syntactic structure present at the surface.

The remnant 'či'(what) in (۱۱a) and 'čerâ'(why) in (۱۱b) are direct complements of embedding verb'nemidunam'(I don't know). Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰۵) proposes that examples (۱۱a) and (۱۱b) don't contain any syntactic material in ellipsis site and 'či'(what) and 'čerâ'(why) are the sole

daughters of 'S' node which are the complements to 'nemidunam'(I don't know).

(۱۱)

a. Reza dobâre xord amâ nemidunam

   Reza again ate.PST.۳SG. but NEG.know what

   ' Reza ate something again, but I don't know what'

b. Reza dobâre bastani xord amâ nemidunam

   Reza again ice-cream ate.PST.۳SG. but NEG.know why

   'Reza ate ice-cream again, but I don't know why'

In (۱۱c, ۱۱d) the syntactic extraction is impossible, because these sentences consist of an orphan x can be interpreted as embedded in a larger indirectly licensed proposition. The orphan in (۱۱c) is wh-question če noʔi (what kind) that needs to be indirectly licensed propositional content 'Reza dobâre bastani xord'(Reza ate ice-cream again) and according to (٦), a free variable *f* is the propositional content of 'če noʔi' (what kind) to be done by indirect licensing and it is needn't, wh-question 'če noʔi'(what kind) is corresponded by a reference to the antecedent in 'Reza dobâre bastani xord'(Reza ate again ice-cream).

In (۱۱d) 'kodum'(which) is the orphan and it is indirectly licensed proposition 'Reza hamiše bastanye vânili kârxoneye xâsi mixore' (Reza always eats special factory vanilla ice-cream)and *f* is the propositional content of 'kodum'(which) to be filled by a indirect licensing and wh-question

'kodum'(which) need n't to correspond to the antecedent in 'Reza hamiše bastanye vânili kârxoneye xâsi mixore' (Reza always eats special factory vanilla ice-cream).

According to data analysis, the most cases of sluicing in Persian are examined and nonstructural approach could analyze problematic examples like sluicing without an antecedent.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that in Persian, sluicing is a wh-in-situ language, but structural approach is not able to answer all sluicing sentences like sprouting and another approach (nonstructural approach) that is proposed by Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰٥) can examine sprouting examples. Merchant(۲۰۰۱) believes that in English the sluicing is formed by omission of the rest embedded clause after wh-movement because it makes the sentence ungrammatical, so island violation can be improved by deletion. However, in some sentences in Persian, this solution (deletion) can not save the sentences. The author could analyze sluicing in a different way in Persian language on the basis Jackendoff and Culicover (۲۰۰٥) because they consider the semantics and syntax in the same level (semantics and syntax level) in their framework.   Nonstructural approach posits no structure in sluicing site, instead the wh-phrase is the sole daughter of an "S" node which is the complement to the embedding verb and wh-Q binds to "S" that is notated"IL" and the wh-phrase is an orphan. Semantics is a free variable f that is formed by indirect licensing from context. Therefore, relying solely on structural approach (Deletion plus Movement) is not able to answer all sentences in Persian and another approach like Jackendoff and Culicover's (۲۰۰٥) idea can answer more questions.

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The Extent and Situations of Using L۱ by Iranian EFL Teachers and Students

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Abstract

This study aimed to explore the Iranian teachers' and students' attitudes towards using first Language in English Language classes. Furthermore, it aimed at showing the extent and situations in which they employ code- switching. The participants were ٦٠ teachers and ١٢٢ students from ٧ language learning institutes of Tehran. The study enjoyed a triangulation method using questionnaires, observations and interviews. The results indicated that both groups of teachers and students had negative attitudes towards using first language in their English language classes. However, the teachers admitted that depending on the situation and the students' level they might switch to first language. The three most frequent functions of teachers' code switching and using L۱ were affective functions, topic switch and explaining difficult words and grammar, functions that were confirmed by the interviews as well. Furthermore, students admitted that they were pleased with their teachers speaking Persian when teaching complex grammar points and equivalent proverbs and idioms. Further investigations indicated that there is consistency between teachers' attitudes towards using L۱ and their real performance in class. Some implications were suggested based on the results.

Keywords: Attitude; First language (L۱); Second Language (L۲); Code Switching (CS)

Introduction

It is evident that speaking in a second/ foreign language is not as easy and fluent as speaking and communicating in the first language. We all know foreign language speakers who might not be able to finish a sentence without going back and forth between their L۱ and L۲. This is an action commonly known as code switching (CS). CS is a phenomenon under study in bilingual as well as multilingual communities. In Iran, where English is considered a foreign language, CS would be mostly observed

in EFL classes. Yet, there are different beliefs among EFL teachers and learners regarding its use and functions.

Recent researches have indicated that L١ use can serve important cognitive, communicative, and social functions in foreign and L٢ classrooms (MacMillan & Rivers, ٢٠١١). Mattioli (٢٠٠٤) claims that in many language-learning contexts teachers are warned against using their students' L١ since it will lead to an increase in students' L١ use. However, Macaro's (٢٠٠٥) study found no correlation between teacher's L١ use and the frequency of using L١by beginner and lower-intermediate learners. In fact, he found no significant increase in students' target language use when teachers used the target language (TL) exclusively or almost exclusively. Macaro (٢٠٠٥: ٧٢) concludes that "code switching by the teacher has no negative impact on the quantity of students' L٢ production and that 'expert code switching' may actually increase and improve it." Other studies have demonstrated that student comprehension and production of the TL can be enhanced through judicious L١ use (e.g., Butzkamm, ١٩٩٨; McMillan & Turnbull, ٢٠٠٩; Rivers, ٢٠١١a, ٢٠١١b).

Although many studies have mentioned the functions of CS and have shown the effectiveness of learners' L١ on L٢ learning (e.g. Mattioli, ٢٠٠٤; Nazary, ٢٠٠٨; Levine ٢٠٠٩), there are complaints that students pick up their L١ when communicating which can be discouraging for many teachers. Therefore, they may prefer an English-only approach in their classes and ignore the possible positive effects of L١ on their students' language knowledge. Additionally, to the experience of the researchers, students would extensively resort to their mother tongue whenever they are not competent enough in the TL. Yet, some studies conducted in Iran indicate that students are reluctant to use Persian in their EFL classes (e.g., Nazary, ٢٠٠٨; Mahmoudi, ٢٠١١). Therefore, the inconsistency in the findings of recent researches made the researchers of this study set forth to reinvestigate the Iranian teachers' and students' use of L١ in their English classes.

Literature Review
Attitudes towards code-switching
During the ١٩٧٠s and ١٩٨٠s, classroom code switching was not viewed or analyzed seriously, rather students were obliged to use the target language within the classroom for any kinds of communication (Chaudhury, ٢٠١٢). While in the Grammar Translation Method, students' native language was (and still is) used as the medium of instruction, in the Direct and Audio-lingual Method the mother tongue is forbidden. As classroom based research started to develop during the ١٩٩٠s,

classroom language interaction and classroom code switching started to gain importance in language learning classes; however, the controversy is still going on.

In many cases, code-switching is commonly viewed with suspicion. Teachers have been concerned to minimize code-switching in the classroom, considering the switches either as a failure to learn the target language or as a sign of unwillingness to do so (Yao, ۲۰۱۱). For example, Cummins and Swain (۱۹۸٦: ۱۰٥) argued that "progress in the second language is facilitated if only one code is used in the classroom, asserting that the teacher's exclusive use of the target code will counteract the 'pull' towards the native code". On the other hand, there are researchers such as Stern (۱۹۹۲) and Cook (۲۰۰۱, ۲۰۰۸) arguing that students' L۱ deserves a place in FL classrooms. They attempt to question the long-held belief of excluding the L۱ from the classroom. This group of researchers believe that code-switching can be a useful tool in assisting the process of English language teaching and learning because it helps the senders transfer the information to the receivers effectively leading to positive effect on learning processes. Another case in point is that speakers use code-switching to compensate for their lack of fluency and proficiency in the target language by using their first language to keep a flow during the communication (Jakobsson & Ryden, ۲۰۱۰).

The role of L۱ in L۲ learning

Contrary to the L۱ = L۲ hypothesis, which is the main theoretical argument underling the monolingual approach and holds that L۲ learning should be based on the way that children acquire their L۱, the learner's L۱ has in fact been shown to play important cognitive, communicative, and social functions in L۲ learning (McMillan & Rivers, ۲۰۱۱).

Referring to Butzkamm ۲۰۰۳, Jadallah and Hasan ۲۰۱۱, summarize the advantages of using L۱ in language classes. The list includes two main issues. The first group is concerned with affective factors such as providing a sense of security, maintaining a stress free atmosphere, and saving the learners from a feeling of frustration they might have within their foreign language learning. The second group deals with considering L۱ as the asset people bring to FL learning and the point that all newly-acquired items have to find connections which are eventually deep enough for L۲ to function independently of the L۱.

The idea of using L۱ to soften the atmosphere and make it more stress free has been mentioned by other researchers as well (e.g., Alenezy, ۲۰۱۰). They also assert that code switching can be used to emphasize a particular point, to substitute a word in place of an unknown word, to express a concept that has no equivalent in the L۱

culture, to reinforce a request, to clarify a point, to express identity and communicate friendship, to ease tension and inject humor into a conversation.

Empirical studies of code-switching in FL classrooms

Apart from the debates over the necessity of CS in EFL classrooms, various empirical studies have been conducted focusing on observing the instances and amounts of L۱ use by either teachers or learners, and classifying the various functional uses of L۱ in teachers' or students' talk.

Reporting the results of a study done by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie in ۲۰۰۲, Jingxia ۲۰۱۰ asserts that the discourse analysis of ٦ French classes showed that code-switching functioned mainly for translation, meta-linguistic and communicative purposes. In another study done by Weng and Pei-shi (۲۰۱۲), the researchers adapted Hymes's (۱۹٦۲) framework, which included expressive, directive, meta-linguistic, poetic and referential functions to analyze the speakers' uses of code-switching in classroom setting. The results showed that the teachers used code-switching to give students' instructions, to explain complex concepts, and to explain difficult words. The teachers asserted that they used many different code-switching skills to help the students understand the lesson and also to keep the teaching fluent. Further, they used code-switching to express the meanings of the new vocabulary and some complex concepts, such as grammar.

Amorim (۲۰۱۲) aimed to illustrate how EFL students in Portugal alternate between foreign and native language to perform certain pragmatic functions and counter-balance for language deficiencies. She studied student-student interaction during a group-work speaking activity to uncover some of the reasons for code switching through recording their conversation and interviewing them. The results illustrated that CS was used to fill in lexical or grammatical gaps in the TL, to negotiate language and meaning, and to manage the activities. The researcher concluded that "in the EFL classroom, when learners activate one language they do not necessarily deactivate the other." (p.۱۸۷). She added that it is sometimes impossible or even unrealistic for students to avoid using their mother tongue.

In ۲۰۱۲, Choudhury attempted to focus on the reasons for teachers' code switching and the attitude of teachers and students towards code switching. Her survey resulted in identifying the reasons for teachers' code switching like ease of communication, explanation, maintaining discipline in classroom, and the translation of the unknown terms. On the other hand, she found that although many do not believe in code switching, students possess a positive attitude towards it.

Using L۱ in foreign language classes has surfaced in studies that aimed at areas of research as well. For example, Hua and Mohd Nor (۲۰۱۲) investigated how and when oral communications are used in discussions between the international

students. The aim was to determine the differences in the use of communication strategies between high and low proficient speakers. The findings indicated that the most frequently employed communication strategy was CS.

Following the review of related literature, this study aimed at taking a close look at the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students towards using L۱ in Iranian EFL classes. Also, the possible functions of teachers' and learners' use of L۱ in EFL classes and the reasons behind them were of interest. Accordingly, the following research questions were formulated:

۱. What are Iranian students' and teachers' beliefs about using L۱ in EFL classes?
۲. To what extent and in what situations do teachers and students employ the L۱?
۳. What are the functions of the L۱ adoption by teachers and students?
۴. Is there any consistency between teachers' attitudes towards using L۱ and their real performance in class?

No hypothesis was suggested for the first three questions, due to their exploratory nature. However, for the last research question a null hypothesis was proposed.

Methodology

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed and the study enjoyed a triangulation data collection method using questionnaire, observations, and interviews. The participants were chosen through a non-random sampling. They included ۱۲۲ EFL learners and ۶۰ teachers from ۷ language institutes in Tehran. The students were all female, intermediate or upper-intermediate and between the ages of ۱۶ to ۲۳.

The teachers' questionnaire was a combination of a self-rating scale questionnaire used by several researchers (Gaudart, ۲۰۰۳; Schweers, ۱۹۹۹; Manara, ۲۰۰۹) selected from Lee's (۲۰۱۰) study. The students' questionnaire was originally constructed by Montazar (۲۰۰۹) and used in another study by Rahimi and Jafari in ۲۰۱۱. Cronbach's Alpha for the questionnaire used in Rahimi and Jafari was ۰٫۸۴. The questionnaire which was translated into Persian and rechecked by two experts was a Likert scale with three choices: agree, no idea, and disagree.

In order to provide support for the data, selective observations of ۱۰ EFL classes were conducted for the whole ۹۰ minutes of the classes one week after the questionnaire phase. After completing the questionnaires and observations, an interview was conducted with participant teachers and students. They lasted for an average of ۱۵ minutes.

Having obtained the consent of the administrators, the questionnaires were distributed through email or personal delivery. Out of the ۸۰ questionnaires distributed, ٦٥ were returned. Out of the ۱۷۰ questionnaires distributed among studnts, only ۱۳۰ were appropriate for analysis.

The observation of classes started one week after the collection of questionnaires. During the observations, attempts were made to focus on the points that led to students' and teachers' code-switching and possible reasons behind them. The classes were recorded and notes were taken during the observation in order to make it possible to go back through the responses. Each session was observed for ۹۰ minutes.

After the observation, the study continued with interviewing the volunteer teachers and students. The interviews were conducted in Persian after consulting the participants about which language they would prefer to be interviewed in.

The results obtained from the questionnaires were fed to SPSS version ۲۰. Cronbach's Alpha was employed for both questionnaires and after determining the reliability, each question was analyzed separately.

After completing the observations, the audio-recordings and notes taken during the observations were transcribed and organized. The recorded interviews were immediately transcribed so that the time interval would not lead to forgetting any data. Notes that were taken before were also checked out during the transcriptions. After transcribing the data, the similar themes between responses of participants regarding each interview question were detected. The attitudes of teachers' and students' towards CS were determined through a comprehensive analysis of interview responses.
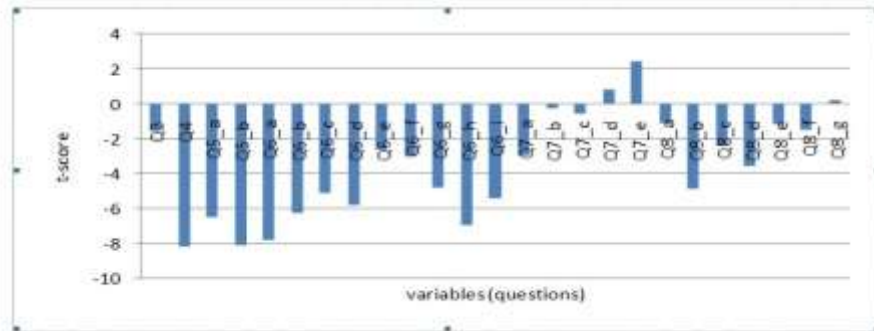
Results
Results of the questionnaires

Based on table ۱ below and with regard to questions ۷d, ۷e and ۸g, the teachers' attitudes towards using Persian in EFL classes were positive, i.e. teachers believed that using CS can help students relate their L۱ and L۲; it helps students clear doubts and uncertainties on subject matter; and that through using CS students are able to feel comfortable and secure in learning L۲. However, regarding other questions, responses are less than ۲, meaning that the attitudes tend to be negative.

Table 1

Statistical Analyses on General Attitudes of Teachers Towards Using L1

	T	*df*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Q3	-1.561	59	0.124	-0.167	-0.38	0.05
Q4	-8.251	59	0.000	-0.750	-0.93	-0.57
Q5_a	-6.536	59	0.000	-0.700	-0.91	-0.49
Q5_b	-8.158	59	0.000	-1.017	-1.27	-0.77
Q6_a	-7.825	59	0.000	-0.917	-1.15	-0.68
Q6_b	-6.273	59	0.000	-0.883	-1.17	-0.60
Q6_c	-5.144	59	0.000	-0.750	-1.04	-0.46
Q6_d	-5.830	59	0.000	-0.833	-1.12	-0.55
Q6_e	-2.687	59	0.009	-0.367	-0.64	-0.09
Q6_f	-3.052	59	0.003	-0.500	-0.83	-0.17
Q6_g	-4.781	59	0.000	-0.550	-0.78	-0.32
Q6_h	-6.989	59	0.000	-0.833	-1.07	-0.59
Q6_i	-5.403	59	0.000	-0.800	-1.10	-0.50
Q7_a	-2.971	59	0.004	-0.367	-0.61	-0.12
Q7_b	-0.256	59	0.799	-0.033	-0.29	0.23
Q7_c	-0.539	59	0.592	-0.083	-0.39	0.23
Q7_d	0.841	59	0.404	0.117	-0.16	0.39
Q7_e	2.440	59	0.018	0.367	0.07	0.67
Q8_a	-1.120	59	0.267	-0.167	-0.46	0.13
Q8_b	-4.886	59	0.000	-0.733	-1.03	-0.43
Q8_c	-2.401	59	0.020	-0.417	-0.76	-0.07
Q8_d	-3.553	59	0.001	-0.550	-0.86	-0.24
Q8_e	-1.144	59	0.257	-0.183	-0.50	0.14
Q8_f	-1.508	59	0.137	-0.233	-0.54	0.08
Q8_g	0.193	59	0.848	0.033	-0.31	0.38

Figure ۱.

Teachers' Attitudes towards Using L۱

Figure۱ illustrates the results. The bars above the horizontal axis show teachers' positive attitudes and the bars below the axis show their possible negative attitudes towards each question.

Based on analyses of the teachers' questionnaire, the teachers (٥٥٪) had a tendency towards using Persian when they wanted to help their students relate their L۱ and L۲, either through teaching grammar or saying the general differences of L۱ and L۲. Additionally, ٥٨٪ of the teachers agreed that using Persian can help students to clear doubts on subject matter and that through using L۱, students feel comfortable and secure in learning English and in this way there could be a good rapport between teacher and students. When interviewed, teachers believed that the amount of CS depends on the level of students and the situation in which they are. Most of them agreed that using L۱ can be helpful in explaining difficult points, creating good relationship and maintaining a good classroom atmosphere; however, some asserted that applying CS extensively will make students lazy and dependent on L۱.

The analyses of students' questionnaires indicated that they disagreed with using L۱ for the sake of better exposure to L۲ (٨٢،٦٪ disagreed). But they thought when more complex subject matters such as grammar structures and giving equivalent proverbs and idioms in Persian were concerned, L۱ could be effectively used. This was in line with students' responses through interviews that it is inevitable for the teacher to use L۱ to explain difficult grammar rules and to explain complex concepts and vocabularies; however, ٧٩ (٦٠،٣٪) of total students disagreed with the usefulness of Persian when new vocabularies are introduced. When interviewed, the students agreed that using Persian in order to have a smooth conversation is irresistible.

Results of the observations

During the observations, code switching was employed ۳۳ times by the teachers. According to table ۲, T٦ and T٨ used Persian in their classes more than other teachers (۲۱٪ and۱۸٪ respectively). Additionally, figure ۲ illustrates that affective functions were the most frequent CS functions in classes (۲۷٪) which was in accordance with what was found through the questionnaires. This was also approved by the teachers who admitted that they would say a joke or a proverb in Persian in order to change the atmosphere of the classes. Topic switch and explaining new words were also among the most observed CS functions (both ۲٤٪). Using Persian for explaining new words was also among the most occurred functions of CS (۲٤٪). This was consistent with teachers' claims; most of the teachers mentioned that they mainly used Persian when they were teaching grammar or when there was a new word that required clarification.

Students generally used Persian ٨٤ times and the most frequent observed CS function was when students were talking about issues not related to the lesson (٤۳٪). Additionally, using Persian as an equivalent for the target word was the most happened function (۳٨٪) which was also approved by students when they were

Table 2

Frequency of Code Switching Used By Teachers

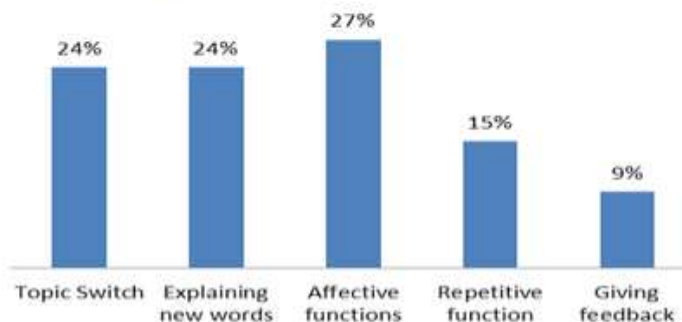|	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	*f*	*p*
Topic Switch	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1		8	24%
Explaining New Words				1	1	2	1	2	1		8	24%
Affective Functions		2	2			1	1	1		2	9	27%
Repetitive Function	1					1	1	1		1	5	15%
Giving Feedback						2		1			3	9%
F	2	3	2	2	2	7	4	6	2	3	33	100%
P	6%	9%	6%	6%	6%	21%	12%	18%	6%	9%	100%	

T=teacher; p=percent; f=frequency

Figure2. Functions of Code Switching Employed by Teachers

interviewed. It is clear that students used more L۱ than their teachers and this could be due to their lower English proficiency.

Results of the interviews
Teachers' interviews
Q ۱: Do you think code switching in your English classroom helps students learn English? Give reasons if possible.
Q ۲: Do you code switch when you are teaching English?
Q ۳: What are your beliefs about the effects of code switching on students' English development?
Answering the questions, out of ۱۰ teachers, ۵ were strongly positive about using CS. However, they all mentioned that it depended on the situation. Analyzing the responses the following similar themes were identified:
•	reduces tension and anxiety.
•	can be a motivation for lower-level students to learn English.
•	can be positive for their English comprehension.
•	can help students speak better, because they are not under pressure.
•	can increase students' self-esteem.
However, the teachers mentioned some disadvantages as well. The two most emphasized ones were: ۱. It will make the students be dependent on their first language. ۲. The students will have problem in a real situation.

Students' interviews
Question ۱: Do you think students should be allowed to speak Persian in English classes? If yes, in what situations?
Question ۲: Do you think it is useful when teacher uses Persian? If yes, in what situations.
Question ۳: In what way(s) might using Persian in your English class influence you?
Only ٤ of the students had a high opinion regarding using Persian in English classes. However, those who said "no" when asked about using Persian by students agreed that it is alright if the learners use Persian when they do not know the target vocabulary.
Students generally disagreed with using Persian by their teacher, unless she is teaching grammar, because they believed that grammar is not something to be taught solely in English. The students mentioned some points regarding the effects of CS on their English development:
•	The English word sticks to my mind after hearing the Persian equivalent.
•	I learn the grammar better.

- I feel more confident and comfortable when allowed to use Persian.
- Persian is sometimes the only solution.
- Using Persian makes us dependent and lazy.
- When Persian is spoken in class, I get disappointed in learning English.
- Insisting on English only classes will lead us towards better learning.
- I lose my concentration when my friends speak Persian.

Furthermore, there seemed to be consistency between what the teachers said about employing L۱ and their actual performances. Nearly all the teachers asserted their agreement with using Persian when teaching grammar. Almost all the teachers admitted using Persian in order to have fun and to change the atmosphere of the class. Comparing the results of observations and interviews, there was an agreement between what the teachers said and what they did. An example was teacher ۳ who never used Persian when teaching grammar. Besides, in class ۳ they were mostly working on listening part, hence no topic switch was observed. Only T۶ and T۸ used Persian when giving feedback; these two teachers had a high opinion about the effectiveness of L۱ and as it is obvious from table ۲, the two teachers exploited CS more than other teachers.

Discussion

The findings illustrated both students' and teachers' reluctance towards using CS; however, teachers agreed with using Persian only when teaching complex grammar points, explaining difficult words or changing the atmosphere of the class. The results were in line with Butzkamm's (۲۰۰۳) belief that a foreign language friendly atmosphere is best achieved through selective use of the L۱. Students had more or less the same ideas. They too emphasized that L۱ should be used only when teaching difficult grammatical structures or idioms and their equivalents.

The findings of this study were in line with some other studies such as Nazary (۲۰۰۸) that elicited the attitudes of Tehran University students towards the use of Persian in English classes. The results of his study indicated that learners were reluctant to use Persian in their English classes. Similarly, Mahmoudi (۲۰۱۱) carried out a study to observe the amount of CS on two pre-university Iranian classes. The findings showed that an excessive use of Persian could have a demotivating effect on students. Although, the results confirmed those of Rahimi and Jafari (۲۰۱۱) who asserted that the majority of students believed that neither teachers nor students should apply L۱, even though it might facilitate their interactions, the students mentioned some exceptions. Furthermore, similar to Butzkamm's (۲۰۰۳) study, the students of this study claimed that L۱ use gives a sense of security and helps learners to be stress-free. The findings illustrate that there are common points in this study

and that of Man and Lu (۲۰۰٦, as cited in Alenezy, ۲۰۱۰). They found that teachers in Hong Kong schools also use code switching to ease tension and inject humor into conversations. The study was also in accordance with findings of Jakobsson and Ryden's (۲۰۱۰) study. In both studies code-switching during EFL lessons mostly occurred when students conversed with their peers about issues which were not related to the lesson.

The findings, however, opposed Duff and Polio's (۱۹۹۰, as cited in Jingxia, ۲۰۱۰) results who found a great amount of L۲ use by teachers of the University of California; a point which was not witnessed in this study. The reason for this discrepancy was probably the fact that the contexts of the two studies were different. That is, teachers of the University of California work in a native English language context where, most probably, they do not share the same native language with their students; however, the students of the present study were learning English as a foreign language. Additionally, in Macaro's study, most students reported that they expected their teachers to speak the L۱ sometimes to facilitate their understanding; many indicated that they could not learn if they could not understand their teacher. However, the students of the present study did not prefer their teachers to use L۱ extensively. The results were also contrary to Alenezi's (�2۰۱۰) study, in which the participant students showed a strong preference toward a specific medium of instruction that was Arabic/English code switching. But it is worth mentioning that in Alenezi's study the students were in fact studying another subject via the medium of English. In Durano's (۲۰۰۹) study as well, the participant students, opposing to the present study, were generally positive towards code-switching. Furthermore, one part of the results in which students of this study used L۱ for social functions was in contrast with the results of Moradkhani's (۲۰۱۲) study in which students used L۱ for pedagogical purposes rather than social ones. In short, although the first assumption was that teachers might be the only group who disagrees with using Persian, it was proved that students would also desire to restrict their use of the L۱ in EFL classes. This was a point that was not witnessed in previous studies in which due to lack of direct conversation with students they did not have the chance to express points not been mentioned in questionnaires.

Conclusion and Implications

The findings revealed that both EFL teachers and students, despite their general disagreement with CS, preferred to use it occasionally. The justification might be that the use of some L۱ provides more time to practice L۲ because understanding is achieved more rapidly. However, teachers prefer to limit it to clarifying complex grammatical rules, building a good rapport with students or assisting them to understand difficult words. This supports Cook's (۲۰۰۱) idea that using L۱ allows

students to become more aware of the similarities and differences between cultures and linguistic structures and provides interlink between knowledge of the two language in the students' minds.

Hence, it could be concluded that teachers are aware of the moments of CS application as well as its quantity and quality. Also, they acknowledge the possible effects of L۱ on foreign language development. Similarly, students did not have a high opinion towards CS, but they believed that teachers should adopt the L۱ when they are teaching difficult grammatical structures or idioms. Additionally, the results indicated that students will resort to L۱ in communicating with their peer students, since they are either short in proper English vocabularies, or they are intentionally avoiding English. This is commonly observed when they are talking about points which are not directly related to the subject matter, related to what cook ۲۰۰۱ refers to as "external relevance".

The findings may have some implications for syllabus designers, material developers, and language teachers. This study may give language teachers the insight that using L۱ should not always be frowned upon. The study may widen the vision of those who see L۱ as a hinder helping them to realize that TL can be enhanced through judicious L۱ use. Despite all, it would be more satisfying if the study had been done with a larger number of participants that included males as well as females. The students were mostly between the ages of ۱٦ to ۲۳ studying at intermediate levels; consequently, the results may not be generalized to other groups. Furthermore, only ۱۰ teachers and ۱۲ students were interviewed and only ۱۰ classes were observed; the more the number of interviewed participants and observed classes, the more reliable the results would be. Replicating the study with a larger number of participant teachers from larger number of institutes and conducting the study with learners at different language proficiency levels could be suggested for further researches.

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